

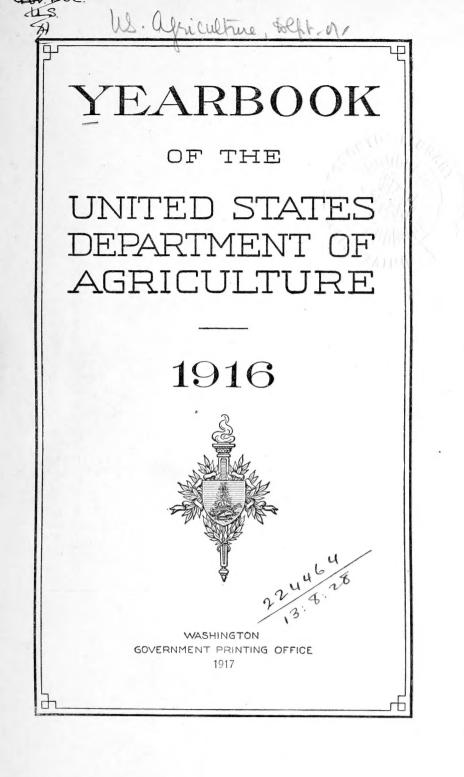




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[CHAPTER 23, STAT. L., 1895.]

[AN ACT Providing for the public printing and binding and the distribution of public documents.]

Section 73, paragraph 2:

The Annual Report of the Secretary of Agriculture shall hereafter be submitted and printed in two parts, as follows: Part One, which shall contain purely business and executive matter which it is necessary for the Secretary to submit to the President and Congress; Part Two, which shall contain such reports from the different Bureaus and Divisions, and such papers prepared by their special agents, accompanied by suitable illustrations, as shall, in the opinion of the Secretary, be specially suited to interest and instruct the farmers of the country, and to include a general report of the operations of the Department for their information. There shall be printed of Part One, one thousand copies for the Senate, two thousand copies for the House, and three thousand copies for the Department of Agriculture; and of Part Two, one hundred and ten thousand copies for the use of the Senate, three hundred and sixty thousand copies for the use of the House of Representatives, and thirty thousand copies for the use of the Department of Agriculture, the illustrations for the same to be executed under the supervision of the Public Printer, in accordance with directions of the Joint Committee on Printing, said illustrations to be subject to the approval of the Secretary of Agriculture; and the title of each of the said parts shall be such as to show that such part is complete in itself.

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Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, CARL VROOMAN.

Solicitor, FRANCIS G. CAFFEY.

Attorney in Charge of Forest Appeals, THOMAS G. SHEARMAN.

Chief Clerk, R. M. REESE.

Appointment Clerk, R. W. ROBERTS.

Expert on Exhibits, F. LAMSON-SCRIBNER.

Office of Information, G. W. WHARTON, Chief.

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Bureau of Plant Industry, WM. A. TAYLOR, Plant Physiologist and Pathologist and Chief.

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YEARBOOK OF THE U.S.DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE.

WASHINGTON, D. C., November 15, 1916.

SIR: The half of agriculture embracing the marketing of farm products, rural finance, and rural organization has strikingly occupied attention during the last three and one-half years. Before 1913 little systematic thought had been devoted to it and there did not exist, either in the States or in the Nation, effective instrumentalities to furnish assistance and guidance to farmers in this field, nor had the laws necessary to remedy abuses and control unfavorable conditions been formulated or enacted. In view of the complexity and novelty of the problems, the accomplishments—legislative and administrative—have been notable and significant. This seems an opportune time to summarize them.

Early in 1913 a program for the ensuing four years was developed. This program in large measure has been executed. In the first place provision was made promptly for the creation of the Office of Markets and Rural Organization. Beginning with a modest sum, the appropriations for this office, including those for enforcing new laws to promote better marketing, have increased to \$1,242,000. Quickly an effective organization was developed and to-day the Nation possesses in this department the largest and best trained and supported staff of experts dealing with the distribution of agricultural commodities and rural organization to be found anywhere in the world. It is engaged in investigating all the larger and more difficult problems confronting farmers in this new field.

The matter of establishing standards for staple agricultural products, of supervising the inspection of grains shipped in interstate and foreign commerce and the operations of cotton futures exchanges, of devising financial machinery suited to the needs of the rural population, of developing a better system of warehouses for agricultural products, and of Federal aid in highway construction, received careful attention. The result was the enactment of a number of highly important laws—the Cotton Futures Act, the United States Grain Standards Act, the United States Warehouse Act, the Federal Farm Loan Act, and the Federal Aid Road Act.

Under the Cotton Futures Act, which was enacted on August 18, 1914, and reenacted with amendments in the Agricultural Appropriation Act for the fiscal year 1917, standards for cotton have been established, the operations of the futures exchanges have been supervised, and cotton trading has been placed on a sounder basis.

The United States Grain Standards Act, which is included in the Agricultural Appropriation Act for the fiscal year 1917, will bring about uniformity in grading, enable the farmer to obtain a fairer price for his product and to improve its quality, and prevent or diminish materially the shipment of adulterated grain.

The United States Warehouse Act, also included in the Agricultural Appropriation Act for 1917, authorizes the Department of Agriculture to license bonded warehouses which handle certain agricultural products. It will make possible the issuance of reliable and easily negotiable warehouse receipts, promote the better storing of farm products, and encourage the standardizing of storages and of marketing processes.

The Federal Farm Loan Act was approved on July 17, 1916. It creates a banking system which will reach intimately into the rural districts, operate on terms suited to the farmer's needs under sympathetic management, introduce business methods into farm finance. bring order out of chaos, reduce the cost of handling farm loans, place upon the market mortgages which will be a safe investment for private funds, attract into agricultural operations a fair share of the capital of the Nation, and lead to a reduction of interest.

A provision in the Federal Reserve Act, which was approved on December 23, 1913, authorized national banks to lend money on farm mortgages and recognized the peculiar needs of the farmer by giving his paper a maturity period of six months.

The Federal Aid Road Act, approved July 11, 1916, provides for cooperation between the Federal Government and the States in the construction of rural post roads and of roads and trails within or partly within the National Forests. This measure will conduce to the establishment of a more effective highway machinery in each State, strongly influence the development of good road building along right lines, stimulate larger production and better marketing, promote a fuller and more attractive rural life, add greatly to the convenience and economic welfare of all the people, and strengthen the National foundations.

BUREAU OF MARKETS.

I have recommended in the estimates for the fiscal year 1918 that the name of the Office of Markets and Rural Organization be changed to "Bureau of Markets." The importance of the work and the size of the organization fully justify this change, and there is widespread sentiment throughout the country in favor of it. It is in the interest of simplicity and convenience and will give the organization a title by which it is already generally known.

The work of the Office of Markets and Rural Organization has developed very rapidly, and some notable results have

been secured. Definite assistance has been rendered to the fruit interests of the States of Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and Montana. An organization composed of cooperative associations, corporations operating for the producers, and individual growers was formed during the past year. The purpose of the organization is to secure broader distribution through the establishment of uniform grades and marketing methods. Through it the fruit industry of the Northwestern States should be placed upon a more efficient business basis. It comprises 65 per cent of the northwestern fruit industry, representing an investment of \$150,000,000, and supporting approximately 20,000 growers. This is probably the most important single activity in forming cooperative organizations that has yet been undertaken by the department.

Well-tested systems of accounts and records for primary grain elevators, for live-stock shipping associations, and for cooperative stores have been issued. Systems for country creameries and cotton warehouses have been devised and are being tested under commercial conditions. Systems perfected by the department for farmers' cooperative elevators and for fruit and produce associations already are in extensive use. A plan for adapting farmers' grain-elevator companies to the patronage dividend basis has been worked out and published.

The issuance of monthly cold-storage reports on apples has been continued, and the work has been extended to include butter, eggs, and cheese. These reports show the coldstorage holdings throughout the country, and include a comparison of the holdings of the current year with those of the previous year. In cooperation with carriers, extensive investigations of the economic waste of foodstuffs in transit have been conducted. The object of these investigations is to secure better cooperation between shippers and carriers and greater efficiency in methods of handling, with a view to eliminate, or at least greatly to reduce, the present waste.

Report of the Secretary.

MARKETING LIVE STOCK AND MEATS.

A systematic survey of centralized live-stock markets, begun during 1915, has been extended to cover practically all the large stockyard centers. Arrangements have been made with 58 stockyard companies to secure monthly reports of live-stock receipts and shipments. A uniform system of market records has been adopted, at the instance of the department, by a number of the yards. Twenty-six companies are reporting stocker and feeder shipments separately, in accordance with a form prepared by the Office of Markets and Rural Organization.

An investigation of the organization and conduct of cooperative live-stock shipping associations, begun during 1915, has been completed and the results published. The directory of these associations now includes 485 organizations, aside from 440 other agricultural associations which ship live stock as a branch of their business. The farmers' cooperative packing-house movement was studied and a press bulletin on the subject was issued.

A conference relative to the marketing of live stock and meats was held at Chicago November 15 and 16, 1915, for the purpose of "ascertaining the essential facts pertaining to the industry with a view to bring about more stable marketing conditions, more efficient methods, closer cooperation, and a better understanding among all the interests connected with the industry." Representatives of all the National organizations and of other interests concerned with the live-stock and meat industry participated in the meeting. The proceedings were published as House Document No. 855, Sixty-fourth Congress, first session.

Methods and costs of marketing live stock and meats in the United States were investigated. Extensive schedules were sent to 10,500 correspondents of the Bureau of Crop Estimates. A summary and discussion of the returns, together with data on economic factors affecting the cost of

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marketing and distribution, has been published. A preliminary investigation of the sources, accuracy, and use of market reports on live stock and meats has been made. The results of this study also have been published and have been utilized in the development of plans for the organization of a demonstration market news service for live stock similar to that now conducted for perishable crops. An appropriation of \$65,000 has been made available for the purpose. Other subjects which received attention are public abattoirs, transportation of live stock, organization and methods of the wholesale meat-packing industry, and local marketing of live stock and meats.

Surveys have been made of the marketing facilities for agricultural products in nine cities and advice has been given regarding the location, establishment, and management of municipal retail and wholesale public markets. Detailed studies also have been made of local conditions in other cities. The department now is prepared to furnish a model design for a public retail market, with the cost, fully equipped, estimated on the basis of square feet. Designs of model steel sheds for use on open farmers' markets also are available.

Investigations concerning methods of handling and grading perishable products and the practicability of the standardization of the products and their containers have progressed rapidly. Tentative grades for sweet potatoes of Arkansas and Bermuda onions of Texas have been worked out and adopted by the local growers' associations. Several standardization laws, Federal and State, have been enacted during the year. The most significant Federal legislation in this field is the United States Grain Standards Act. Congress also has established the 2, 4, and 12 quart sizes, with certain dimensions, as standards for Climax baskets for grapes and other fruits and vegetables, as well as the drymeasure one-half pint, pint, quart, or multiples of the quart as standards of capacity for baskets or other containers for small fruits, berries, and vegetables.

Preliminary plans have been formulated for the investigation of foreign markets for American farm products and for assistance in the development of the export trade under normal conditions. A representative of the department recently conducted investigations in Europe along this line. The work, in so far as possible, will be done in close cooperation with the Departments of State and Commerce.

A survey of State marketing activities has been made and the results published. Provision was made in the Appropriation Act for the fiscal year 1917 for cooperation with the several States in the employment of marketing agents. This provision should enable the department to bring about a close coordination of the marketing activities and policies of the various States with those of the department.

DEMONSTRATION MARKET NEWS SERVICE.

The value to producers of fruits and vegetables of the experimental market news service inaugurated in 1915 resulted in insistent demands for the extension of the work. During the past year telegraphic reports have been received from 33 important metropolitan markets and from officials of all railroads serving producing territory. The information thus secured has been furnished to growers, shippers, and distributors through 35 temporary offices in producing territories and 11 permanent offices in large cities. Statements from growers and shippers of tomatoes, strawberries, peaches, cantaloupes, watermelons, onions, grapes, apples, and potatoes indicate that the actual monetary saving due to a wider knowledge of market conditions has exceeded the cost of the service many fold.

The education of producers in the proper marketing of farm products, the avoidance of unnecessary losses due to diversions in transit, and the encouragement given to growers who desire to reach new consuming centers are some of

the benefits resulting from this attempt to develop for the farmer a reliable business basis.

THE COTTON FUTURES ACT.

The work under the Cotton Futures Act, which was reenacted with amendments at the last session of Congress, progressed satisfactorily. In addition to the Official Cotton Standards of the United States, which were promulgated on December 15, 1914, official cotton standards for tinges and stains were promulgated on January 28, 1916. Reproductions of these standards were furnished the future exchanges and spot markets which have adopted the official standards for white cotton.

While the compulsory use of the official standards extends only to contracts on future exchanges made subject to section 5 of the act, they were accepted and used voluntarily in all the more important spot markets and form the basis of their dealings. Demonstrations of the use of the standards have been conducted among farmers in many of the cottonproducing districts of the South, and arrangements have been made to provide 125 county agents in that region with reproductions of the standards. The interest in, and approval of, the Official Cotton Standards is not confined to this country. This is shown by the fact that the Rotterdam Cotton Exchange has adopted them.

As a result of the operation of the Cotton Futures Act, quotations for spots and futures have maintained a steady relation to each other. Future quotations now are better indications to the farmer of the value of his commodity than formerly. This uniformity has demonstrated the value of the future markets for legitimate hedging purposes. It is clear, therefore, that the general purposes of the act have been, and are being, accomplished.

GRAIN STANDARDS AND WAREHOUSE ACTS.

The Office of Markets and Rural Organization, in cooperation with the Bureau of Plant Industry, has been charged with the duty of administering the United States Grain Standards Act. Plans for its enforcement have been developed as rapidly as possible.

Official standards for shelled corn, effective December 1, 1916, were issued on September 1. These standards consist of 6 grades each for white corn, yellow corn, and mixed corn, and also a sample grade, making 19 grades in all. As the inspection requirements of the act are not operative as to any grain until standards for it have been established thereunder, the supervision of inspection and grading for the present will be confined to corn. Standards for wheat and oats are in process of determination. Studies for the purpose of securing the information necessary to establish standards for other grains, including the grain sorghums, are under way.

Tentative rules and regulations for the enforcement of the act were published and distributed on October 14, 1916, and all interested parties were given an opportunity to make suggestions concerning them. Public hearings were held in four of the large grain marketing and exporting centers and in Washington. The suggestions received by letter and at the hearings were fully considered in drafting the final form of the rules and regulations, which were promulgated on November 6, 1916, effective December 1, 1916.

Examinations have been held at various points to determine the competency of persons who have applied for licenses to inspect and grade shelled corn and to certificate the grade thereof. Licenses relating to other grains will not be issued until standards for them have been established.

In order that the work of licensed inspectors may be supervised properly, and appeals and disputes under the act dealt with promptly, it has seemed advisable for the present to divide the country into 32 districts. This number may be increased when standards for other grains have been established. The districting has been made with a view to place

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all sections of the country in convenient reach of a grain supervisor. In each district there will be an office of Federal grain supervision, usually in charge of a grain supervisor or a board of grain supervisors. The city in which the office is located has been designated in each case as the district headquarters. The right to appeal or to refer a dispute in all cases must be exercised by sending the question for determination to the grain supervisor in charge of the particular district under whose jurisdiction it falls.

Grain producers and all branches of the grain trade have shown a commendable desire to cooperate with the department in bringing about the most beneficial operation of the law.

The administration of the United States Warehouse Act has been intrusted to the Office of Markets and Rural Organization. The rules and regulations for its enforcement are in course of preparation. A tentative draft will be published in the near future, and all interested parties will be given an opportunity to submit suggestions.

THE FOOD SUPPLY.

Interesting questions arise as to whether the domestic food supply of the Nation is keeping pace with the growth in population and as to what are the prospects for the future. The following table in this connection is illuminating:

	Production.		
Item.	Total.	Per capita.	
Meats: Beef, veal, mutton, and pork (pounds):			
1899	18,865,000,000	248.2	
1909	19, 712, 000, 000	213.9	
1915	22, 378, 000, 000	219.6	
Dairy products:			
Milk (gallons)—			
1899	7, 265, 804, 304	95.6	
1909	7, 466, 406, 384	81.0	
1915 (estimated 1)	7, 696, 844, 000	75.5	

Food supply of the United States. Population: June 1, 1900------ 75, 994, 575 92, 174, 515

Report of the Secretary.

	Productio	Production.		
Jtem.	Total.	Per capita.		
Dairy products-Continued.				
Butter and cheese (pounds) -				
1899	1, 790, 097, 244	23.6		
1909	1, 942, 378, 069	21.1		
1915 (no data available)				
Poultry products:				
Poultry raised (number)-				
1899				
190)	488, 500, 000	5.3		
1915 (estimated)	555, 500, 000	5.5		
Eggs (dozens)-				
1899	1, 294, 000, 000	17.0		
1909	1,591,000,000	17.3		
1915 (estimated 1)	1, 811, 000, 000	17.8		
Fish (pounds):				
1900-1904	989, 275, 00 0	² 12.5		
1908	1,046,541,000	3 11.6		
1915 (no data available)				
Cereals: Corn, wheat, and rice (bushels):				
1899	3, 333, 868, 710	43.9		
1909.	3, 257, 407, 468	35.3		
1915	4,094,986,999	40.2		
Potatoes (bushels):				
1899	273, 318, 167	3.6		
1909	389, 194, 965	4.2		
1915	359, 103, 000	3.5		
Sweet potatoes (bushels):		1		
1899	42, 517, 412	.56		
1909	59, 232, 070	. 64		
1915	74, 295, 000	. 73		
Citrus fruits: Oranges, lemons, and grapefruit (boxes):				
1899	7,075,557	. 09		
1909	23, 447, 044	. 25		
1915 (estimated)	24, 670, 282	. 27		
Orchard fruits: Apples, peaches, and pears (bushels):				
1899	197, 455, 620	2.6		
1909	190, 433, 327	2.1		
1915	304, 686, 000	3.0		
Small fruits (quarts):				
1899	463, 218, 612	6.1		
1909	426, 565, 863	4.6		
1915 (no data available)				
Sugar (pounds):				
1899	486, 006, 871	6.4		
1909	1, 688, 300, 143			
	2,025,680,000	19.9		

Food supply of the United States-Continued.

¹ Based upon average annual increase, 1899 to 1909, as shown in census.
 ² Based upon population June 1, 1902, 79,230,563.
 ³ Based upon population June 1, 1909, 90,556,521.

These statistics cover the past 16 years. Within this period the population of the Nation has increased, in round numbers, 26,000,000, or 33 per cent. The articles dealt with cover the more important parts of the diet of the people. Meats and dairy products constitute 37 per cent of the average diet, fish 2 per cent, cereals 31 per cent, Irish and sweet potatoes 13 per cent, and other vegetables 8 per cent. It is notable that, notwithstanding the very rapid increase in population, the production per capita of the commodities indicated, with the exception of meats and dairy products, has remained approximately the same or has increased.

Similar statistics are not available for vegetables, other than Irish and sweet potatoes, but it is reasonable to assume that there has been at least a proportionate increase in production. The figures for Irish potatoes may be taken as a fair index of the normal increase of vegetable products. The potato acreage increased from 2.938,778 in 1899 to 3,668,855 in 1909, or 24.8 per cent, while the value of the product increased during the same period from approximately \$98,400,000 to approximately \$166,400,000, or 69.2 per cent. The value of all other vegetables increased during the 10-year period from \$120,000.000 to \$216,000,000 and the acreage by over 600,000. The statistics regarding canned vegetables are significant. In 1899, 19,300,000 cases of canned vegetables, valued at approximately \$28,700,000, were packed in the United States. In 1909, 32,800,000 cases, having a value of approximately \$51,600,000, were packed.

The area from which vegetables are drawn constantly is increasing, and improved canning, marketing, and transportation facilities have made it possible to supply our large markets with vegetables in greater variety throughout the year. It is a well-known fact that the consumption of fruits and vegetables has increased considerably in recent years and that they constitute a larger and more important part of the permanent diet of the people.

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With all the agencies now available for improving agriculture there is ground for optimism as to the ability of the Nation not only to supply itself with food, but increasingly to meet the needs of the world.

INCREASING THE MEAT OUTPUT.

To increase the meat production of the United States has been one of the principal aims of the department in recent This can not be accomplished in a day, but requires vears. steady constructive effort over a period of years. Whatever may have been the influence of the department's work, it is gratifying to note that the decline in beef production reached its lowest point in 1913, and that since that date there has been a material increase, while there has been a marked advance in the number of swine since the census year 1899. The number of sheep has continued to decline. but only to a slight extent. The number of animals slaughtered and the quantity of meat products prepared under Government inspection during the past fiscal year are the largest in the history of the service; yet this heavier slaughtering has been accompanied by an increase in the remaining stock of animals.

In December, 1913, a committee of experts was appointed to make a thorough survey of the meat situation. As a result of this study, the department recently issued a series of illuminating reports. They furnish information of value not only to the public but also to the department and suggest more definitely the lines of attack which the department should follow in its efforts to increase the meat supply.

The activities of the department have taken two principal directions—(1) checking and eliminating diseases and parasites and (2) increasing and improving stock raising by extending the industry where conditions are favorable and by pointing the way to better breeding and feeding.

COMBATING STOCK DISEASES.

The eradication of the southern cattle tick is proceeding more rapidly than ever before and is opening up for beef and dairy production a large territory. During the past fiscal year 31,358 square miles were released from quarantine and, in addition, 9,493 square miles were released on September 15, 1916. Within the past three years the quarantine has been removed from 106,810 square miles, making a total of 294,014 since the work was begun in 1906. This represents a territory greater than the combined areas of South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi. More than 40 per cent of the original tickinfested territory has been cleared, and therefore the direct losses, originally estimated at \$40,000,000 annually, are being greatly reduced.

The diseases known as sheep scabies and cattle scabies likewise are being eliminated rapidly from the Western States. During the fiscal year 1916, 43,243 square miles were released from quarantine for sheep scabies and 12,691 for cattle scabies. At present only 286,398 square miles remain under quarantine for sheep scabies and 3,817 for cattle scabies.

Hog cholera.—Hog cholera, always the cause of heavy losses throughout the country, is less prevalent this year than for many years. This is due, in marked degree, to the wise application of the protective serum devised by the department and to the demonstration work in certain selected counties. The beneficial results of the field demonstrations are shown by a comparison of statistics for the 14 experimental counties before the work was undertaken and after it had been in progress for a time. There was an increase in the number of hogs raised in these counties from 859,910 in 1912 to 1,334,644 in 1915, while during the same period there was a decrease in the number that died from 152,296 to 30,668. This is an increase of 474,734 in the number raised and a decrease of 121,628 in the number lost, or a total gain of 596,362 hogs. This demonstration shows what can be accomplished by the use of serum with sanitary measures, and undoubtedly has led to the extended use of such methods by farmers. The experimental plan would be impracticable and too expensive for the department to operate on a large scale, but the work will be continued in a modified form.

Contagious abortion.—Contagious abortion in recent years has reached such proportions as seriously to threaten the cattle-raising industry. It strikes at the source by curtailing the production of calves. It has been studied by the department, and vigorous efforts are being made to advise stock breeders as to its nature and means of prevention and eradication. The last Congress, upon the recommendation of the department, made a special appropriation of \$50,000 for attacking the problem.

Foot-and-mouth disease.—I am glad to be able to report the complete suppression of foot-and-mouth disease during the year. The disease appeared near Niles, Mich., late in the summer of 1914 and reached 22 States and the District of Columbia. It extended entirely across the country, from Massachusetts on the east to Washington on the west, the region of greatest prevalence being from New York to Illinois.

After July 1, 1915, the disease occurred only in Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, Indiana, and Minnesota. Before the end of August it had been eradicated from the last three mentioned States. It recurred in Massachusetts in October, 1915, and was promptly suppressed. In Illinois the last herd of cattle affected by the natural spread of the disease was disposed of in February, 1916. The infection reappeared, however, early in May among some test animals on a previously infected farm. These animals had been placed there to determine, before the owner was allowed to restock his farm, whether the disinfection was effective. As the cleaning and disinfection of these premises had been done under very unfavorable weather conditions, the outbreak was not entirely unexpected. The diseased animals were slaughtered promptly and the premises again disinfected. There has been no recurrence of the disease anywhere in the United States. The last quarantine restrictions were removed June 5, 1916. Supervision by veterinary inspectors has been continued in the lately infected areas after removal of quarantine, as a precaution against any infection that may have remained.

This outbreak was the most serious invasion of this disease that has ever menaced the live-stock industry of the country. It was overcome only after a hard struggle in which the authorities of the various States affected cooperated cordially with the Federal Government. We are fortunate to have escaped with no greater losses. Other countries have been unable to eradicate the disease after it has gained a foothold and have to endure constant heavy losses. As a protection against future outbreaks of this or other diseases of a character to threaten seriously the livestock industry. Congress has made a special appropriation of \$1.250,000. It also has provided, upon the recommendation of the department, that breeding value, as well as meat or dairy value, may be taken into account in compensating owners for animals destroyed hereafter in the eradication work.

TUBERCULOSIS OF FARM ANIMALS.

Tuberculosis probably is the most common, destructive, and widely disseminated of the infectious diseases of domestic animals, especially of cattle and swine. Its seriousness is emphasized by the fact that it is transmitted to human beings. This may be prevented in reasonable measure by the pasteurization of milk and the inspection of meat. There remains, however, the problem of eliminating the disease from farm animals in order to prevent losses estimated at \$25,000,000 a year in the United States. This is

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the greatest problem confronting the live-stock industry of the country. Its very magnitude discourages the undertaking of any general plan of eradication.

Despite all that has been done in the past 10 or 15 years, there is no indication that tuberculosis of cattle and hogs is on the decline in the United States. It has been reduced or partially checked here and there, and even eradicated from some herds; but generally it is as prevalent as ever. The disease can be prevented and some definite system of eradication should be inaugurated. Three undertakings seem practicable at this time.

Eradication from pure-bred herds .- The first is the eradication from pure-bred herds of cattle. It is not necessary to resort to compulsion. The department should be placed in position more fully to assist individuals who wish to undertake the complete eradication of the disease from their herds. It could apply the tuberculin test and, in case infected animals are discovered, advise and supervise their proper disposal or management. The ruthless slaughter of all tuberculin reactors is not necessary. Many of them may be safely retained under proper quarantine conditions and their offspring raised free from tuberculosis. This plan has the approval of the breed-record associations in general and of many individual breeders. Numbers of breeders have requested that their herds be tested. Compliance with these requests to the extent of the limited funds available has vielded very satisfactory results.

Eradication from hogs.—The second undertaking is the eradication of tuberculosis from hogs. The experts of the Bureau of Animal Industry believe that this would be relatively easy of accomplishment. Hogs do not convey the disease to one another to any appreciable extent. They contract it from cattle, chiefly in two ways—by being fed on nonpasteurized products from creameries and by following cattle of somewhat mature age in the feed lot and feeding

upon the undigested grain. An educational campaign should be effective in removing these two sources of infection. It also may be desirable to have State laws requiring the pasteurization of skimmed milk and other products before they leave the creameries.

Eradication from restricted areas.—The third undertaking is complete eradication in restricted areas. The plan would be to select certain communities in which, after a thorough educational campaign had been made, the stock owners are willing to cooperate in eradicating the disease entirely from that territory. This would require the slaughter of infected animals and would necessitate reasonable indemnity for the animals slaughtered. The latter feature undoubtedly would require large expenditures.

The results accomplished in the District of Columbia afford an example of what can be done where systematic local eradication is undertaken. By means of repeated tuberculin testing, accompanied by the slaughter of the reacting animals, tuberculosis among cattle in the District has been reduced in a few years from nearly 19 per cent to slightly over 1 per cent. The joining of areas freed of tuberculosis in the manner proposed gradually should result in the elimination of the disease from groups of counties and from entire States.

Such an undertaking would be very similar to the plan of exterminating cattle ticks in the South. This work was begun systematically in 1906 in certain restricted areas on the border of the infested region. At first the opposition of the local people was almost unanimous. Even the fact that the tick is the carrier of splenetic fever was quite generally disbelieved. Persistent work in these few regions, however, eventually produced good results. Gradually the people were convinced that the tick is an evil; that its eradication would be advantageous; and that the cost would be small in comparison with the benefits. The tick-eradication movement is now going forward very rapidly. Furthermore, this

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activity was begun almost exclusively at department expense. Last year the department spent approximately \$400,000 in tick eradication, while local agencies, including State and county governments, expended double that amount, or \$800,000. This indicates what can be done when the people concerned appreciate the real significance and value of an undertaking.

Such a plan should succeed against tuberculosis. It is a large task. Its feasibility will have to be thoroughly established first, as was the case with tick eradication. In the beginning the methods for tick eradication were crude and cumbersome. Improvements were made, however, until the present efficient system was developed. These suggestions, if carried into effect, should assist in developing a comprehensive plan for dealing with the tuberculosis situation which will meet with approval and lead to ultimate success. The department has recommended in the estimates for the next fiscal year that an appropriation of \$75,000 be made for the inauguration of the work.

DEVELOPMENT OF STOCK RAISING.

Experiments by the department, in cooperation with the State experiment stations, have shown conclusively that the South is well adapted to economical beef and pork produc-It is beginning to take its place with other sections tion. as a stock-raising territory. Numerous breeding herds are being established. The leading beef-cattle breeders' associations are featuring the southern trade, and two of them are holding sales in cooperation with the department. Cattle from southern herds have won the highest honors in northern show rings, and steers from southern feed lots, after being properly fattened, now command good prices in This work is not for the benefit of one northern markets. section alone; the entire country will profit from the extension of meat production into new territory.

A study of growing beef animals in the corn belt also was made, and records were obtained of the cost of raising calves from nearly 15,000 cows. The results show that calves, as a rule, can be raised at a profit, although the cost of production is higher than is usually thought.

The boys' and girls' pig and poultry clubs are valuable agencies for enlarging the meat output, as well as for training and developing the coming generation of farmers. The membership of both classes of clubs more than doubled during the year. The pig clubs now have more than 21,000 members and the poultry clubs 8,500.

National Forest ranges.—The investigations conducted at the instance of the committee appointed to study the meat situation indicate that there has been an increase of from 15 to 30 per cent in the carrying capacity of the National Forest ranges. This has been brought about by systematic regulation, better methods of handling stock, improving and increasing the number of watering places, opening up unused or inaccessible ranges, the building of drift fences, and the lessening of losses from poisonous plants. These ranges now are supporting over 1,750,000 cattle and 7,850,000 sheep, exclusive of calves and lambs. It is estimated that within the next 10 years their carrying capacity will be increased by an additional 15 per cent and that they will be capable of supporting fully 2,000,000 cattle and 9,000,000 sheep.

As previously pointed out, regulated grazing on the public lands outside the National Forests would permit a considerable addition to the country's meat supply. At present these lands, which include an area of over 250,000,000 acres, are not supporting the number of animals that formerly grazed upon them. By the application of a system of control and development similar to that used on the National Forests, it would be possible greatly to increase the number of meat-producing animals upon the public ranges.

Destruction of forage by rodents.—The grazing value of the western stock ranges is much reduced by the depreda-

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tions of prairie dogs and ground squirrels. More than 22,000,000 acres in 12 States are infested with prairie dogs. These rodents often completely destroy the forage plants over considerable areas and cause enormous damage to grain and other crops. Ground squirrels occur in large numbers in 18 States. While they are less destructive to forage plants than prairie dogs, they consume large quantities of forage and grain. In North Dakota alone the annual loss to farmers from the destruction of grain by ground squirrels is estimated at over \$3,000,000. The Bureau of Biological Survey has developed new methods of poisoning these pests at a cost of approximately 5 cents per acre. This is less than the grazing value of the land for a single year. The bureau practically has eradicated prairie dogs from more than 2,000,000 acres of public lands and ground squirrels from 500,000 acres. The complete elimination of them should enable the ranges and farms of the West to carry a million cattle and a million sheep more than at present.

Predatory animals.—The annual losses of live stock in the United States, mainly upon the public domain, from the depredations of such animals as wolves, coyotes, mountain lions, and bears, exceeds \$12,000,000. Wolves and coyotes are subject to epidemics of rabies and, therefore, are peculiarly a menace to domestic animals and human beings. There was a serious outbreak of this disease among coyotes during the past year. It was prevalent in several States in the Northwest and was especially disturbing in Nevada.

Congress appropriated \$200,000 for the destruction of predatory wild animals during the past year. The sum of \$250,000 is available for this purpose during the fiscal year 1917. A force of hunters and trappers has been organized in the infested States, and 543 wolves, 19,170 coyotes, and many other predatory animals have been destroyed. As a single wolf has been known to kill more than \$3.000 worth of stock in one year, the effect on the stock-raising industry

of the elimination of this number of destroyers is apparent. A continuance of the campaign should eliminate a large part of the losses from this source and also should check the spread of rabies among wild animals.

THE SHEEP INDUSTRY.

Normally the United States imports from about twofifths to more than one-half of the wool required for domestic consumption. During the past three years importations have ranged from nearly 250 million to more than 500 million pounds each year, the average being over 300 million pounds. The total consumption of lamb and mutton during the past 10 years has increased appreciably. In the fiscal year 1907 more than $9\frac{1}{2}$ million sheep and lambs were slaughtered at plants subject to Federal inspection. The number now averages about 13 million per annum.

In some sections of the United States there has been a steady decline in sheep production since the earliest statistical reports. This has been true also in every other settled country except Great Britain. The explanation undoubtedly is an economic one. In general, the primary purpose of sheep growers has been to produce wool. This can not be attained profitably on high-priced land. Naturally, therefore, with the increase in land values there is a rapid decline in the number of sheep. In Great Britain meat has been the principal product and wool the by-product, and the sheep industry has flourished.

Waste land made productive.—If American farmers will follow the British custom the industry can be put on a profitable and permanent basis. The greater number of sheep in Great Britain are raised in the hills and on land comparable to much of the "waste land" of American farms. The areas in this country, especially in the East and in parts of the South, now relatively little used, can profitably be devoted to sheep production if the farmers will secure the proper breed of sheep.

Sheep also can be made profitable on higher-priced land, as British experience shows. They compare favorably with other animals in economy of production. They require a minimum of expensive concentrated feeds. They exceed the other larger animals in the rate of maturity; lambs can be made ready for market at from four to six months. They make possible the economical and fuller use of labor. They are of assistance in keeping the farm free from weeds. The sheep farm is usually a weedless farm.

Extension of industry.—In the United States only one in seven farms of over 20 acres now supports sheep, with an average of one sheep of shearing age to 3 acres of land. The 300 million pounds of wool now imported annually could be secured from 50 million sheep, and this number could be added to our stock if a fourth of the remaining farms sustained one sheep for each 3 acres.

In 1914 the Animal Husbandry Division of the Bureau of Animal Industry and the Bureau of Crop Estimates canvassed crop reporters in 36 States in reference to sheep on farms. The replies indicated that the number could be increased 150 per cent without displacing other animals. It is to our settled areas, particularly in the Central, Southern, and Eastern States, that we must look for an increase in the number of sheep.

THE DAIRY INDUSTRY.

The profits of agriculture ultimately depend on the intelligent cultivation of the soil and the preservation of its fertility. Dairy farming is increasing in almost every section of the country, largely because it is the most economical form of agriculture so far as soil fertility is concerned. A ton of butter removes from the soil less than a dollar's worth of fertilizing elements. Dairying also is growing because dairy products are an important part of our food supply. Opportunities for dairying are found in every agricultural district. The different sections of the country have characteristic peculiarities, but all need milk and its products.

Cheese production.—In 1909 this country produced 1,622 million pounds of butter and 321 million pounds of cheese. In 1870 our cheese exports amounted to 57 million pounds. They steadily increased until 1881, when the total was 148 million pounds. After that date they decreased rapidly until in 1914 they had dropped to less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ million pounds. On the other hand, our imports of cheese amounted to $2\frac{1}{3}$ million pounds in 1870 and advanced slowly until 1900, when $13\frac{1}{2}$ million pounds were imported. From 1900 to 1914 the imports increased to 64 million pounds. Much of this cheese could and should be produced in the United States.

Most of the cheese in this country has been made in the territory around the Great Lakes, where climatic conditions are favorable to the handling of whole milk. All the valleys in the Rocky Mountain section and a large area on the Pacific coast offer splendid conditions for cheese production. So, also, does the mountain section of the South, including parts of West Virginia, Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Three factories have been established in one of these States and have been very successful.

Cooperative associations.—Rigid selection, intelligent breeding, and skillful feeding are important factors in economical production. Cow-testing associations teach rigid selection and skillful feeding. Cooperative bull associations promote intelligent breeding. In cooperation with the various State agricultural colleges the department has greatly extended the work of these associations. For several years cooperative bull associations have been common in some parts of Europe. The first association of the kind in the United States was organized in Michigan in 1908. In this country their growth has not been rapid, but as a rule they have been successful. They provide for the joint ownership, use, and exchange of high-class, pure-bred bulls. If skillfully man-

aged, these associations should become potent factors in the upbuilding of a more profitable dairy industry.

A large part of the work of the cow-testing associations and cooperative bull associations has been done in the North and West. In Wisconsin alone there are more than 50 cowtesting associations, while the cooperative bull associations have been especially successful in Massachusetts, northern Michigan, and North Dakota. The dairy industry in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast States recently has made great progress, owing in part to the importation of carefully selected dairy cows and registered bulls from the East and Middle West. Its development in the South has been very marked during the past year. A beginning was made in the work of cow-testing associations and cooperative bull associations. Five of the agricultural colleges have organized creameries to encourage dairying and to provide a market for the increased production of milk and cream. These creameries furnish excellent facilities for teaching students improved methods of manufacturing and handling dairy products.

Community development in dairying.—Community development in dairying was undertaken by the department in a typical small creamery community in northern Iowa in 1910. The object of the experiment was to determine the practicability of employing skilled instructors to assist such communities in bringing the dairy business to a higher level. The work, which proved to be financially successful, was continued for five years, and similar work now is being carried on, with even greater success, in the vicinity of Grove City, Pa. If the 5,000 creameries in this country should adopt the community development plan, it doubtless would result in greatly enlarged profits for the patrons.

The creamery extension work has increased the efficiency of a large number of creameries. The department also has given assistance in building and equipping creameries, rear-

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ranging the machinery, systematizing the methods of operation, eliminating losses, and improving the quality of the products.

Research work.—The activities indicated are almost entirely of an educational nature. The department also is conducting investigations relating to dairy problems on a scale which is unequaled anywhere else in the world. Much of this work, in its beginning, is of a highly technical nature, but results are being accumulated which are of great practical value in the field demonstration work. Extensive study of the types of bacteria in milk, their origin, and the channels through which they contaminate milk, has established a reasonable basis for dairy sanitation. Perhaps the most striking example of the application of the results of laboratory research to practice is the development of methods of manufacture of some of the foreign cheeses which make up the bulk of our cheese imports.

PRODUCTION OF FOOD CROPS.

The production of food crops adequate to meet the consuming needs of the country and the export demand is a matter of large importance to the American people. Our potential agricultural resources in this respect are so varied and ample that there can be no doubt of our ability abundantly to supply our domestic wants, when climatic conditions are normal and the foreign demand is not excessive. One of the greatest agricultural needs, therefore, is the stabilizing of production.

Sharp fluctuation of yield and price from season to season tends to stimulate speculative and superficial farming and to discourage the systematic crop rotation and thorough cultural practice which are essential to an enduring and economically sound agriculture. It is obvious that, in large measure, stabilization of production must be brought about through the use of better adapted or improved crop varieties, more systematic and rational crop rotations, and improved agri-

cultural practice generally, including, in many sections, larger attention to live-stock production.

The extent to which the productiveness of such a crop as corn can be improved through continued selection is illustrated strikingly by the results of work done by department specialists. For 14 seasons the yields of 10-acre fields of corn, planted on a 3,000-acre farm in Ohio with seed selected from the department cooperative improvement plots on the farm, have been contrasted with the farm yields of the same variety of corn less rigidly selected and grown under identical cultural conditions. During the first seven-year period the fields planted with department seed yielded 13.3 bushels per acre more than the farm fields, while for the second seven years the increase averaged 21.8 bushels per acre.

It should not be inferred that such increases in yield can be secured except through very efficient crop-improvement work; yet it is obvious that, as the principles of crop improvement are better understood and more generally applied, larger yields per acre should result. In addition, a great deal can be accomplished through increase of soil fertility and better cultural methods. Enough has been done in this direction by the State experiment stations and the department, and also by good farmers, to justify the expectation that considerably increased acre yields gradually will be brought about in a large part of the area adapted to the staple food crops.

EXTENSION OF AREAS OF PRODUCTION.

Very destructive climatic conditions never occur in this country with equal severity throughout all the staple-crop regions. It is highly desirable, therefore, further to broaden the areas for these staples as far as experience and sound economics may warrant. While progress in this direction necessarily is slow, it is gratifying to note that in recent years the production of corn in the Southern States has increased

greatly. At the same time the frontier of commercial corn production has advanced steadily northward in the upper Mississippi Valley and Plains States.

Farther south and west, especially in western Kansas, Oklahoma, and the Panhandle of Texas, corn is being displaced to a considerable extent by the grain sorghums because they more regularly produce profitable crops. Approximately 4 million acres now are devoted to these crops. One of these sorghums has been changed by systematic breeding into a standard variety which produces a much larger yield of grain. Dwarf milo, a recent result of systematic breeding for low stature, has a higher grain-yielding power under adverse conditions than the tall variety. During the past four years it has become the leading variety grown in Oklahoma, Texas, and New Mexico. As the sorghum grains in large measure serve the same purposes as corn, the economic soundness to the Nation of their enlarged production is apparent.

In the Sacramento Valley of California, where this department has been investigating the possibility of rice culture, the acreage devoted to that crop has increased during the past five years from 1,400 to 67,000. The farm value of the current crop approximates \$3,500,000. The increased production of wheat, oats, and other small grains in the Southeastern and South Central States, which was specially stimulated by the cotton-market crisis of 1914, tends to stabilize the food supply. In several States the acreage planted to these grains was enlarged by from 50 to 100 per cent.

Adaptation studies of the hard red winter wheats, which formerly were restricted to a limited part of the Central Plains region, have shown that they can be grown throughout a much larger area. During the past four years they have become established extensively in Montana and in the States of the Great Basin and the Pacific Northwest. In

the States west of the Rocky Mountains they have largely replaced the soft wheats.

The area devoted to durum wheat has strikingly increased. This crop now is well established in western North Dakota, South Dakota, eastern Montana and Wyoming, and northeastern Colorado. As the durum varieties are more resistant to rust than other types and require less rainfall, their introduction by the department has proved to be of very great importance to the country. The durum production already has attained a magnitude of 40 million bushels in a single year.

Two new pure lines of Kherson oats have been developed in cooperation with the Iowa Agricultural Experiment Station and have been widely distributed in Iowa and adjoining corn-belt States. A large number of tests by farmers have shown a 10 per cent increase in yield over the varieties previously grown. Their adoption for the entire oat acreage of Iowa probably would result in an increase in production in that State alone of from 12 to 15 million bushels.

A systematic study of the soy bean, with a view to determine the relative adaptability of varieties to regions, the best methods of culture, harvesting, and threshing, and the uses to which it can be put, has been under way for several years. This study has thrown much light on its economic possibilities. It not only produces forage for live stock, but oil for various uses can be obtained from the seed, and meal, flour, and other food products can be made from the resulting cake. Through the efforts of the department. cotton-oil mills crushed during the past season over 100.000 bushels of southern-grown soy beans with satisfactory results from the oil standpoint, while soy-bean flour, or meal, and other food products made from the resulting cake, are being marketed by several manufacturers.

As the soy bean can be produced under widely varying climatic and soil conditions, it seems certain in the future

to occupy a larger and more important place in our agriculture and in our food supply.

CALIFORNIA CITRUS INDUSTRY.

The citrus industry of California, although tracing its beginnings back to individual plantings by early settlers, owes its present magnitude and commercial importance in large measure to the introduction by this department many years ago of the Washington navel orange from Brazil. The present production of this variety in that State is estimated at approximately 27,000 carloads in a normal year, or about two-thirds of the total orange shipments of the State. It has, in fact, become the most important citrus-fruit variety in the world.

The results of several years of systematic study of citrus fruits in California show that important bud variations exist, even in standard varieties. This factor must be taken into account in their propagation in order to secure maximum productiveness and quality. In many of the best groves at least 10 per cent of the trees of the standard varieties are of inferior strains, which should be eliminated by topworking. The growers who have observed the experimental plots realize the importance of this work and already have undertaken the conversion of the undesirable trees by topworking on a rather large scale. This study will be extended to some of the deciduous-tree fruits.

As the economic soundness of commercial fruit orcharding to a considerable extent rests upon the maintenance of high average annual production, it is obvious that the results of this investigation are of fundamental importance to the fruit industry.

SUGAR-BEET INDUSTRY.

The production of beet sugar in the United States has increased during the past four years from less than 700,000 tons to approximately 900,000 tons. During the past year seven

new localities for sugar-beet production have been developed. But for the existing shortage of sugar-beet seed a considerably larger increase of production would have been secured.

Stimulated by the inadequate supply of seed from European countries, American growers now are undertaking seriously the production of seed. Approximately 4,000 acres, which should produce about one-fourth of the present requirements, have been devoted to this purpose during the current year. A special appropriation made at the last session of Congress will enable the department to cooperate with the industry in solving some of the more technical problems involved. It is hoped that, as a result of this work, the industry may be freed from the menace of seed shortage which during the past two years seriously threatened its existence.

CONTROL OF PLANT DISEASES.

It is very clear that fuller knowledge of the distribution and the nature and methods of control of crop diseases is essential. In some seasons, when unusual climatic conditions prevail at critical periods, diseases greatly lessen or practically destroy particular crops throughout important pro-Progress has been made in determining ducing districts. their exact character and in developing methods of control, but the destructiveness of certain diseases under climatic conditions favorable to their spread necessitates still more energetic inquiry. It has been estimated that in years when cereal rusts are epidemic the losses from them alone amount at least to \$180,000,000. No effective remedies have yet been found for these diseases. It seems probable, however, that through the development of suitable resistant varieties their eventual control in large part can be effected.

Distinct headway has been made in the study of diseases of fruits and vegetables. Many of them have proved amenable to spray control, especially when combined with rational field practice to prevent infection.

CITRUS CANKER.

Cooperative arrangements have been made with State officials of Florida, Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina to insure the thorough inspection of nurseries and citrus groves for the purpose of promptly and completely eradicating citrus canker. This is an undertaking of great magnitude because of the extreme infectiousness of the disease and the wide area throughout which it has been disseminated. No final statement as to the outcome can be expected within a period of at least two years. The campaign, however, is progressing very satisfactorily in the commercially important orange and grapefruit regions of Florida. Supplemental protective measures, such as formalin treatments of infected soil and protective spraving of groves exposed to infection, are hastening the work of eradication materially. Even in the few places where citrus-canker outbreaks have occurred in commercial districts and in old trees, the disease can be eradicated promptly and effectively. Although thorough inspection of citrus plantings will be necessary, at least throughout the coming fiscal year, it is believed that Florida now is so nearly free of the disease as to render its eradication from that State practically certain. In Texas, Louisiana, Alabama, and Mississippi the work has been more difficult from the beginning because of the more scattered plantings and the relatively smaller interests involved. Furthermore, in all these States the unusually severe tropical storms of the present year have caused unexpectedly wide distribution of the disease in some areas. Even in these States, however, the progress of the work is encouraging, and if no further unusual drawbacks are encountered the disease will be effectively checked.

CONTROL OF INSECTS.

While all the State Experiment Stations support work in economic entomology, and while many other countries are

developing services in this direction, the Department of Agriculture has by far the largest organization for the purpose of research on insect pests. It is virtually the leader of the world in the warfare against injurious insects. It has in its files biological notes on thousands of species and is studying them from all points of view in its field laboratories. No less than 143 distinct projects are being investigated at the present time, involving possibly 500 of the species of insects most injurious to crops, domestic animals, stored foods, forest products, shade trees, and ornamental plants. It is safe to say that some form of remedial treatment has been found for every markedly injurious insect in the United States, but continued efforts are being made to find something more effective or cheaper or simpler.

Many striking things have been accomplished. The pear thrips, which at one time threatened the extinction of the Pacific coast deciduous-fruit industry, is no longer feared. Two serious pests of the clover-seed crop now can be handled by slight variation of cropping methods. The bark-beetles of our coniferous forests, which have imposed a loss comparable to that resulting from forest fires, can be controlled at very little expense. Sprays and spraying machinery have been developed which can be used successfully against practically all leaf-feeding species. The fumigation of nursery stock and of warehouses has been perfected. Such injurious species as the onion thrips, the grape-berry moth, the alfalfa weevil, the tobacco hornworm, and many others of recent prominence, can be controlled. The spread of the gipsy and brown-tail moths through our northern forests and orchards has been prevented. These injurious insects not only have been kept in a comparatively small territory, but are being reduced in number year after year by active scouting, spraving, banding, and egg destruction, and through the aid of parasites brought from Europe and Japan. Although the spread of the cotton boll weevil-

which represents probably the most difficult problem in insect control—has not been stopped, the investigations of the department's entomologists have shown the southern planter how to reduce greatly the potential damage and how to grow cotton in spite of the weevil.

An important development in this practical entomological work of recent years has been the establishment of a number of more or less temporary field laboratories, scattered over the country. Thus the expert workers are taken into the centers of activity of the injurious species. Great stress is being laid on what may be termed the cultural method of insect control. The intimate life round of the insect pest is studied in close connection with farming methods in order to ascertain whether by variation of cultural practice the insect damage can not be considerably reduced. Remedial work of this sort is extremely practical. Investigations have shown that in many instances partial or nearly complete control can be gained by some change in farm management. This naturally is the best remedy, except possibly in the case of introduced pests, where control can be secured by the employment of parasites or other natural enemies.

Technical methods of control, mechanical and chemical, including sprays and spraying machinery, fumigation for citrus orchards, nursery stock, mills and warehouses, or trapping methods and other means of mechanical destruction also have been studied and developed. In the large problems it frequently has happened that cultural, biological, and technical measures are used at the same time.

When the enormous annual losses from injurious insects are considered it is clear that the value of the department's work in applied entomology is very great.

PLANT QUARANTINES.

Important service is rendered to the farm and fruit interests of the country, under the Plant Quarantine Act, by

preventing the introduction of new and dangerous insect pests and plant diseases. There are now in force nine foreign quarantines forbidding the entry, or permitting the entry only under restrictions, of various farm, orchard, and forest products which may harbor injurious insects or diseases. The more important quarantines relate to the Mediterranean fruit fly, perhaps the worst fruit pest of the tropical and subtropical countries; the pink bollworm, an insect which threatens to become the most serious enemy known to cotton; the potato wart, a disease which not only destroys the tuber but infects the soil; and the white-pine blister rust and the citrus canker, two diseases which became established in the United States prior to the passage of the act.

A number of domestic quarantines also have been promulgated. Under these quarantines many locally established plant diseases and insect pests, most of them of recent origin, are being so controlled, in cooperation with the States concerned, that their extermination ultimately can be effected or, at least, their spread can be checked. These quarantines relate principally to the gipsy and brown-tail moths in New England; the Mediterranean fruit fly and the pink bollworm in Hawaii; and diseases of sugar cane in Hawaii and Porto Rico.

In some instances plants and plant products are admitted only after certification by the proper official in the originating country and the issuance of permits by the department. They also are inspected by State or Federal experts before being released in this country. Such restrictions now apply to nursery stock of all kinds, fruits, certain plant seeds, and potatoes, and foreign lint cotton. The restrictions on cotton are designed to prevent the entry of the pink bollworm through cotton seeds which are found in all imported cotton. The cotton is subjected to fumigation in a vacuum, under supervision, by a new process devised by experts of the department.

The value of this service to the Nation is apparent. Undoubtedly many, if not all, of the plant diseases and pests mentioned now would have full lodgment or wider distribution in this country if the necessary action under the Plant Quarantine Act had not been taken to prevent their entry or to check their spread. It would be difficult to compute the resulting loss:

COOPERATIVE AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION WORK.

The second year's operation of the cooperative Agricultural Extension Act of May 8, 1914, has been attended with a steady development of the Nation-wide system of practical instruction in agriculture and home economics discussed in my last two reports. There has been a fuller coordination of the activities of the department with those of the agricultural colleges and more complete development of the relations between the extension forces in the States Relations Service and the scientific staffs in the various bureaus of the department, resulting in the better dissemination of approved scientific information.

POTASH FROM KELP.

In 1911 the Bureau of Soils was authorized by the Congress to make a survey of the Nation's resources in fertilizer materials, particularly in potash, for which this country was entirely dependent upon the German mines. As a result of this reconnoissance, it became evident that the largest and most immediately available source of potash in this country was the giant kelps of the Pacific coast. This conclusion was reached after detailed surveys had been made of the kelp groves of southern California, the Puget Sound region, and Alaska. The attention of the public was called to this source in the hope that private capital would undertake its development.

Germany in 1915 prohibited the exportation of all potash salts. This action greatly stimulated the attempts of Ameri-

can manufacturers to produce potash and resulted in the erection of eight large plants in southern California for the extraction of this material from kelp. These establishments were constructed at a cost ranging from \$50,000 to \$2,000,000 and are centered around two cities, Long Beach and San Diego, five at the former and three at the latter place. They are operating harvesting equipment having an aggregate daily capacity of 2,500 tons of raw kelp. On September 1, 1916, about 125,000 tons of raw kelp had been harvested and treated, yielding approximately 10 per cent of dry kelp.

Notwithstanding this comparatively rapid development in the kelp industry, the problem of extracting potash from kelp commercially has not been completely solved. It is essential that methods be devised for producing the numerous by-products which can be obtained from kelp. The plants now in operation, for the most part, are engaged only in the extraction of potash. Owing to the present abnormal prices for this material, they are devoting relatively little attention to the elaboration of processes for the recovery of by-products. If this situation continues, they probably will not be able to produce potash at a profit when conditions become normal. In the circumstances, it seems desirable for the department to demonstrate the commercial feasibility of producing potash and by-products from kelp with a view to put the industry on a sound economic basis. The Congress, upon the recommendation of the department, has made available \$175,000 for the purpose. Plans have been formulated for erecting and operating, at some advantageous point on the coast of southern California, a plant with a daily capacity of not less than 200 tons of raw kelp, in order that the necessary experiments may be conducted.

It is hoped that these experiments will result in the establishment of a potash industry which will prove profitable and permanent and render this country independent of foreign sources in normal times. In any event, information

will be obtained which should be very valuable if the present abnormal conditions persist or recur.

THE FOOD AND DRUGS ACT.

Early in 1913 it became apparent that the efficiency of the Bureau of Chemistry in administering the Food and Drugs Act was impaired seriously by lack of system. The laboratories, both in and out of Washington, were congested with samples collected by inspectors. The inspectors, who were responsible only to the chief inspector in Washington, worked independently of the chemists in the branch laboratories, with resulting loss of efficiency. There was great delay in analyzing samples and in detecting adulterations. It was apparent that the work of the inspectors and of the chemists should be coordinated and more closely supervised. To make the bureau an effective agency in preventing the shipment of adulterated and misbranded foods and drugs, complete reorganization was necessary.

ESTABLISHMENT OF DISTRICTS.

Accordingly, the field service of the bureau was set off from the central organization and divided into three districts, with headquarters at Washington, Chicago, and San Francisco. A single official, whose duty it is to coordinate the work of the inspectors and the laboratories, was placed in charge of each district. Several small branch laboratories were closed and the research work was concentrated in Washington. The reorganization has effected a material reduction in the cost of operation and has made possible the accomplishment of substantial results. It has enabled the bureau to concentrate the activities of its 46 inspectors against definite lines of food and drug products. The establishment of inspection districts, together with the creation in Washington of the Office of State Cooperative Food and Drug Control, has secured the active cooperation of State food and drug officials. This cooperation has been an important factor.

Instead of attempting to deal with food products indiscriminately, the Bureau of Chemistry during the past three years has given special attention to articles in common use, such as eggs, milk, beans, shellfish, citrus fruits, tomato products, canned foods, and cottonseed meal and other feed for animals. As a result of the activities of the bureau there has been a marked improvement in the quality of these products entering interstate commerce.

Concerted efforts of the inspectors have put an end to most of the interstate traffic in decomposed eggs. Campaigns have been conducted, in cooperation with the local authorities, to improve the milk supply of several localities. Efforts have been made to induce farmers to produce better milk and prosecutions have been instituted in many instances. As a result the milk supply of many cities and towns has been improved. Seizure proceedings have been instituted against a large number of shipments of canned beans containing substantial proportions of decomposed beans. With the assistance of the Public Health Service and the Bureau of Fisheries, sanitary surveys have been made of the oyster beds on the Atlantic coast. Sources of pollution and polluted areas were located and the information conveyed to oystermen. Seizures of shipments of polluted oysters were effected and a marked improvement in the oyster supply, from the standpoint of wholesomeness, has been noted.

Formerly it was the custom of many orange and grapefruit growers at times to pick the fruit from the trees while green or partly green in color and still unripe, and subject it to a sweating process so as to give it the characteristic yellow color of ripe fruit. The incentive to the grower was the higher price afforded by an early market. Green citrus fruit which has been colored so as to give it the appearance of ripe fruit is adulterated under the law. Several seizures have been made and the efforts of the department have resulted in a material decrease in the quantity of sweated immature fruit sent to market.

The inspection of canned tomatoes has been continued, and an improvement in the industry has been noted. Consideration also has been given to other canned foods, many of which have been found to be adulterated on account of imperfect methods of manufacture. A large number of shipments of cottonseed meal were found to have a protein content materially less than that declared upon the label, and appropriate action was taken.

SHERLEY AMENDMENT.

Special attention has been given during the last two years to the enforcement of the Sherley amendment. The amendment declares drugs to be misbranded if their labels contain false and fraudulent statements concerning their curative or therapeutic effects. A large number of criminal prosecutions have been successfully concluded and many cases are pending. A systematic plan has been developed for dealing with this problem, and already an improvement in the labeling of the medicinal preparations has resulted. Concerted efforts have been directed against spurious and adulterated drugs.

NUMBER OF CASES.

During the past three years the bureau has collected and analyzed at least 22,000 samples of domestic foods and drugs. It has afforded formal hearings to more than 9,000 manufacturers and shippers, and has sent to the Department of Justice, through the Solicitor, about 2,250 cases. Approximately 3,000 cases have been finally disposed of by the courts, the great majority having been uncontested and practically all those contested having been decided in favor of the Government. During the same period about 50,000 importations have been sampled, of which approximately 3,000 were refused entry, and 15,000 were admitted only after relabeling to conform to the provisions of the law.

RESEARCH AND EDUCATIONAL WORK.

During the past three years the research work of the Bureau of Chemistry, which previously had been confined largely to problems arising in connection with law enforcement, was extended to include work designed to prevent spoilage and waste, to increase production, and to develop new methods of utilizing products of the soil and sea. Investigations in the utilization and transportation of sea foods have resulted in a marked improvement in the canning of American sardines. Means also have been found to utilize the waste of this industry as an animal feed. Important improvements in the transportation of fresh shrimp and the shipment of fish under refrigeration have been made. Studies of the transportation and marketing of poultry and eggs have made possible the elimination of much waste due to decomposition resulting from faulty methods of packing and shipping. A process has been introduced for the manufacture of table salt which eliminates from it a poisonous ingredient formerly present in the salt obtained in certain Important improvements also have been made in sections. the processes involved in the manufacture of gelatin, sauerkraut, maple and sorghum sirups, cider, fruit juices and sirups, citric acid, lemon oil, jams, jellies, marmalade, preserves, corn meal, and stock feeds.

Much important work has been done in the application of the principles of physical chemistry to the study of a large series of food products. The work upon the chemistry of sugars is recognized universally as of fundamental importance. A study of the composition of vegetable proteins has been begun and already has yielded results which are certain to be of value in the feeding and fattening of farm animals.

STANDARDS FOR FOODS AND DRUGS.

Experience in connection with the administration of the Food and Drugs Act has strikingly emphasized the impor-

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tance of enforceable standards for foods and drugs. Without them it is impossible to carry out completely the purposes of the act. In many instances protection of the consumer-the principal object of the law-can not fully be accomplished, nor can unfair practices on the part of unscrupulous manufacturers adequately be prevented. In some cases maintenance of prosecution is difficult and expensive, even when the articles involved clearly are adulterated or mis-To meet this situation. I have recommended in branded. the estimates for the fiscal year 1918 that the Secretary of Agriculture be authorized to establish standards of strength, quality, or purity for articles of food and for those articles of drugs which are sold under or by a name not recognized in the United States Pharmacopœia or National Formulary. The suggestion provides that if any article fails to conform to the established standards it shall be deemed to be misbranded, unless it is labeled so as plainly and conspicuously to show how it differs from the standard.

The adoption of legally enforceable standards will benefit both the consumer and the honest manufacturer. They will give consumers exact information as to the quality of food and drug products and will enable manufacturers to produce articles which will meet the requirements of the act, putting competition on a fairer basis. They will be of great assistance to Federal and State officials in the enforcement of food and drug laws and will tend to promote uniformity among the various States.

INSPECTION OF ESTABLISHMENTS.

I have also recommended in the estimates that the department be given authority to inspect establishments producing foods or drugs intended for shipment in interstate or foreign commerce. No specific authority exists at the present time. While many manufacturers do not object to inspection of their factories, the lack of definite authority has caused con-

siderable embarrassment in the enforcement of the Food and Drugs Act. There are many forms of adulteration which are exceedingly difficult to detect without inspection of the place of manufacture. This is particularly true of foods produced under insanitary conditions. In many instances it is impossible to determine from a chemical or bacteriological examination the conditions under which a particular food or drug was produced. It is unnecessary to emphasize the importance of sanitation in the preparation of food products. If the suggested authority be granted, the department should be able to improve the quality of food products, both by bringing to the attention of manufacturers any insanitary conditions that may be discovered and by securing evidence of production under insanitary conditions.

ROAD DEVELOPMENT.

The Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering has extended its work of giving assistance in road and farm engineering problems to individuals or local communities in every State of the Union. There also has been placed upon it the burden of administering the Federal Aid Road Act. Immediately after the approval of the act plans were formulated for its administration. The appropriation of \$5,000,000 for the fiscal year 1917, after deducting an amount sufficient for administrative expenses, was apportioned among the various States on the basis of three factors population, area, and mileage of rural delivery and star routes—each factor having a weight of one-third. Rules and regulations were promulgated on September 1, 1916.

Thirty-two States have indicated their intention to assent to the provisions of the act—one through its legislature and the others through their governors. Before the department can undertake cooperation in any State, it is necessary to determine (1) whether the State has a legally constituted highway department within the meaning of the act and (2) whether the State has legally assented to the provisions of the act and is in a position to submit a program or scheme of work covering the five-year period and to meet the requirements of the act as to funds and maintenance of the roads constructed. This determination has been made in the case of nine States and, after certain details have been arranged, the department will be prepared to cooperate with all of them. Three States will await action by their legislatures before assenting to the provisions of the act. Tentative drafts of bills providing for State highway commissions have been prepared for two States which do not now have a highway agency within the meaning of the act. Eight States have submitted specific projects for consideration. In one of these States four projects have been approved tentatively and the necessary project agreements are in the course of execution.

The appropriation of \$1,000,000 provided by section 8 of the act for the construction of roads and trails within or partly within the National Forests has been apportioned among the various States in which National Forests are located. Applications for the construction of roads in the Forests must be filed in the district office of the Forest Service for the district within which the proposed road is located. In States having highway departments the applications, before filing, must be referred to them for recommendation. Many applications have been submitted to the district offices and now are under consideration.

THE NATIONAL FOREST ENTERPRISE.

There have been many important developments—legislative and administrative—during the past year in connection with the National Forests. The value of the properties to the public and the use made of them increased steadily. Their returns to the Treasury last year, exceeding \$2,800,000—an advance of more than \$340,000 over the previous year—are only a partial indication of their service. The land classification work, having for its object the determination of

the areas which permanently should be included in the Forests, progressed very rapidly. As a result there remained in public ownership at the close of the year 155,420,280 acres, several million acres having been restored to the public domain or opened to entry under the Forest Homestead law. There was a marked increase in the equipment of the Forests with roads, a matter of prime importance for the advancement of local community welfare and of no small importance for the economic development of the Forests themselves. An augmented volume of business, due to a larger number of timber purchasers, and a net addition of nearly threefourths of a million to the number of stock grazed, together with a decided stimulus in prospecting and mining activities and in the use of the Forests for recreation and health, are further indications of broadening development.

PERMANENCE OF THE FORESTS.

Thus year by year the National Forest enterprise gains stability. In the long run the only means by which it can become stable is successful administration. Laws alone can not make it so. For a time the Forests were a great experiment. Whether the public benefits which their establishment had in view could be realized without accompanying intolerable drawbacks could be ascertained only through demonstration. An essentially constructive task was involved. The responsibility upon this department since it was placed in charge of the Forests has not been merely the routine discharge of definitely prescribed duties. It has been necessary to devise and apply methods for attaining broad general purposes embodied in laws by Congress. A vast land area was to be managed with a view to the most general, varied, and harmonious use. If these resources had not been made available to the public, a resistless demand for the abandonment of the project would have arisen. Through successful administration the permanence of the National Forests is becoming more and more assured. They

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are now a vital part of the economic life of the regions which use their resources. It is increasingly clear that National supervision and control of them is necessary and that they could not be abandoned without disastrous consequences to western industries and to local welfare.

ROAD DEVELOPMENT IN FORESTS.

In my reports of the last two years the need for more ample provision for road development in the National Forests was emphasized. Many of the Forests are located in the more remote portions of the western mountains. Roads are necessary for their protection, administration, and development. They are essential also for the upbuilding of the local communities. They are needed to open up agricultural regions which now are practically shut off from the market, to make possible the development of mines and to stimulate prospecting, to shorten the distances of travel between localities and through the States, to make accessible wood and timber required for local use and for the lumber industry, and to enable the public to visit and enjoy the Forests for recreation and health. At the last session of Congress this urgent need received recognition through the enactment of the Federal Aid Road Act. An appropriation of \$10,000,000, to become available at the rate of \$1,000,000 each year, was made. This legislation constitutes one of the most important and far-reaching steps in National Forest development which has been taken for a long time.

EASTERN FORESTS.

By making provision for the continued purchase of forest lands in the East, Congress once more has recognized the permanence of the National Forest policy. Three million dollars, expendable during the fiscal years 1917 and 1918, has been made available for this work. The purchase of lands in the Appalachian and White Mountains, with a view pri-

marily to the control of stream flow affecting the navigability of rivers, began in 1911. Under the provisions of the Weeks Forestry Act there have been approved for purchase 1,396,367 acres, at an average cost of \$5.22 per acre. The lands are in excellent condition and have been secured at very reasonable prices. These newly established Forests already are rendering important public service and are being used extensively. There is a marked demand for the timber upon them. The timber is cut in accordance with sound forestry practice. The White Mountain Forest in a short time should return to the Government as much as it costs to protect and administer it.

EXCHANGE OF LANDS.

Legislative advance also has been made in the approval by Congress of several important land exchanges. There are within the National Forests some private lands which are so intimately interlocked with Government lands as to embarrass protection and administration. At the last session of Congress authority was granted for the consolidation of Government holdings through exchange with private owners whose lands are within the boundaries of the Florida National Forest and within two of the Forests in the State of Oregon. These exchanges always are made on the basis of equal value and are greatly to the interest of the Government for the permanent development of the National property. The department for several years has been working with a number of the Western States to effect a consolidation, by exchange, of school lands scattered through the Forests. In South Dakota the exchange has been partially completed, while in Idaho and Montana all the details have been agreed upon. Congress appropriated special funds for this work in Montana and Washington. Further authority is required to clear away certain legal difficulties and to permit final action. It is hoped that the measure now before Congress to secure this end will be approved.

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PROGRESS IN ADMINISTRATION.

The progress made last year, both in new legislation and in the actual work of administering the Forests, is simply a continuation of the advance which has characterized each successive recent year. The public investment in its Forest work has become greater through reforestation, extensive additions to the permanent improvements, betterment of forest and range conditions resulting from the application of sound methods of management, and, perhaps most important of all, great progress toward final determination of the areas to be permanently held by the Government. Boundary rectifications since March 4, 1913, have eliminated from the Forests a total of 11.028.114 acres. The permanent retention of these areas was found to be undesirable either because of their character or because the Government holdings were too scattered for economical and efficient management. In the same period more than 886,000 acres have been opened to settlement under the Forest Homestead Act.

UNWISE LEGISLATION.

Millions of dollars, appropriated by Congress for the improvement, development, and consolidation of the Forest holdings, have gone into the properties. Only on the assumption that the Forests are to be permanent would expenditures of this character be justifiable. Abandonment of the work after it has been carried to its present point would be a stultifying course. Nevertheless, repeated efforts in this direction still are made. Measures of various kinds, which, if adopted, seriously would injure or even render ineffective the whole National Forest enterprise, are urged. The proposal that the properties be turned over in their entirety to the several States has a waning support and no longer needs to be taken seriously. On the other hand, efforts frequently are made to secure the abolition of individual Forests. Proposals to do away with the Forests in Alaska still find strong advocates. As pointed out in my last report, such action would be unwise and unfortunate. Action of this sort, however, can be met squarely on its merits, for the question of abolishing a National Forest raises a clear-cut issue which the public can not misunderstand.

A more serious danger to the National Forest system lies in the repeated efforts to open them to the action of some general land grant or to the laws applicable to the unreserved public domain. Each year there are introduced in Congress numerous proposals designed to open the Forests, or portions of them, to private acquisition or to disposition of one kind or another. One measure of this character passed both Houses of Congress during the last session and failed to become law only through the Presidential veto. It proposed to open the Forests to the acquisition of lands by any incorporated city or town for park and cemetery purposes and to counties for park purposes. Every public purpose of the proposed measure can be realized under existing law. So serious would be the effect of such a measure that, if enacted, undoubtedly it would be necessary within a few years actually to abandon a number of important Forests. In his veto message, after explaining that the measure was entirely unnecessary and would have unfortunate public consequences, the President said:

But the most serious objection to the bill is that it subjects the National Forests to disposition under a general grant. At the very time while provision is being made for purchase by the Government of forested lands in the East for the protection of watersheds, it is proposed to permit similar lands in the West to be permanently alienated. I would respectfully urge that it is unwise to permit alienation of the National Forests under general legislation of this sort. If the process of piecemeal distribution is begun, independently of any oversight or control of the National Government, there is manifest danger that the Forests will be so disinte-

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grated as to make their efficient administration impossible and the purposes for which they were established unattainable. Against such a process the National Forests should be carefully protected.

RECREATION USE OF THE FORESTS.

The use of the National Forests for recreation purposes continues to extend. This important aspect of forest utilization was discussed at length in my last report. It is not necessary again to enlarge upon it. As the upbuilding of the West goes on and cities and towns increase in number and size, provision for community needs along what may be called park lines increasingly will become a part of National Forest administration. Thousands of local recreation centers, public picnic and camping grounds, excursion points, and amusement resorts are being developed in places readily reached by large numbers of people, as well as at the innumerable lakes, mineral and hot springs, other marvels of nature, and spots of scenic beauty with which the mountains abound. Many of these places will attract visitors from distant parts of the country and will become widely known. Some of the areas, located near enough to cities and towns to be reached by considerable numbers of persons, serve already the purpose of municipal recreation grounds and public parks. To meet local needs along this line the department is cooperating with municipalities. It welcomes opportunities for cooperation in this direction, just as it does in the protection of Forest watersheds from which municipal water supplies are derived. These forms of public service can be rendered without difficulty in connection with the fulfillment of the general purposes of the Forests.

NATIONAL FORESTS AND NATIONAL PARKS.

The handling of the National Forest recreation resources inevitably raises the question of the relation of the National Forests and the National Parks. At present there is no clear distinction in the public mind between the two. Both are administered for the benefit of the public along lines which overlap. The Parks and Forests occur side by side and have the same general physical characteristics-extensive areas of wild and rugged lands, for the most part timbered, with development conditioned upon road construction and similar provisions for public use. They differ chiefly in the fact that the attractions of the National Parks from the recreational standpoint are more notable. Yet this is not always true. Several of the Parks are inferior in their natural features to portions of the Forests. The need of drawing a clear distinction between National Parks and National Forests and of a definite policy governing their relation is increasingly evident. Parks are being advocated where the land should stay in the Forests, while elsewhere areas which should be made Parks continue to be administered as Forests-for example, the Grand Canvon of the Colorado.

A National Park should be created only where there are scenic features of such outstanding importance for beauty or as natural marvels that they merit National recognition and protection and, on this account, have a public value transcending that of any material resources on the same land—such areas, for example, as those now comprised in the Yellowstone and Yosemite Parks and in the Grand Canyon National Monument. The areas should be large enough to justify administration separate from the Forests and the boundaries drawn so as not to include timber, grazing, or other resources the economic use of which is essential to the upbuilding and industrial welfare of the country. In addition, when Parks are created from parts of the Forests, the portions remaining as Forests should not be left in a form difficult or impossible to administer.

CLEAR-CUT POLICY NECESSARY.

The importance of a clear-cut policy is evidenced by the efforts frequently made to secure the creation of National Parks out of areas containing great bodies of timber, extensive grazing lands, and other resources, the withdrawal of which from use would be uneconomic and prejudicial to the local and general public interest. In most cases the desire for a specific Park, where economic use of the resources also is essential, has led to the proposal for an administration of the area, after the creation of the Park, identical with the present Forest administration. Several such measures now are before Congress. Their enactment would result in a mere division of the public properties into Parks and Forests, having no distinction except in name; handled alike, but by duplicate organizations in different departments. Still more serious is the fact that the cutting up of the Forests would greatly cripple administration of the remaining lands. It would doubtless mean the abandonment of large areas which should remain under public ownership and control for timber production and watershed protection. It would greatly reduce efficiency in forest-fire protection and in the handling of current business, increase the expense of protection and administration, and cause endless confusion to users, who in many cases would have to deal with two departments in developing resources when, for instance, logging and grazing units overlap.

The protection of the scenic features and the development of the recreational use of the lands is being taken care of in the National Forests. Some of the most unusual scenic areas in the Forests are best suited to a full Park administration. The bulk of the Forest areas, however, should continue in their present status, where they will be fully protected and developed for recreation purposes as a part of the Forest administration. The extensive road building, made possible by the \$10,000,000 recently appropriated, will open them up rapidly.

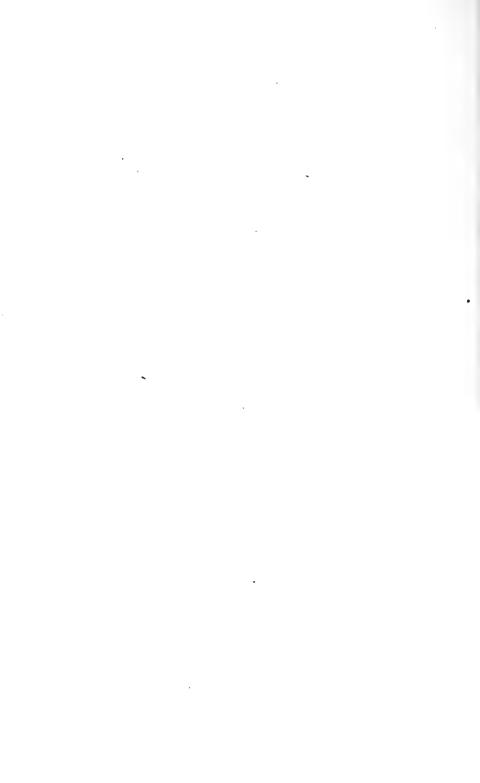
An added cause of confusion is the fact that National Parks and National Forests are administered by two execu-

tive departments. While there is an effort to cooperate, nevertheless difficulties arise which could be wholly avoided if they were under one department. Unquestionably the administration of the Forests should remain in the Department of Agriculture, because of the close relationship of the work of the Forest Service to the activities of other bureaus of the same department, such as the Bureau of Plant Industry, Bureau of Animal Industry, Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering, Bureau of Soils, Bureau of Biological Survey, and the Bureau of Entomology. Obviously, there are in the Forests many problems relating to live stock. plant growth, predatory animal and insect control, soil conditions, and road and trail work. These great bureaus are directly and intimately concerned with these problems. If the Forests were transferred to another department, that department either would have to duplicate these bureaus in part, or would have all the difficulties of cooperation with another department which seem to be inherent. Whether the National Park Service should be transferred to the Department of Agriculture is a matter for consideration. If the transfer should be made, it would be unnecessary and, in my judgment, unwise to consolidate the work of the two services. The Park Service should take its place in the organization of the department as an independent bureau, with its activities closely related to those of the Forest Service. Certainly, if the two services are to be administered by different departments, there should be the closest cooperation throughout. Such cooperation should include not only the question of the creation of new parks out of National Forests, but also fire protection on contiguous properties, game preservation. road building, and other activities.

Respectfully,

D. F. HOUSTON, Secretary of Agriculture.

The PRESIDENT.



MEETING THE FARMER HALFWAY.

By CARL VROOMAN, Assistant Secretary of Agriculture.

THE Federal Department of Agriculture is not a paternalistic agency, foisted by a benevolent despotism upon an apathetic people. It was created as the result of a widespread demand among the farmers themselves for governmental cooperation and aid. The United States Agricultural Society, one of the early farmers' organizations, was largely instrumental in securing the establishment of the Department in 1862. The Granger and Farmers' Alliance movements were the chief motive powers behind the legislation that in 1889 elevated it to the first rank as an executive department.

In the same way, nearly every step in the department's development during the past 50 years, instead of being taken by Federal authorities in aniticipation of a need, has been conceded as a tardy response to the insistent demands of the farming world. It is scarcely 3 years since the Federal Government first established an office for the fostering of rural organization, yet more than 60 years ago a speaker told the New Hampshire Board of Agriculture that "the only reason why the farmers of America are without power is because they have never learned to act in concert."

It is only 3 years also since the Federal Government took its first active steps toward fostering cooperation among farmers, yet in 1858 a farmers' convention at Centralia, Ill., took a stand in favor of wholesale buying and selling agencies for farmers. Moreover, it was at this historic convention and at later farmers' conventions that was generated the public sentiment in favor of railway regulation, which finally resulted in the creation of railroad or public-utility commissions in most of our States and of the Interstate Commerce Commission at Washington.

The farm-loan act, which was passed so recently that the regional banks are still in process of organization, is a belated reaction on the part of the Federal Government to a

half century's demand on the part of practically every farm organization in the United States for financial legislation that would enable the farmer to get a more adequate supply of money, on longer time, on more liberal terms of payment, and at lower rates of interest.

Indeed, in spite of all that has been done for the farmer during the past 3 or 4 years, it can not be said even at present that the Federal Government has done more than meet the farmer halfway. It has been stated that the Department of Agriculture is an example of paternalistic state socialism. Nothing could be farther from the truth. In reality it is a notable example of self-help slowly achieved by the farmer working through his Government.

Until recently the Department of Agriculture devoted its appropriations and energies almost exclusively to problems of production, in spite of the fact that the equally important problems of distribution were constantly being called to the attention of the Government by the voice of the organized farmers of the country. The history of the scientific work of the department along the line of production for the past half century is a most interesting and illuminating chronicle of brilliant achievement. During that time a total of some \$250,000,000 was expended, largely in research and experiment. The results of this research and experiment in the main have been a vast accumulation of facts about how to increase the productivity of nature and of human toil. The aggregate value of this work to the Nation is practically incalculable. It may safely be said, however, that each year's total of money put into the farmers' pockets through insect control and live-stock disease eradication, and the introduction of new crops and better farming methods, would easily liquidate the entire cost of the department since its creation.

Take the Bureau of Entomology alone. It has been conservatively estimated that the farmers of this country are better off by at least \$100.000,000 each year than they would have been if this bureau had never been created. An example of this extraordinarily useful scientific work is the case of the Australian ladybird. Found by a scientific explorer of this bureau in the antipodes, and introduced into California, it saves the citrus-fruit growers of that State many millions of dollars *each year* through the practical eradication of the fluted scale, which until its natural enemy in the form of this little spotted beetle from the southern hemisphere was found, had threatened the utter destruction of the orange industry of that region.

Another noteworthy achievement of the department has been its fight against the southern cattle tick. In the Southern States the tick has been an almost universal scourge since there have been cattle there for it to feed upon. Only recently was this tick recognized as the sole agent in spreading Texas or splenetic fever, a disease that is deadly to imported cattle and destroys large numbers of native stock commonly supposed to be immune. The effect of this discovery was to stimulate a more determined attack upon the tick. In 1906 the Federal Government quarantined 728.561 square miles of tick-infested territory, and, having secured a small appropriation of \$82,500 from Congress for this purpose, began the systematic eradication of the pest. Since then over 42 per cent of this territory—an area larger than the German Empire in Europe and more than four times as big as England, has been freed from this scourge. Last year was the most successful in the history of the campaign. nearly 50,000 square miles being freed. Appropriations for this work have been gradually increased, reaching \$632,000 for 1917.

Of equal importance with the campaign for tick eradication is the fight that the department has been waging against hog cholera. This disease has been known in the United States since 1833, and there is to-day no part of the country altogether free from it. In the 20-year period from 1894 to 1913 it is estimated that the annual losses have ranged from a minimum of \$27,000,000 to a maximum of \$78,000,000. Ninety per cent of the hogs that die from disease are destroyed by cholera.

Although the study of hog cholera, which began in 1878, resulted in 1905 in the discovery by Dr. Dorsett, of the Bureau of Animal Industry, of a serum rendering hogs immune, it was not until 1914 that any considerable sum of money was placed in the department's hands for demonstrating to the farmers at large that they could protect their herds from the scourge. In February of that year Congress ap-

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propriated \$500,000 for field work and for the inspection of establishments which were manufacturing the serum and shipping it in interstate commerce. As a result, the value of anti-hog-cholera serum is becoming much more generally recognized, and the character of the serum on the market is much improved. Last year enough serum was distributed for nearly 7,000,000 hogs—between one-eighth and one-ninth of all the swine in the country.

The Bureau of Plant Industry, at a cost of about \$2,000, introduced into this country the sorghum plant, which is now yielding each year a \$40,000,000 crop. Durum wheat, introduced at a cost of about \$30,000, now produces an annual crop estimated to be worth from \$40,000,000 to \$50,000,000. Kafir corn, now worth to this country \$15,000,000 a year; the navel orange, worth at least \$10,000,000; and that old stand-by, Fultz wheat, the present annual value of which can not well be computed—all these, together with a number of other valuable crops, were introduced into this country at comparatively small expense by the Department of Agriculture.

Moreover, many improved farm methods have been introduced by the department. "Dry farming," for example, in spite of the fact that it has not realized the early expectations of its advocates, has opened up to agriculture vast areas of semiarid country which before were given over to the sagebrush and cactus, the rattlesnake, and the prairiedog.

In a sense, the term "dry farming" is somewhat misleading. The Department of Agriculture is teaching farmers how successfully to conserve the moisture in the soil, and it has introduced various crops which do well with a minimum of moisture. Further than that it has been unable to go without having recourse to irrigation. The present position of the department with regard to dry farming is somewhat analogous to that of a member of the Illinois Legislature, who, on being asked by a committee of the Anti-Saloon League whether he was "wet" or "dry," replied that they could put him down as "moist." In other words, the best dry farming is in reality moist farming.

Another new method relates to the use of legumes for the maintenance of soil fertility. Legumes, it has been discovered, can be grown almost anywhere, provided soil acidity is corrected by lime and the soil is inoculated with the proper bacteria. George Washington imported various legumes from Europe year after year in a futile endeavor to grow them on his farms. He failed because at that time agricultural experts in this country knew nothing about the inoculation of the soil with the legume bacteria. Now every schoolboy knows how to go to an old alfalfa field, or to the roadside where sweet clover grows, and get enough bacteriaimpregnated dirt to inoculate his field and make sure of a good stand of alfalfa.

But in spite of the fact that practically all the energies of the Department of Agriculture for nearly half a century were devoted to problems of production, strangely enough a large majority of the farmers of the country have never taken advantage of the new and more efficient farm methods taught. As a matter of fact, the average yields per acre in the United States to-day are very little more than they were 50 years ago, as shown in the following table:

Average yield per acre, United States, bushels by decade.

Crop.	1907-1916	1866-1875
Wheat	14.7	11.9
Corn	26.0	26.1
Oats	29.6	28.1

The slowness of this increase in production has been partly the farmers' fault and partly the fault of the department. The publicity work of the department long left much to be desired. Until recently many of our bulletins have been too technical and academic, rather than simple and practical. To men having a scientific education they were splendidly suggestive and helpful, but they were not so written that the average farmer could derive much benefit from them. Thus while each of the older bureaus of the department had many years of honest and invaluable research work to its credit, but comparatively little had been done, until during the past few years, toward putting the results of the work of the department's scientific men before the farmer properly condensed, correlated, and couched in terms easily understood.

Further, much of the information published on vitally important practical problems was scattered about in so many bulletins as to be entirely un-get-at-able by the average farmer. In order to secure the necessary information for a reorganization of his system of farming, he was required to read a score or so more or less technical bulletins, extract the practical instruction from them, and coordinate it for himself.

Moreover, what is good farm practice at the Arlington Experiment Station is not necessarily good farm practice throughout the country; indeed what is good farm practice at a State experiment station is not necessarily good farm practice even throughout that State. Heretofore the Federal department had not worked out and popularized among the farmers regional systems of scientific and successful farm practice for the great agricultural subdivisions of the Nation, nor had the State agricultural colleges been much more successful in working out and popularizing special systems adapted to the various localities in the several States.

This matter of adapting the teachings of the department and the colleges to local conditions is one of the most difficult problems that the apostles of the new agriculture have had to meet. The fact that this problem was not met and solved sooner is what has given rise to most of the prejudice felt by farmers throughout the country against scientific farming. Fortunately this problem is beginning to be more effectively handled by Federal and State agricultural agencies working through the country agent system which is rapidly spreading over the whole Nation.

While the demonstration method of promulgating new methods had been tested previously and successfully employed over a considerable area, it yet had had no Nationwide application, and was inadequately supported. However, the value of teaching by direct touch having been clearly proved, so commended itself to Congress that the agricultural extension act was passed in 1914. When this act is in full operation it should be possible, through Federal, State, and local funds, to place two county agents in each of the 2,850 rural counties of the Nation.

Meeting the Farmer Halfway.

As a rule a county agent is a man who has been born and raised on a farm, has studied at an agricultural college, and has had experience with the practical application to actual farm conditions of scientific methods. He is a representative of the Federal Department of Agriculture and the State agricultural college. He studies local soil conditions, climatic conditions, marketing conditions, labor conditions, and credit conditions. Working in conjunction with the best farmers in his county and keeping in constant touch with the experts of the State agricultural college and of the Federal department, he gradually discovers how the teachings of the new agriculture can best be adapted to existing conditions on the individual farms of that county.

This county-agent movement is the greatest and most practical university extension movement ever inaugurated in any country. It is essentially nothing but learning democratized, learning brought out of the laboratory and the experiment field, out of the libraries and the bulletins, adapted to local conditions, and brought home to the farmer by the power of personal explanation and of actual demonstration.

I was told the other day by a banker from central New York that in two short years one of our county agents, located in his county, had done more for the farmers of that county than the entire Department of Agriculture and the State agricultural colleges had done for them during the 50 years preceding. This same wonder is being worked to-day in over 1,200 counties in this country—and the Smith-Lever bill is not yet 3 years old.

The county-agent force might well be compared to a system of irrigation ditches, tapping reservoirs of agricultural information which have been accumulating during a long half century in the Federal Department of Agriculture and in the State agricultural colleges. Through the county agents, at last this stored treasure is being carried directly to those who need it, working a miracle similar to that which makes the desert bloom.

Another instance of the very practical aid given by the county agent is the experience of an old Maine farmer who had lived to be 70 years old without ever having made more than a bare living on his hundred-acre farm. The land had been cropped to death. His sons, discouraged by the prospect, left home and went to work in the city. In due time one of these sons, having saved \$2,000, came home and undertook to make the old place pay. He asked the county agent what he should do, and learned a new wrinkle about real farming.

The farm was worth on the market about \$20 an acre. When the county agent told him that the first move was to spend \$40 an acre for fertilizer it took his breath away, but he followed the county agent's advice on $17\frac{1}{2}$ acres. From this small field that fall he sold \$4,600 worth of potatoes. Deducting all expense, including that hitherto unheard-of fertilizer bill, the profit from his potatoes was \$2,600. When he handed his father \$1,300 as his half of the returns the old man said that he had never before seen that much money made from farming.

What that boy did any intelligent farmer in that section might do in a favorable year if he had as much cash to buy fertilizer with as that boy had. The new Federal farmloan act will help our farmers to get the cash, and the new system of county agents that is being developed throughout the country will furnish practical and detailed instructions, so that henceforth a man need not live 70 years before he learns how to cash in his agricultural "chips" of land, labor, and experience.

Even more important than recent improvements in the department's methods of adapting agricultural information to local conditions, and of disseminating that information among the farmers, is the creation in 1913 of the Office of Markets and Rural Organization. The creation of this office was an innovation of epoch-making significance. Ever since the department was started the farmers of the country have been requesting the Government to help them solve their economic problems, have been urging the utter hopelessness of the attempt to build a successful agriculture upon the doctrine of increased production, without regard to the equally important problems of marketing and distribution. But owing to the mistaken theory that everybody is interested in increasing agricultural production, while nobody but the farmer is interested in making that production profitable, until recently no important attempt was made by Congress, by the agricultural colleges, or by the Federal Department of Agriculture to help the farmer solve his financial and economic problems. Indeed, the history of farm organizations in this country up to 1912 was the history of a long-drawn-out and unsuccessful effort on the part of the farmers to secure for themselves that governmental cooperation and help which governments were instituted among men to give to all citizens.

In the Middle West the dark seventies and eighties, which gave rise to the Granger movement, the Farmers' Alliance movement, and the Populist movement, were decades that tried men's souls. We who were boys on the plains in those days can well remember how grave were the problems that the farmers faced and how hopeless was the outlook for those who happened to be caught at an economic disadvantage. I remember reading when I was a small boy a little poem that greatly impressed me. It was entitled "The Mortgage." It was only a bit of fugitive verse, now long forgotten, but it expressed more poignantly than anything else I have ever read something that was then vital enough the tragedy and pathos of the losing struggle which so many men and women were making out there in those days of high interest and cheap corn.

It used to seem to us that the blind forces of nature and the malevolent powers of human greed had conspired against us. Every few years the grasshoppers would sweep down in clouds and devour all our substance. Every now and then, too, there would come a drought that would ruin our crops. I have seen corn as beautiful as eve ever looked upon-green and fresh and high as a man's head-burned to a crisp within 48 hours by the hot winds from the southwest. Luckily, that happened only once in a while. But every year and all the time we had the mortgage hanging over us, embittering the very well-springs of life. It has been said-and I think with good reason-that more midland farmers' wives died of mortgage during those trying years than of tuberculosis and cancer together, and that more farmers' wives were sent to the madhouse by mortgage than by all other causes. The wrongs that drove the farmers to political revolt were real enough, and the

agrarian legislation demanded and sneeringly stigmatized by its opponents as "hayseed socialism" was inspired by long decades of urgent need.

Of the early fruits of this movement the most significant were the so-called "granger laws," passed in several of the corn-belt States during the late sixties and early seventies. These laws in the main were short lived, but in the end they served to establish the principle of railroad regulation in State and Nation, and to bring about the creation of railroad and public-utility commissions in our various States and the powerful Interstate Commerce Commission at Washington. Unfortunately, however, no such concrete and beneficial effects on the farmers' other vital economic problems resulted from this movement.

It is true that some of the specific remedies demanded by the farmers were impractical, but these were mere details. Their basic demands were just. The evils they pointed out so insistently and at times so eloquently were real evils, and it is an amazing thing that during this long period our statesmen at Washington should have failed to grasp this fact and to devise some sound and effective substitutes for the unsatisfactory remedies suggested in all good faith by the organized farmers of the Nation.

During the past 4 years, for the first time in our history, Congress and the Department of Agriculture have persistently and intelligently conceived the economic phases of agriculture and have made a determined and consistent effort to find scientific and workable solutions for the farmer's most pressing financial and economic problems.

In addition to the creation of the Office of Markets and Rural Organization, a number of laws have been passed which are of immense economic importance to the farmer. Probably the most important one of these laws is that financial magna charta of the farmer, the farm-loan act. This is the first great financial measure ever passed by Congress primarily in the interest of the farmer. I have no doubt that in the future it will be strengthened by amendments with regard to some of its minor details, as was the Federal reserve bill, but in all fairness it must be recognized that this bill will do for the farmer very much what the Federal reserve act is doing for the business man. It will furnish the farmer with those fundamental necessities that he has been asking for, voting for, and praying for during the past half century:

First. More adequate credit facilities; or, in other words, capital in sufficient quantities and capital that is always available for the farmers' legitimate needs. Frequently in the past the time when the farmer needed money most was precisely the time when, because industrial and speculative centers were able to outbid him for it, it was most difficult or even impossible to secure it.

Second. Loans on longer time and easier terms of payment.

Third. Lower rates of interest.

These are the three most important financial needs of the farmer, and the present farm-loan act will supply these three primary financial necessities of rural life.

The United States grain-standards act of August 11, 1916, which seems destined to work a gradual reformation in our system of marketing grain, is another of these measures so pregnant of promise to the farmers. This act will stimulate the production of the best quality of grain. This will be an advantage not only to the farmer, but as well to the middleman and to the consumer. No one will be interfered with save the man who wants to get a No. 1 grade of grain for a No. 4 price. The effect of this law on our foreign commerce in grain is certain in the long run to be very much to our advantage. It is a step in the direction of National efficiency and National economic preparedness.

Another of these measures is the bonded warehouse act of August 11, 1916, which was passed in response to a demand on the part of the farmers for a mechanism that would enable them to borrow money more easily and at a lower rate of interest on stored crops. In the past, when the bankers had plenty of money, those farmers with abundant credit usually could secure what money they needed at a reasonable rate of interest. The new method enables the farmer, no matter what his standing may be at his local bank, if he has a valuable crop, to store it and secure a bonded warehouse receipt, upon which he will be able to secure money at the

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lowest current rate of interest, either at the local bank or at any other bank that loans money on this kind of gilt-edged security. By eliminating the bankers' risk, and enlarging the field in which loans may be negotiated, interest rates to farmers are certain to be cut to the current standard figure.

The Federal aid road act of July 11, 1916, is the first comprehensive Federal good-roads law ever passed, and should also be cited in this connection. At last we are beginning to work out a National highway policy that coordinates the road work of the township, the county, the State, and the Nation into a single comprehensive National plan. As a result, a higher degree of efficiency henceforth will characterize our road work, and the farmer at last will get a dollar's worth of road for every dollar of taxes devoted to that end. This will be a new experience, for although we are spending in the United States anywhere from \$200,-000,000 to \$250,000,000 a year on roads, it is doubtful if we are getting more than from two-thirds to three-fourths of that amount in value. This is a matter of vital interest to every farmer, for the farmer pays no heavier tax than that of the effort expended by him while hauling his produce to markets over had roads.

The cotton-futures act of August 11, 1916, is still another beneficent act in behalf of the farmer. Without going into details, it can be said that as a result of this law the Government is gradually eliminating the abuses which had crept into the cotton-future exchanges. The effect of this measure was immediate. The American cotton-future exchanges at once adopted the form of contract prescribed by the Secretary of Agriculture, and not only the exchanges, but the more important domestic spot markets, at once adopted the official cotton standards established. The net result has been that the prices of cotton which now are published every day throughout the country reflect the actual changes in the value of cotton rather than quotations of arbitrary fluctuations created by gamblers for their own benefit, as was too often the case in the past.

It is clear that as a result of this splendid program of constructive legislation a new agricultural epoch has begun. At last what for so long was merely the hope, the aspiration, the dream of the widely scattered, imperfectly organized tillers of our soil has become the avowed policy of the Federal Department of Agriculture, and has been written by Congress into the law of the land.

All the farmers' legitimate demands have not yet been granted. There is indeed still need for organized effort on their part, still need for educational campaigns in behalf of measures to meet those requirements of the farmer which still remain unsatisfied. But it is a great thing that the Federal Government at last is meeting the farmer at least halfway and has manifested not merely a willingness but a friendly desire to cooperate with him in the future in any constructive work that looks to the building up of our national prosperity on the basis of a permanently prosperous agriculture.

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THE MEAT-INSPECTION SERVICE OF THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

By George Ditewig,

Meat Inspection Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

THE purpose of the meat-inspection service of the United States Department of Agriculture is to eliminate diseased or otherwise bad meat from the general food supply; to see that the preparation of the meats and products passed for human consumption is cleanly; to guard against the use of harmful dyes, preservatives, chemicals, or other deleterious ingredients; and to prevent the use of false or misleading names or statements on labels; in short, to protect the rights and health of the consumers of meat and meat food products to the fullest extent possible under the laws. The service is administered through the Bureau of Animal Industry of the department.

MEAT-INSPECTION LAWS AND REGULATIONS.

Federal inspection is maintained under the meat-inspection act of June 30, 1906, and supplementary legislation in the tariff act of October 3, 1913. Space will not permit giving an outline of the different provisions of the act of June 30, 1906: however, it is essential to an understanding of the scope of the service that the reader know that the food animals to which the law refers are cattle, sheep, swine, and goats, and that the slaughtering, packing, rendering, and meat-preparing establishments to which it applies are those which sell or ship their products in whole or in part in interstate or foreign commerce, and that it does not apply to those establishments the meats and products of which are neither sold nor shipped outside the confines of the State in which the plant is operated. Further, the act grants a qualified exemption from inspection to retail dealers supplying their customers, and also provides a similar exemption for the meat from farm-slaughtered animals. The tariff legislation referred to provides inspection for imported meats and products.

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The meat-inspection regulations of the department for governing the service are clear and comprehensive and embody the recommendations of scientists and hygienists outside of the department as well as the judgment and experience of administrative officials and workers in the service as to what constitutes an efficient system of inspection and how best to attain the objects of the law. Copies of the regulations may be had free upon application to the Bureau of Animal Industry.

APPLYING FOR INSPECTION.

The proprietor or operator of an establishment of the kind which the law requires be operated under inspection must file an application and submit triplicate copies of plans and specifications of the plant. The plans are referred to the architect of the bureau to see whether the structure and arrangement conform to certain important requirements of the regulations. In addition, a qualified representative of the bureau is assigned to make a detailed inspection of the establishment to ascertain what sanitary additions or corrections must be made to place the plant in satisfactory condition, and to decide what facilities shall be provided to enable a ready and proper conduct of the inspection. Inspection is not inaugurated until a satisfactory compliance with the sanitary requirements is shown and proper facilities for the conduct of the inspection are provided.

GRANTING INSPECTION, OFFICIAL NUMBER.

Each establishment to which inspection is granted is given an official number. This number identifies the plant, and must appear in every instance as a part of the mark of inspection; that is, the mark or statement used on meats and products, or the containers thereof, to show that they have been inspected and passed under the Federal meat-inspection regulations. So long as the mark remains intact the number identifies the product wherever found. Further, with the granting of inspection and the assigning of an official number, a sufficient force of inspectors is detailed to the establishment to perform the inspections and enforce the regulations under the direction of an inspector in charge. For

The Meat-Inspection Service.

convenience the establishments which operate under Federal meat inspection are called "official establishments."

SANITATION.

The requirements as to sanitation in the establishments that operate under inspection occupy an important place in the meat-inspection regulations. Prior to 1906 the Secretary of Agriculture was without authority to fix and enforce such requirements, but when it was conferred by the meat-inspection act of that year the department proceeded to enforce sanitation in all establishments operated under Federal inspection. The first step taken was to require strict cleanliness as regards the rooms and equipment and in respect to the conduct of operations and the handling of products, and the second was to adopt rules governing plant and equipment construction.

The first part of the program, that is, strict cleanliness, was soon attained in the plants of good construction, and in as full a measure as could rightly be expected in those of the type of construction common to that period. As regards the second, it was apparent from the beginning that conformity with a certain type of construction must be had if good sanitary conditions were to be readily and surely maintained throughout the plants. Accordingly it was aimed to attain this quality in all plants by leading to the use of nonabsorbent materials instead of the absorbent ones which had been so freely used in previous construction: to replace rough and pervious surfaces with smooth and impervious ones; to supplant artificial light with abundant natural light; to replace odor-laden air with fresh air wherever possible; to eliminate incomplete and defective systems of drainage and plumbing and to install such as are modern and effective; to require that sanitary and adequate dressing rooms, toilets. and lavatories be installed; to subject the water supply to the test of laboratory analysis to insure its purity; and to require a separation of the rooms and equipment used for edible products from those used for inedible materials. These improvements indicate the rules adopted by the department to mark the reform in plant and equipment construction. It is believed that the progress made has been excellent.

THE ANTE-MORTEM INSPECTION.

Under the Federal system not less than two examinations are made of the animals slaughtered in official establishments. The first is the ante-mortem inspection or examination of the live animal, the second the post-mortem inspection or examination of the carcass and the various organs and parts at the time of slaughter. The post-mortem is the more valuable of the two inspections, but both are necessary if it is to be determined with certainty in every instance that the flesh of the animal is sound, wholesome, and fit for human food.

The ante-mortem inspection is performed in the pens and allevs of the official establishments, except that at most of



FIG. 1.—"U. S. Suspect" tag. This kind of tag is affixed to the ear of live animals suspected of being diseased. Such animals are held for separate and special postmortem examination.

the large slaughtering centers it is found more convenient to conduct it in the public stockyards. The animals are carefully observed for evidence of disease or abnormal condition while at rest in the pens or as they move from the scales after weighing. If any of a lot show symptoms, then the entire lot is subjected to further

and individual inspection. If the animals are swine and the symptoms indicate cholera, they are driven to a special pen for further examination and in certain cases to ascertain their temperatures and to make a record of the same. Other diseases or conditions in which the question of temperature is important are Texas fever, anthrax, blackleg, pneumonia, septicemia, and severe injuries. When a high temperature exists and there is doubt as to its cause, the affected animal is marked and may be held for observation and retaking of temperature.

When its appearance is such as to lead the inspector to suspect that an animal is affected with a disease or condition that may cause its condemnation in whole or in part on the post-mortem inspection, it is marked for identification by means of a serially numbered metal tag bearing the phrase "U. S. Suspect" affixed to the ear. Such an animal is termed a "suspect." A record of the tag number, the in-

PLATE I.

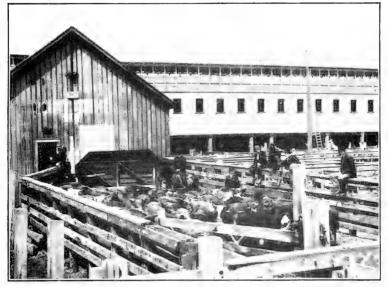


FIG. I.-ANTE-MORTEM INSPECTION OF CATTLE.

All animals slaughtered at official establishments are first inspected alive. Those which are suspected of being diseased are marked for separate and special post-mortem examination.



FIG. 2.-ANTE-MORTEM INSPECTION OF SHEEP.

PLATE II.

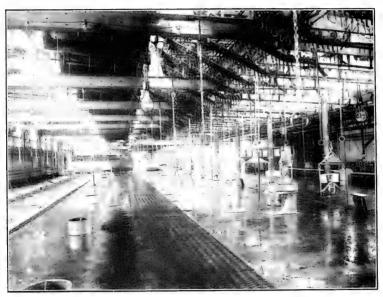


FIG. I.-CATTLE SLAUGHTER ROOM.

Abundant light, adequate ventilation, efficient drainage, metal and other impervious materials and smooth surfaces mark the construction of the sanitary slaughter room.

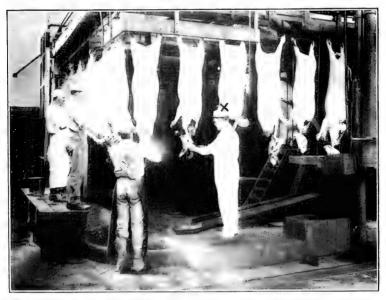


FIG. 2. - POST-MORTEM INSPECTION OF SWINE.

The first step in this inspection is to cut and examine for evidence of tuberculosis the lymph glands of the neck. The figure indicated by ${\bf X}$ is an inspector making this examination.



FIG. 1.-POST-MORTEM INSPECTION OF CATTLE HEADS.

The different pairs of lymph glands are cut and examined, particularly for tuberculosis, and the check muscles cut for detection of tapeworm cysts; the tongue and other parts also are carefully examined.

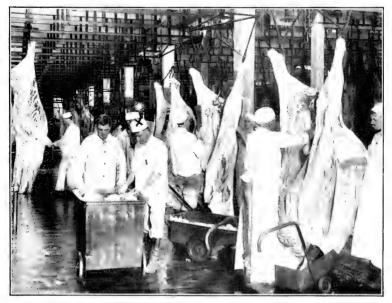


FIG. 2.- POST-MORTEM INSPECTION OF CATTLE.

As the several organs and parts are removed from the carcass they are placed before an inspector for complete and careful examination. The X indicates the veterinary inspector making this examination.

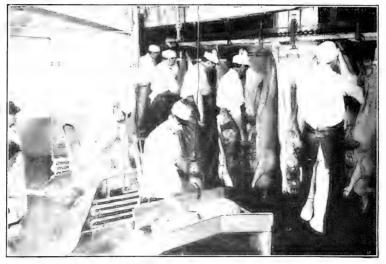


FIG. 1.—POST-MORTEM INSPECTION OF SWINE. Immediately after their removal the organs are placed before the inspectors for examination.

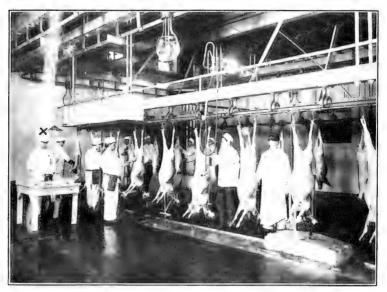


FIG. 2.-POST-MORTEM INSPECTION OF SHEEP. The X indicates an inspector examining organs,



FIG. I.—POST-MORTEM INSPECTION OF CATTLE. Illustrating the detail observed in the performance of the final post-mortem inspection.

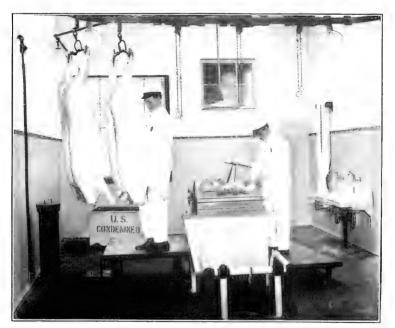


FIG. 2.—POST-MORTEM INSPECTION OF SWINE. Illustrating the detail observed in the examination of retained swine.

PLATE VI.



FIG. 1.—POST-MORTEM INSPECTION OF CATTLE. If disease is present a detailed record is made of the conditions found.

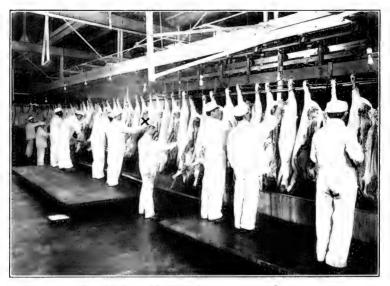


FIG. 2.- POST-MORTEM INSPECTION OF SWINE. After the head, organs, and other parts have been inspected and passed the carcass is carefully examined. The inspector performing this inspection is indicated by an X.

PLATE VII.



FIG. I.-BRANDING HOG AND CATTLE CARCASSES.

The passed carcasses are marked with an abbreviation of the legend "U. S. Inspected and Passed" and the official number of the establishment by means of an ink brand. The ink used is composed of approved ingredients.



FIG. 2.—SHEEP CHILL ROOM. "U. S. Inspected and Passed" mutton.

PLATE VIII.



FIG. 1.-MEAT-CURING CELLAR. The curing of meats is supervised and the product inspected.



FIG. 2. - DRY SALT CURING CELLAR. Government inspection and supervision of handling meats cured in dry salt.

spector's diagnosis, and of the animal's temperature, if that was ascertained, is made and sent to the inspector who is to conduct the post-mortem inspection. This information is given due weight by him in determining the final disposition of the animal. Suspects are kept apart and slaughtered separately from those which were passed on the ante-mortem inspection.

Animals which show symptoms of rabies, tetanus, milk fever, or railroad sickness, and hogs which are plainly sick with hog cholera, are condemned on the ante-mortem inspec-

tion. Such animals are marked by means of a serially numbered "U. S. Condemned" metal tag affixed to the ear. Animals so tagged may not be taken into the slaughter room, but must be destroyed and disposed of as required for condemned carcasses to prevent their use for food. Animals which are found dead or



FIG. 2.—"U. S. Condemned" tag. This tag is affixed to the ear of an animal condemned on the ante-mortem inspection.

in a dying condition on the premises of an establishment are condemned and disposed of in the same manner.

THE POST-MORTEM INSPECTION.

Each of the successive examinations, extending from the live animal to the finished meat food product, serves some particular purpose and has a relative value in a complete system of meat inspection. Omission of certain of the other examinations would result in some, though not vital, impairment of the service as a whole, but the post-mortem inspection is indispensable because its chief purpose is to detect disease and to eliminate the danger that threatens the consumer on this account. Further proof of its importance lies in the fact that aside from certain exceptional conditions it is not possible for even an expert to recognize or prove the presence of disease or the effects of disease by an examination of the meat alone after it has been cut from the carcass. but he can do so through a proper examination of the whole carcass together with the organs. Before entering upon a description of the post-mortem inspection procedures the

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meaning of the word "disease" as it is used in meat inspection should receive some explanation.

MEANING OF "DISEASE" IN MEAT.

The meaning of the term "disease" as used in meat inspection does not differ materially from the meaning given it in medical literature, and never in meat inspection is the seriousness of disease underestimated. There is. however. much popular misconception in regard to the nature of the different conditions to which the term is applied in discussing meat inspection. The common or popular error on this point arises from the broad assumption that every condition to which the term disease is applied is noxious and harmful. to such a degree as to make unsafe or unfit for food all the flesh of an animal in which any of these conditions is found. The facts of pathology plainly refute such assumption. By using the microscope and laboratory tests and by applying the term in its most technical meanings. a pathologist could demonstrate disease or evidence of disease in any and every food animal that might be submitted for examination. But no pathologist would hold such demonstration to be proof that the flesh of every such animal is unsafe or unfit for human food.

The error in the popular conception might be more clearly shown by the use of a homely illustration or two: The peach or the pear with a small unsound spot, strictly speaking, is an unsound fruit, but with the spot cut away it may certainly be a sound and delicious article of food. So also with a bunch of grapes, some of which may be in bad condition while the others may be sweet and wholesome. Similarly, any one of certain diseases may exist in a circumscribed area or part of an animal. A clear illustration of this is the disease commonly called "lumpy jaw" of cattle. In many instances the tumor on the jaw attains a considerable size. Nevertheless, in very many such cases the disease is as distinctly localized as is the unsound spot on the pear. and aside from the affected part the flesh of the animal may be absolutely clean and wholesome. To carry the illustration further, in meat inspection tuberculosis is encountered far more frequently than is any other disease, and great care is exercised to detect its presence in even the minutest degree. In a very considerable proportion of the cases found the lesions are confined to one or to a small number of the visceral lymphatic glands, or they may exist to a slight degree in an organ and in some of the lymph glands. An animal so affected is diseased, and yet in that form of the disease the lesions are so limited in number and so completely localized and hemmed in by encapsulating tissues, built up by the protective forces of the body, that the affected tissues are as distinct from the remainder of the animal economy as are the bad grapes from the good ones. With the bad ones removed the bunch becomes good food, and likewise the meat of this class of tuberculous animals must be regarded as sound and wholesome when the affected parts have been carefully removed.

The foregoing comparisons are used merely to illustrate the point that soundness and unsoundness may exist in the body at the same time in varying proportion, and that as a rule it is possible to separate and treat each portion according to its condition. In short, the point can be made clear by discarding the word "disease" for the moment and saying that the function of a scientific and rational meat inspection is to recognize and reject the meat or meat food product which is unsafe or unfit for human food, to pass that which is wholesome and fit, and, when doubt exists as to which of these conditions obtains, to resolve that doubt in favor of the consumer.

PROCEDURES.

The post-mortem inspection is made at the time of slaughter and includes a careful examination of the carcass and all its parts. Where the number of animals dressed per hour does not exceed a certain general limit, one inspector, constantly present, performs all the inspections. Where the number of inspections per hour exceeds certain general limits, the inspectors are increased accordingly and the work so arranged and coordinated that each inspector gives his entire attention to some particular part of it. Thus the work is in a sense specialized and the inspectors become specialists, with the result that a high individual and collective proficiency is attained and efficient inspection assured regardless of the rate of slaughter.

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An important requirement in the conduct of this inspection is that the identity of the carcass and of each of its severed parts be carefully maintained until the inspection is completed, so that if there is disease in any one organ or part all the other parts and the carcass may be brought together for additional and final examination. Facilities for maintaining such identity are provided in the slaughter departments, and every inspector is supplied with serially numbered "U. S. Retained" tags, which he affixes to



FIG. 3.—"U. S. Retained" tag. This tag is affixed by the inspector to every carcass or product which he deems necessary to hold for further inspection.

the carcass and severed parts, and by means of which he retains them for the additional inspection. The different steps of the postmortem inspection are: Head inspection, viscera inspection, carcass inspection, final inspection, disposition, and marking.

HEAD INSPECTION.

In cattle heads the different pairs of lymphatic glands are cut into and examined, particularly for tuberculosis.

The tongue is examined and, if necessary, is cut into. The presence in the flesh of cattle of a certain cyst capable of producing tapeworm in man can usually be determined by examining the inner and outer cheek muscles. Therefore, these muscles of cattle are laid open by deep slicing cuts for the detection of this cyst. A careful survey is made of the head as a whole for actinomycosis, deformities, etc. In the heads of swine certain lymphatic glands, which are favorite seats of tuberculosis, are incised in every instance and examined for evidence of that disease.

INSPECTION OF VISCERA.

As the several organs are removed from the carcass they are placed before the inspector, on a table, in pans or other suitable metal receptacles for examination. Facilities for promptly cleansing such equipment in the event of con-

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tamination through the contact of diseased viscera are at hand. The various organs and parts are carefully viewed and certain of them cut into while others are subjected to manual as well as visual examination. The entire procedure is methodical and designed to disclose disease or harmful condition if any exists in the parts under examination.

CARCASS INSPECTION.

This examination embraces a careful viewing of all surfaces and parts of the carcass, with particular attention given to the condition of the serous membranes of thoracic and abdominal cavities. Further, certain parts which more frequently than others are seats of disease are subjected to a manual as well as a visual examination.

The head, viscera, and carcass examinations together constitute the regular post-mortem inspection. The animals found to be free from disease or any doubtful condition are marked "Inspected and Passed," while those in which any disease or doubtful condition is found are retained for the final inspection.

THE FINAL POST-MORTEM INSPECTION.

The carcasses and parts retained on the regular inspection are sent to the final inspection room or place, where another inspector with special facilities at his command subjects them to a searching examination. This enables the inspectors engaged in the preliminary and regular inspections to continue their examinations of the animals which are before them without delay and without omission of any kind. The establishments in which slaughtering is done are required to provide these rooms or places for the final inspection and to equip them with all the facilities necessary for a ready, cleanly, sanitary, and efficient performance of the work.

Since the animals held for the final inspection are tagged or retained for cause, only veterinary inspectors who have become skilled through training and experience in the work are detailed to make such examinations and to determine the final dispositions. As indicating the detail observed in the conduct of this inspection, it need only be mentioned that a record is made, on appropriate forms, of the results of the examination of every animal showing disease in any degree. In this record the animal is identified by a tag or stamp number; the diagnosis and the nature, location, and extent of the lesions are indicated; and the disposition of the carcasses and the name of the inspector are shown. The final inspection reports for the last fiscal year preceding this writing alone contain a record covering approximately 3,500,000 retained animals.

As soon as the several examinations have been made and the dispositions determined, there remain two important acts, the performance of which completes the post-mortem inspection. They are the marking of each carcass to show plainly to every beholder the disposition made of it and to see that those carcasses and parts which are condemned are disposed of as required by the meat-inspection regulations to prevent the sale or use of the same as human food. Each of these procedures will be briefly described.

DISPOSITION OF CONDEMNED CARCASSES, MEATS, AND PRODUCTS.

The Federal meat-inspection regulations governing the disposal of condemned articles emphasizes three important requirements, strict observance of which is imposed upon every bureau employee whose duties relate in any way to their enforcement: First, that every condemned carcass, part of carcass, meat, or product be plainly marked to show that it is condemned, and that parts or products too small or which are of such nature that they can not be so marked be placed in appropriately marked containers; second, that all condemned articles shall remain in the custody of an inspector from the time they are condemned until properly disposed of, and that if the articles are not disposed of on the day they are condemned they shall be locked in the "U. S. Condemned" rooms or compartments, the locks of which are selected and supplied by the department and the keys of which remain in the custody of the inspector; and third, that the required destruction or denaturing of the condemned articles shall be done by the establishment in the presence of an inspector, who must render a report covering the transaction. The meat-inspection act specifically provides that the Secretary of Agriculture may withhold inspection from any establishment which fails to destroy for food purposes any condemned carcass or part thereof.

The customary method of treating condemned carcasses and parts is to convert them into grease and fertilizer by rendering them in a steam-pressure tank. The procedure as outlined and practiced under the Federal meat-inspection regulations is substantially as follows: The lower opening of the tank is securely sealed by an inspector with seals supplied by the department for the purpose; then the condemned articles and a sufficient quantity of denaturing material of a kind approved by the department is placed in the tank in the inspector's presence, after which the upper opening is also sealed, and it remains the duty of the inspector to see that a sufficient force of steam is turned into the tank and maintained a sufficient time effectually to destroy the contents for food purposes. The department seals on the tank may be broken only by an inspector. A small number of the establishments at which Federal meat inspection is maintained do not have steam-pressure tanks in which condemned meats may be denatured in the manner described. At these such meats and products are denatured by the addition of crude carbolic acid or other prescribed denaturing agent. or are destroyed by incineration.

THE PRODUCTS INSPECTION.

Because meat or other edible portion of an animal which was entirely sound and wholesome at the time of slaughter may become unsound or contaminated through improper care or handling, and because healthful products may be made unwholesome through adulteration or the addition of deleterious ingredients, and for the purpose of protecting the purchaser against false or misleading labels, a proper measure of control of the various operations of processing, preparing, and labeling meats and products becomes necessary. Such control is one of the functions of the Federal inspection. In other words, under the Federal system of the inspection extends from the live animal in the pen to the product in the labeled package. The bureau employees who conduct the products inspection are designated "lay inspectors" and are selected for their practical knowledge and ex-

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perience in the handling and preparation of meats and meat food products; also for their skill in testing and passing on these articles as to soundness and fitness for food.

All the meats and products in official establishments, notwithstanding that they were previously inspected and passed, are reinspected as often as may be necessary to ascertain



FIG. 4.—Facsimile of inspection brand. Brand used for marking carcasses, parts, and products to show that the same have been inspected and passed. The ciphers in the above imprint occupy the place reserved for the official number of the establishment.

whether they remain sound and wholesome. The law inspectors exercise a supervision over all such operations as the processing. curing, packing, marking, labeling, and shipping of meats and products. The materials added to products are examined to see that the regulations relating to prohibited ingredients are observed and that the requirements as to correctness of labeling are complied with. Samples of the different kinds of products are taken and referred to the meat-inspection laboratories for chemical or other technical examination. It

is also the duty of the lay inspectors to see that the requirements of the regulations in regard to the cleanly and sanitary handling of products and as to the sanitary condition of the rooms and equipment are observed.

If upon reinspection of an article it is found to have become unfit for food from any cause, the original inspection mark or label thereon is removed or defaced and the article condemned.

THE INSPECTION MARKS, INSCRIPTIONS, ETC.

The mark of inspection is to identify the article and to show the condition of any particular carcass, meat, or product at the time the mark was applied. Under the Federal system, similar to that of the best European systems of meat inspection, three dispositions of a carcass are possible on the post-mortem inspection, depending on the conditions found. First, a carcass may be passed without restriction, meaning that when passed it was healthful, wholesome, and fit for



FIG. I.—MANUFACTURE OF SAUSAGE. All meats, spices, and casings used are inspected and the different steps of preparation supervised.

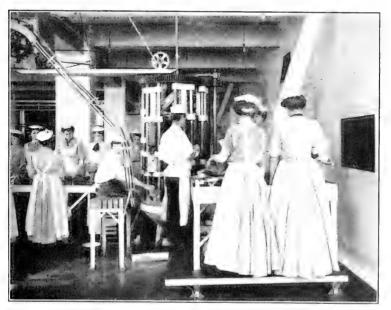


FIG. 2.—PRODUCTS INSPECTION. Canning room scene. Filling and weighing cans.

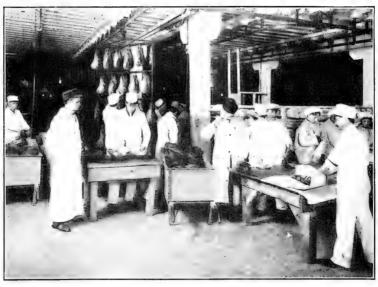


FIG. 1.—PRODUCTS INSPECTION. Inspection of smoked meats before they are wrapped and packed for shipment.



FIG. 2. INSPECTING SMOKED HAMS. The instrument in the inspector's hand is a steel "trier" used to test meats for soundness.

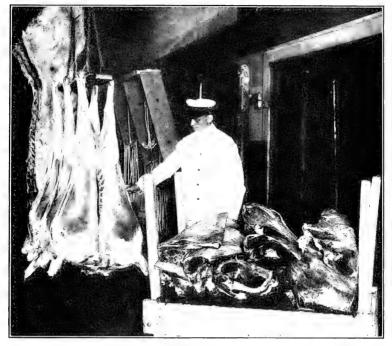


FIG. I .- PRODUCTS INSPECTION.

Inspection of fresh meats at ear door. At official establishments inspection extends from the live animal to the meats and products as they are shipped from the plant.

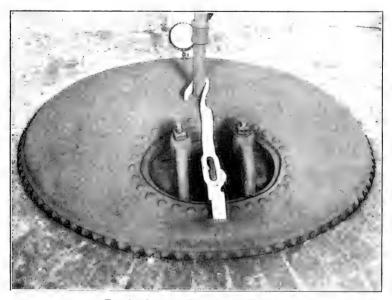


FIG. 2. SEALED RENDERING TANK.

The animals, meats, and products condemned under Federal inspection are rendered into grease and fertilizer. The Government seals on rendering tanks may be broken only in the presence of an inspector.

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human food. Such a carcass is marked "U. S. Inspected and Passed," or an authorized abbreviation thereof. The official number of the establishment always appears as a part of such mark and serves to identify the carcass or part as having been inspected and passed at the establishment of that number. Second, a carcass or a part thereof may be condemned, meaning that it is unsafe or unfit for human food; therefore it must be destroyed or denatured to prevent its sale or use as human food. Such a carcass or part is marked "U. S. Condemned." and remains in the custody of an inspector until properly disposed of. Third, a carcass or a part thereof may be marked "Passed for Sterilization," meaning that it was passed on condition that it be

rendered into lard or tallow, according to the species, or otherwise sterilized by methods approved by the Chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry. The explanation of this procedure is that the animal was affected with some condition



or disease in such a degree that it could not be passed unconditionally; nevertheless, all objectionable conditions and all doubt as to its safety and fitness for human food can be removed by subjecting it to a sterilizing process. This process is to meat somewhat as pasteurization is to milk. There is, however, on the side of sterilization the advantage of greater certainty in the attainment of its object because of the higher temperatures employed under this process.

The flesh of a carcass passed for sterilization, whether it be in the form of a cut, such as a ham, or a prepared product like canned meats, is marked "Prepared from Meat Passed for Sterilization." The container of such cut or product also bears this inscription.

Whenever it is possible to so apply it, the mark of inspection is stamped upon the carcass, cuts, and products themselves by means of a rubber or metal ink brand. In all cases the ink used is composed of approved ingredients. Occasionally burning brands are used for imprinting the mark on cured meats, such as hams, bacon, and similar articles. When 90

it is not possible to affix the mark to the article itself, the required inscription is placed on the container of the article; in fact, all containers of inspected and passed meats and meat food products bear the inspection legend in the form of a printed label. The legend for all labels is "U. S. Inspected and Passed under act of Congress, June 30, 1906," or "U. S. Inspected and Passed by Department of Agriculture," or authorized abbreviation. The last quoted is the preferred form, and after July 15, 1917, will be the only one approved for labels printed after that date. Other marks of inspection, chiefly marks of convenience in the conduct of the inspection, are used, but those which have been described are the only ones in which the consumer is likely to feel concerned.

Consumers owe it to themselves to look for the mark of an efficient inspection, whether Federal, State, or municipal, on the meats and meat food products they buy, or on the containers of the same, but in doing so they should consider that the mark can not insure perishable foods against deterioration or other unfavorable change after they have been shipped from an establishment and beyond the jurisdiction of the inspection.

HONEST LABELS REQUIRED.

The legend "Inspected and Passed" means that the meat or product was sound, wholesome, and fit for human food when it was so marked; also that the packed article was correctly labeled. The meat-inspection act provides that when the inspected and passed meat or product is packed in any can, pot, tin, canvas, or other receptacle or covering. the establishment shall cause a label to be affixed to such container under the supervision of an inspector, stating that the contents thereof have been inspected and passed; the act also provides that no such meat or product shall be sold or offered for sale under any false or deceptive name. The regulations based on this provision of the law define at length what may or may not appear upon any label which is to be used in connection with meats and products. However, they all center to one purpose, namely, that the statements on the labels shall conform to the facts and correctly indicate the contents of the package. Copies of all labels intended for use in official establishments must first be submitted to the Washington office of the bureau for examination and approval.

INSPECTION OF IMPORTED MEATS AND MEAT FOOD PRODUCTS.

The regulations governing the admission of meat and meat food products from foreign countries require that every importation shall be accompanied by a certificate signed by an official of the national government of the country of origin. stating that the animals from which the meat or meat food product was derived received an ante-mortem and a post-mortem veterinary inspection, and that at the time of slaughter the meat and products were sound, healthful, wholesome, and otherwise fit for human food. Further, that they had not been treated with and contain no ingredient prohibited by the regulations of the United States Department of Agriculture. Meat or meat food product not accompanied by the required certificate is refused entry, and that from a country which does not maintain a system of meat inspection satisfactory to the Secretary of Agriculture is also refused.

Every consignment of imported meat or product is checked with the foreign inspection certificate upon arrival and is subjected to a thorough physical examination, and in most cases samples thereof undergo a laboratory examination. The meat or product is then admitted, refused entry, or condemned, according to the findings and the requirements of the regulations governing the inspection and handling of such imported articles.

The imported meat or product which is found to comply with the regulations and has been admitted into the United States is marked "U. S. Inspected and Passed," or an authorized abbreviation of the same, and with a letter or letters to denote the port at which inspection was made. When imported meats and products have been inspected and admitted the law directs that they shall be deemed and treated as domestic meats and products within the meaning of and subject to the provisions of the meat-inspection act.

PORK NOT MICROSCOPICALLY INSPECTED FOR TRICHINA.

Under the Federal meat inspection pork is not microscopically inspected for trichina. There is no practicable method of microscopic inspection which is even approximately effective for the prevention of trichinosis in persons who eat uncooked pork. Careful investigations in one of the European countries in which a highly developed system is in force have shown that nearly a third of all the cases of trichinosis, several thousand in number, which occurred during a period of 18 years were caused by pork which had been microscopically inspected and passed by the inspectors of that country as free from trichinæ. Evidence of this kind and various other considerations have led authorities to the conclusion that pork, even though it has been microscopically inspected, is not a safe article of food unless it has been properly cooked or otherwise treated to destroy any trichinæ which may be present.

In countries in which there is an established and widely prevalent custom of eating uncooked pork, microscopic inspection is perhaps justified as a means of reducing somewhat the danger of trichinosis, though, on the other hand. it tends to encourage the unhygienic custom of eating uncooked pork by creating a false sense of security in the minds of the public. Under the conditions which exist in the United States, microscopic inspection, in view of its great expense and the imperfect results, does not appear warranted. On the contrary, it is reasonably certain that if a comparatively small part of the huge sum that would be required annually for microscopic inspection were judiciously employed in extending the education of the public on the subject of trichinosis it would do more toward the prevention of the disease in this country than any system of microscopic inspection which could possibly be established.

In the United States most persons are careful to cook pork before eating it, and there is only a small fraction of the population, of foreign origin or under the influence of foreign food customs, who follow the dangerous practice of eating uncooked pork in one or more of its various forms of preparation, such as special kinds of sausage, hams, loin rolls, etc. Considerable quantities of products of the kind just mentioned are prepared in official establishments, and for the protection of the consumers, who may be either ignorant or careless of the dangers of raw pork, the Federal Government, as an alternative to the uncertain method of

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microscopic examination, requires that official establishments subject all articles consisting wholly or in part of pork, if of a kind customarily eaten without cooking, to certain prescribed processes which have been found to destroy trichinæ. It is important to note that these measures employed with reference to safeguarding pork products apply only to those which are of kinds customarily eaten without cooking, and do not apply to pork products, such as ordinary cured hams, bacon, and other products, which are customarily cooked before they are eaten, nor to fresh uncooked pork.

In view of the foregoing, it may be stated that the practice of thoroughly cooking pork offers the best safeguard against trichinosis, and in general it is the only preventive method which can be absolutely depended upon by the consumer. Therefore, the certain way of avoiding trichinosis is to eat no pork unless it has been properly cooked. Whoever fails to observe this precaution runs the risk of acquiring sooner or later a most painful and distressing disease which frequently terminates in death. Everyone should remember this simple rule of food hygiene: Cook pork well.

MEAT-INSPECTION LABORATORIES.

The regulations specify what may be added to meats for curing or other purposes. The use of substances which impair wholesomeness is prohibited and only harmless artificial coloring matters may be used, and when used their presence must be declared on the product or the label. As a rule ordinary examination will not discover the presence of prohibited materials: therefore, to insure adequate examination for ingredients not permitted, also to determine soundness by chemical or other test. district laboratories fully equipped to make chemical and other technical examinations are maintained. Samples of meats and meat food products and of the materials used in their preparation are sent to these laboratories for examination. The samples are collected by the inspectors unannounced and at sufficiently frequent intervals to detect improper practices should any such be attempted.

In addition to the central and district chemical laboratories, the meat-inspection service has the cooperation and

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service of the several other scientific laboratories of the Bureau of Animal Industry. Frequently inspectors submit samples of diseased or abnormal tissues for diagnosis. Such samples are referred to the Pathological Division, in the laboratories of which they are tested and examined. The chief laboratory of this division is in the city of Washington, with branch laboratories in two other cities for the convenience of the more distant field stations. The numerous parasites and parasitic conditions with which meat inspection is concerned are studied by the Zoological Division, while questions relating to the biochemic changes that occur in animal tissues are referred to the laboratories of the Biochemic Division for attention.

THE NEED OF STATE AND MUNICIPAL INSPECTION TO SUPPLEMENT FEDERAL MEAT INSPECTION.

The Federal system of meat inspection has been extended to all parts of the field authorized for it by law. It is estimated that about 60 per cent of the cattle, sheep, swine, and goats slaughtered in the United States and all imported meats are inspected under this system. This leaves approximately 40 per cent of the domestic meat supply outside of Federal control. Much of the latter, it is known, receives no adequate inspection.

Federal meat-inspection statistics show that certain percentages of the different species of animals slaughtered are affected with some disease or condition in such degree as to require their condemnation in whole or in part. Some of the establishments at which Federal inspection is maintained have endeavored to avoid the loss incident to condemnation by exercising great care in the purchase of animals, accepting only such as appear to be sound and healthy. This has the effect of reducing the losses at such establishments, but it also tends to divert the sale of the animals of doubtful soundness to establishments that operate without inspection. With our knowledge of the frequency of disease in food animals, the question of what becomes of the meats and products derived from the diseased and unfit animals slaughtered in the uninspected houses assumes greater hygienic importance than is usually accorded it. Dr. Charles Wardell Stiles, after having studied a large number of town

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and country slaughterhouses, said: "A well-regulated system of slaughterhouses is as necessary to public health as is a well-regulated system of schools to public education."

Many of the slaughterhouses which operate under no system of inspection have features that are not only objectionable but dangerous to health. Their construction is such as to make them incapable of being kept sanitary. Their water supply and drainage systems are inadequate and but little systematic attempt is made to keep them clean, and some are inexpressibly foul and filthy. Usually there is no protection of the meat against rats, flies, and other insects and vermin, and this condition is a dangerous source of contamination and infection. To remedy these conditions it has been proposed that municipalities provide central abattoirs at which all the slaughterers of a community may conduct their operations under sanitary conditions and an efficient system of inspection maintained. This proposal has very much to commend it; in fact, central municipal abattoirs have been established and operated with complete success in many of the cities of continental Europe, and several have been established in the United States.

PERSONNEL OF THE INSPECTION FORCE.

The personnel of the meat-inspection service is divided into two general classes—professional and nonprofessional. The professional is composed of veterinary inspectors, laboratory inspectors, an architect, and a sanitary engineer. The nonprofessional consists of employees designated lay inspectors.

The veterinarians must be graduates of accredited veterinary colleges and pass the civil-service examination for the position of veterinary inspector in the service. At each meat-inspection station an inspector is selected to take charge of the work and who reports directly to the Chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry. At stations where slaughtering is conducted only veterinary inspectors are placed in charge. The veterinary inspectors perform or supervise the regular ante-mortem and post-mortem inspections and perform all of the final post-mortem examinations. The laboratory inspectors are chemists and also must pass an examination in accordance with the civil-service requirements. They make the laboratory tests and inspections.

The lay inspectors are designated lay inspector, grade 2. and lay inspector, grade 1: they also are required to pass the civil-service examination. The lay inspectors, grade 2, are experienced and well informed in regard to packing-house operations: they supervise the curing, preparation, and marking of meats and products. They are trained in passing on meats and products as to soundness, and conduct the inspection and reinspection of meats and products. The lay inspectors, grade 1, are required to have at least 3 years' experience in handling food-producing animals before taking the civil-service examination. Their duties are to assist the veterinary inspectors in the ante-mortem and post-mortem inspections, and to perform other duties similar to those described for the lav inspectors, grade 2. After a certain period of service they are eligible for examination for promotion to the position of lav inspector, grade 2. It is the duty of every employee, whether veterinary inspector or lay inspector of either grade, to see that the sanitary regulations are observed in their respective departments.

Certain veterinary inspectors, selected for their experience and general qualifications, are known as traveling veterinary inspectors. They inspect the official stations and establishments in their respective territories and report to the chief of the bureau whether the regulations and instructions governing meat inspection are properly observed. Their visits are unannounced and their reports are valuable in the effort to secure a uniform inspection and the enforcement of the sanitary regulations.

The personnel at present consists in round numbers of 800 veterinary inspectors; 1,000 lay inspectors, grade 2; 700 lay inspectors, grade 1; and laboratory inspectors, administrative officers, and clerical forces to bring the total to about 2,650 persons.

STATISTICAL.

The following very brief statistical summary is by no means an adequate statement of all the work performed under the Federal meat-inspection system. It will suffice, however, to convey to the reader an idea of the magnitude of the service.

The number of establishments at which inspection is regularly maintained varies somewhat: however, for several vears it has approximated 850, and includes practically every establishment of importance or large volume of operations in the United States. In the last five fiscal years preceding this writing the total of cattle. sheep, swine. and goats given both the ante-mortem and post-mortem inspections was in excess of an average of 58,500,000 per year. The average number of whole carcasses of such animals condemned during that period was more than 262.000 per year, while the number of parts of carcasses condemned per year was very much greater. The records of the inspection and reinspections of meats and products subsequent to the slaughter inspection show totals running into billions of pounds annually, while the amount condemned on reinspection on account of having become tainted, rancid, or otherwise unfit for human food has approximated 18,000,000 pounds per year.

For the fiscal year preceding this writing, the sum appropriated by Congress for meat inspection was \$3,375,000, within which sum the service was maintained. In other words, the cost was less than 6 cents for each of the 58,500,-000 animals slaughtered. This charge covered the entire service from the first inspection of the live animal to the final examination of the meats in the finished products, when ready for delivery to dealers or consumers. In this connection it seems but right to add that there has been no sacrifice of efficiency and completeness to attain this low cost; on the contrary, it is the constant aim of the department to strengthen the service in these respects.

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COLOR AS AN INDICATION OF THE PICKING MATURITY OF FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

By L. C. CORBETT,

Horticulturist in Charge of Horticultural and Pomological Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry.

F^{RUIT} color is a factor intimately associated with fruit maturity. The small boy uninstructed in the arts is not attracted to the cherry tree until the fruits are colored. and he soon learns from experience to choose the fruits that are sweetest by his sense of color values associated with the perception of taste. While this is a simple illustration of the value of the color test for fruit maturity, it nevertheless illustrates the fact that unconsciously a value is placed on the color in fruits in order to arrive at an estimate of their palatability. This being the case, may there not be physiological activities or results directly associated with the life of the fruit which can in a measure be estimated by the color values in the fruit? That such is the fact is quite evident from the results observed in the behavior of various fruits which have been subjected to careful control conditions in repeated experimental tests conducted by the investigators of the United States Department of Agriculture.

A concrete and striking example of the value of fruit color as an index to fruit picking maturity is afforded in the results of the picking and storage investigations conducted to determine the factors contributing to the successful storage of the apple. Early in the work upon this subject, undertaken by Taylor and Powell, it became evident that some physiological activity of the fruit itself was intimately concerned with the phenomenon termed "scald" in the stored fruit. As the work progressed it became more and more evident that scalding could not be wholly attributed to storage-house conditions or management. It was pos-

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sible with the perfection attained in refrigerating apparatus and in storage-house construction and insulation to maintain practically constant, uniform conditions in the houses. It was also possible to reproduce such conditions from year to year. Notwithstanding these facts, varying results as regards scald were obtained, not only from year to year, but in different lots of fruit in the same house. These results focused attention more clearly upon the fruit itself.

COMPARISON OF STAGES OF MATURITY.

Accordingly, a series of observations was conducted to ascertain the relation of early (immature), medium (mature), and late (overripe) picking to the behavior of the fruit in what had been determined to be the most nearly ideal storage temperature. As one of the important teachings of this investigation there appeared results such as are recorded in the color reproductions presented herewith. The immature fruit illustrated in Plate A, which is characteristic of early-picked fruits of the Rome Beauty apple in the Yakima Valley of Washington, is distinguished by more or less development of the red or overlay color, but the important point for consideration in connection with fruit at this stage of maturity is the composition of the ground color. A careful study of this specimen reveals the fact that much vivid leaf green is present in the skin of the apple. Fruit picked at this stage of development, when withdrawn after a storage period of six months at a constant temperature of 32° F., presented the appearance illustrated in Plate B. This shows an advanced stage of "scald," which when present to any appreciable extent decidedly affects the food value as well as the merchandising value of the fruit. It will be noted not only that the skin shows the characteristic browning of scald, but that the discoloration has extended far below the surface of the skin; in fact, the cells of the skin as well as many layers of cells in the flesh of the fruit have ceased to function, as is indicated by the browning of the walls.

The specimen shown in Plate C represents a fruit in which, before picking, there had been a slight increase in the development of the overlay color. The area covered was a little larger and the color more intense than in the apple shown in Plate A. The significant fact, however, is observed

ROME BEAUTY APPLES OF NORTHWESTERN PRODUCTION PICKED TOO EARLY FOR HOLDING SATISFACTORILY AT NORMAL STORAGE TEMPERATURE OF 32° F. FOR A SIX-MONTHS' STORAGE PERIOD.

H C STEADMAN, DEC

Fruits like the one in the upper figure, with a vivid leaf green area on the shaded side, are too immature for satisfactory storage, even though there is considerable color on the sunny side.

Cross section of a fruit at the same stage of maturity is shown in the lower illustration. The green color is apparent in the flesh,

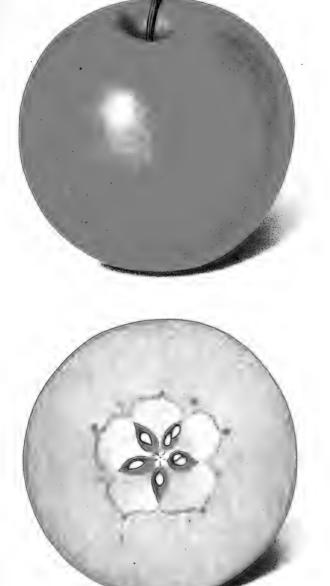


Results of Holding Rome Beauty Apples, at the Stage of Maturity Indicated in Plate A, at 32° F, for Six Months.

External browning characteristic of fruits picked before the leaf green in the skin had disappeared and held in storage six months is illustrated by the upper figure.

The cross section of the same fruit shows that several layers of cells immediately below the skin, as well as the cells of the skin itself, have ceased to function and have become discolored.





R.C STEADMAN, DEL.

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ROME BEAUTY APPLES OF NORTHWESTERN PRODUCTION PICKED IN MORE MATURE CONDITION THAN THOSE SHOWN IN PLATE A, BUT YET TOO GREEN FOR SATISFACTORY BEHAVIOR IN STORAGE.

The coloring and the amount of leaf green in the skin of the fruit at the time of placing it in storage is illustrated in the upper figure.

Cross section of the same fruit, showing that while the flesh carries less green a trace still remains.



A HOEN&CO

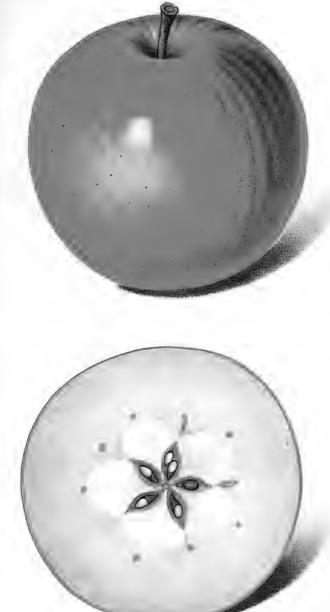
CONDITION PRESENTED BY FRUITS OF THE SAME STAGE OF MATURITY AS THOSE SHOWN IN PLATE C, AFTER BEING HELD SIX MONTHS IN STORAGE AT A TEMPERATURE OF 32° F.

The surface of the apple carrying the leaf green, as shown in the upper figure, Plate C, has assumed the characteristic baked apple appearance of scalded fruit. The cells of the discolored skin have ceased to function.

The cross section of the same fruit shows that the fruit was sufficiently mature at the time of storage so that the discoloration has not penetrated deeper than the pigment cells.

R C STEADMAN, DEL.





R.C. STEADMAN, DEL.

A HOEN&CO

ROME BEAUTY APPLES OF NORTHWESTERN PRODUCTION HARVESTED AFTER THE LEAF GREEN HAD DISAPPEARED AND THE TRUE YELLOW OF THE NORMAL GROUND COLOR FOR THE VARIETY WAS DISCERNIBLE.

Absence of leaf green, the presence of white, and light yellow in its place-true signs of picking maturity in this variety-are shown in the upper light.

Cross section of the same fruit from which the green tint in the skin as well as in the flesh has disappeared.



R C STEADMAN, DEL.

ROME BEAUTY APPLES OF THE SAME STAGE OF MATURITY AS THOSE SHOWN IN PLATE E, AFTER HAVING BEEN HELD SIX MONTHS IN COLD STORAGE AT A TEMPERATURE OF 32° F.

No loss of color or discoloration, but the deepening of the yellow in the ground color due to progress of the ripening process, is shown in the upper figure.

The cross section of the fruit, shows no discoloration, but rather an increase in the yellow tint in the flesh, characteristic of the maturing of the variety.



Color of Fruits and Vegetables.

in the ground color. There is less intensity in the green pigment, and the leaf green, while still observable, is less intense, having in a measure been replaced by white, a phenomenon familiar to every close observer of changes in the color values of fruits as they ripen. The chlorophyll, or leaf green, has grown less vivid and has certainly decreased in amount. This fruit, while still too immature for best storage behavior, responds to a six months' period in storage in the manner shown in Plate D. This apple, while showing a considerable amount of scald, is by no means as badly affected as the fruit shown in Plate B. While the amount of skin discoloration shown in Plate D is considerably less than that shown in Plate B, and while this discoloration has not been communicated to the underlying flesh of the apple, so that for practical purposes the apple is sound and fit for eating or for culinary uses, yet its merchandising value has been greatly impaired because of the discoloration. The brown baked-apple appearance characteristic of scalded fruit is taken as an indication that the fruit has passed the limit of its commercial storage life. Any considerable amount of scald, therefore, rapidly depreciates the market value of the fruit affected and is a phenomenon to be overcome or avoided as far as practicable.

The extent to which scald can be overcome or avoided through picking by color, even in some of the varieties known to be unusually susceptible, is brought out in Plates E and F. The apple illustrated in Plate E brings out clearly the color values which the grower and picker must learn to recognize in order to be able to determine the stage of maturity to which the fruit must attain before it may be placed in cold storage at the temperatures recognized as satisfactory for the storage of apples and come out in a sound, attractive condition and possessing a high merchandising value.

A critical study of the color values of the apple shown in Plate E reveals the fact that there is only a trace of true leaf or chlorophyll green remaining in that part of the skin of the fruit least highly colored. This will invariably be found to be the side most shaded by the foliage of the tree and is therefore the least mature portion of the fruit. It is here that the skin pigments are least stable and most likely to

be affected by the temperature. The leaf green, as has been noted, is small in amount, and its intensity is much less than in the fruits illustrated in Plates A and C. The ground color has been modified also, being, instead of greenish white, either white or yellowish white. Here we find the suggestion of the development of the true ground color of the fruit. The ground color or underlay in this variety is a shade of vellow, and as soon as there is a suggestion of the development of this characteristic color the fruit has reached a stage in its life when it can with safety be removed from the tree and placed under temperature conditions which slow down or inhibit the normal ripening processes to such an extent that instead of ripening to edible maturity in a period of a few weeks the ripening process is extended over a much greater period, which we term the normal storage period for the variety.

CONDITIONS DETERMINING THE STORAGE PERIOD.

The storage period of any variety of apple is long or short for that variety according to the degree of care exercised in picking it at the proper stage of maturity indicated by its growth and coloring and upon the treatment to which it is subsequently subjected. If it is harvested too green, even though the other factors contributing to successful handling and storage are carried out, the results shown in Plates B and D may be expected; but if, in addition to picking it too green, the fruit is allowed to stand in a warm packing room for several days previous to placing it in storage, the storage period will be shortened and the amount and seriousness of the scald augmented, provided the varieties to be stored behave normally in other respects in storage. The closer the condition of the fruit approaches that shown in Plate E the better it will carry in cold storage, assuming that it is carefully handled from the tree to the storage house, that it is not allowed to remain for more than a few hours at a high temperature after it is removed from the tree, and that whether placed in common or cold storage it is reduced to a temperature of 32° F. as soon as possible, the fewer hours the better, and then maintained without undue fluctuation at as nearly this temperature as is possible throughout the storage period.

Color of Fruits and Vegetables.

Although the grower may observe and guard against all of the physical conditions which are known to affect the life of fruit in storage, such as careful handling, quick transfer from tree to storage room, and the maintenance of a suitable storage temperature, if the fruit itself has not reached a proper stage of maturity (Pl. E) the observance of these precautions will avail little. The physiological behavior of the fruit, even if stored under an ideal environment, will be that shown in Plate B if it is exceedingly immature, that shown in Plate D if it is approaching a satisfactory stage of maturity, and that shown in Plate F if it has reached a condition of maturity suitable for storage. Color, then, is the important factor by which the grower can determine the condition of ripeness of fruit for the best behavior in cold storage.

The illustrations here presented represent only one variety, and the color values shown are characteristic only of this The general principle, however, holds for all variety. varieties of apples and pears thus far subjected to coldstorage tests. In order to apply the lesson taught by the different stages of ripeness in the Rome Beauty apple here illustrated, it will be necessary merely to observe closely the true color values shown by each sort in the process of ripening and then to attempt to harvest the fruits at the time when these signs are most developed. In order to do this, the grower and picker must carefully train his sense of color values and observe closely the changes which take place in the make-up of the general color scheme of each variety. The points to be borne in mind are the decrease of the amount and intensity of leaf green in the skin of the fruit and the replacing of the green by white and gradually by vellow, if yellow is the normal ground color of the fruit, as is the case with the Rome Beauty apple.

The development to a slight extent of the normal ground color is desirable, but this process should not be allowed to go too far before it is checked by picking and placing the fruit in storage. This caution should be heeded, for it is found that overripe fruits are quite as unsatisfactory for long keeping in storage as are those picked too green. The ability to judge the stage of ripeness so as not to pick the fruit underripe or to allow it to remain on the tree until overripe is the end desired. Careful attention to the color scheme of varieties is one essential, and another is to evaluate color changes in the developing fruit so as to pick each individual fruit at a time when it will keep longest and hold its color best. A careful study of the plates here presented will serve as a foundation, but the picker must carry with him to the orchard an accurate mental picture based on close observation for each of the varieties in his collection. The more perfect the mastery of the color problem for each variety the greater will be the success with the variety in storage, other things being equal.

THE COLOR FACTOR IN TOMATOES.

As a further contribution to information concerning the relation of color to picking maturity in plant products other than apples, it is desirable to mention the relation which the color at picking time bears to the color and general character of the canned product, as well as catsup made from tomatoes. Tomatoes, like apples, present a wide diversity of colors, but since red is the desired color in canned tomatoes, catsups, and pulp, only those varieties possessing red or scarlet pigments will be considered.

The tomato during the process of ripening passes from the leaf-green color which characterizes it during the early period of its development to a whitish green before the normal fruit color begins to develop. The green tints give way to the white, and this in turn is replaced in the desirable canning sorts by red, which gains in intensity as the process of ripening progresses, until at full maturity the pigmentation is complete and permanent. When this stage has been reached there is no further increase in the intensity of the color, and when tomatoes which have reached this stage of ripeness are subjected to the temperatures required for proper sterilization in the operation of processing the canned product there is no loss in color and the product possesses the deep red so desirable in high-grade goods. At this stage of maturity the pulp can be concentrated by boiling to the consistency required for catsup without loss of color. If, on the other hand, the tomatoes are gathered before pigmentation is complete and are subjected to the processing required

for canning or catsup making, the resulting product will not be of a deep red color, but will vary from a reddish straw color to light red, according to the degree of pigmentation attained by the fruits when harvested.

Before the passage of the food and drugs act, which requires that no food may be colored in a manner whereby inferiority is concealed, the question of the stage of maturity at which fruits or vegetables were picked or processed gave manufacturers little concern, for lack of coloring could be made up by sweating or by the use of dyes.

Now that such practices are discouraged by the regulations of the act, and the trade still requires high-colored and, fortunately, high-flavored products as well, the stage of maturity and the degree of pigmentation play an important part. Fortunately for the industry, nature has provided a method by which the demands of the trade can be met in a legitimate way; that way is via the ripe-fruit route.

Ripened tomatoes of desirable color will, when properly handled, produce a high-colored canned product or a highcolored catsup. Half-ripened red tomatoes will not produce a canned product or a catsup of a bright red color. The pigment in such fruits is not stable and fades slightly when the pulp is subjected to the temperatures required for sterilization or concentration. In the case of the tomato the heat of processing reduces the pigment and leaves a product varying from straw color through the shades of red, depending upon the stage of color development attained by the fruit when picked.

DISADVANTAGES OF HARVESTING IMMATURE PRODUCTS.

Immature apples when placed in storage develop various degrees of scald, depending upon the pigmentation or color development attained by the fruit up to the time of storage. As the apple matures it loses the leaf green which characterizes the young, immature fruit; this is replaced by white, and this in turn by the ground color and the normal pigmentation of the variety. Under common-storage or coldstorage conditions, immature fruits in which the chlorophyll, or leaf green, has not disappeared do not retain this color in storage, but assume the baked-apple appearance charac-

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teristic of scalded fruit, the intensity or severity of the scalding depending upon the stage of maturity attained by the fruit, as illustrated in Plates A, C, and E.

The practical result from placing immature apples in storage is loss of color and that from processing immature tomatoes is loss in color. In both cases deterioration is due to unstable pigments in the product. The apples lose color when fruits with imperfect pigmentation are subjected to storage temperatures, whether or not the conditions to which they are subjected are low enough to check normal ripening processes. It would appear, on the other hand, that ripe fruits have developed stable pigments which are not affected in the apple by cold-storage temperatures nor in the tomato by the heat required for sterilization or concentration.

The practical lessons are: (1) Loss from scald will be lessened by harvesting apples after the leaf green has disappeared and the normal ground color for the variety has begun to develop; (2) high-colored and high-quality canned tomatoes and high-colored and high-quality catsup can be made only from ripe tomatoes of varieties possessing a red pigment. The time for picking fruit for special purposes must be determined by the behavior of the fruit. Put the fruit to the test; it will give the answer.

FARMS, FORESTS, AND EROSION.

By SAMUEL T. DANA,

Assistant Chief of Forest Investigations, Forest Service.

INTRODUCTION.

(FARMS, forests, and erosion" may sound like a queer combination, but as a matter of fact the three are closely connected. Erosion is one of the most serious dangers that threaten our farms, and forests are one of the most effective means of preventing erosion. How true this is would be most startlingly demonstrated if all the forests of the country were to be wiped out overnight. Imagine how the water would pour off the mountains, cutting to pieces and washing away the land and destroying other property in its path.

The forest is, in fact, one of the best friends of the farmer in protecting his land from erosion and consequent damage. Just what this means, not only to the farmer, but to the Nation as a whole, becomes clearer when we remember that over half of the population of the country is rural; that there are more than 6,300,000 farms; that there are nearly 897,000,000 acres of farm land with a value of approximately \$28,500,000,000; and that the annual production of farm crops is valued at some \$5,500,000,000. Anything that exercises an important influence on interests of this magnitude is unquestionably deserving of the most careful consideration.

WHAT BECOMES OF THE RAINFALL.

IN THE FOREST.

When the Pilgrim fathers landed at Plymouth Rock in 1620 they found the new continent clothed with an almost unbroken expanse of virgin forest. Cool springs were abundant, streams ran clear, and excessive erosion had not left its mark upon the land. The geologic processes of land sculpture which have been going on since time immemorial were of course at work carving out the hills and valleys. Every year the soil on the steeper slopes was creeping a little farther on its way to the sea; every year there was some change, however imperceptible, in the appearance of mother earth. At the same time another process was going on. Rocks were being decomposed and transformed into soil. This second process, though it, too, was slow, was in most places proceeding faster than the other. Soils were being formed more rapidly than they were removed, and the basis for the future farms of the country was gradually being built up. Such soil as was washed away consisted of the lighter particles, much of which, being deposited farther down in the more level portions of the streams, helped to build up the fertile alluvial plains. The entire action of nature was beneficial, rather than destructive.

Everyone who has been in a dense forest during a heavy storm knows how thoroughly it protects the soil and stores the water. The force of the rain is broken by the trees, the underbrush, and the litter on the ground, so that it does not beat upon the soil. Much of the precipitation reaches the earth by running down the twigs and branches. In a light shower nearly all of the rain may be intercepted by the leaves of the trees, so that one can stand in the forest without getting wet. Even in a heavy rain the water drips down so quietly as to have practically no beating effect upon the soil. There is no perceptible surface run-off until great quantities of rain have fallen. Instead, the water is soaked up by the organic matter, or humus, in the upper layers of the soil. This is really an enormous vegetable sponge capable of holding several times its own weight of water. As the rain falls it is absorbed by this sponge, then passed on to the reservoir of mineral soil beneath, and finally fed out gradually to the springs and streams. Then, too, surface run-off is checked by the mechanical obstruction offered by stumps, fallen twigs, branches, and even whole trees; and percolation of the water into the soil is made easier by the network of small roots and the channels left by the decay of large roots. Even when the rain is so heavy that the soil is unable to absorb all of the water at once, the excess flows off with no erosion. Streams coming from virgin forests are seldom muddy and are subject to comparatively small variations in flow.

IN THE OPEN.

The effect of heavy rains on the exposed soil of cleared fields is very different. There the rain beats upon the bare

ground like millions of little hammers. The soil is compacted, its absorbing capacity is reduced, and first the finer and then the coarser, infertile particles are washed away. The water quickly gathers into little rivulets, then into streams, and finally into roaring torrents, all carrying with them ever-increasing quantities of soil and often stones and bowlders. Myriads of tiny channels appear as if by magic. These run together into small gullies, and the small gullies grow into large ones. The whole area is cut up by erosion and the eroded materials carried away to cause trouble at lower elevations.

It has sometimes been argued that because the erosion which takes place under natural conditions is beneficial, that which takes place after clearing is equally or even more so. This by no means follows, however. When erosion becomes excessive, not only is the soil at the upper elevations washed away more rapidly than it is formed, but the amount of sediment is so enormous that the streams can not handle it. The coarser, infertile materials, the proportion of which is greatly increased, are deposited on valuable farm lands along the middle courses of the streams, while the finer materials are carried farther down, where they help to fill up the navigable portions of the rivers.

When the early colonists cleared the first land for agriculture they paved the way for the excessive erosion which has since taken place. It was of course inevitable that over a large portion of the country forests should give way to farms. It was not inevitable, however, that this change should be accompanied by such disastrous consequences to the soil. Many causes have been responsible for the damage that has been wrought, but underlying them all is the prodigality and indifference to the future which is characteristic of people richly endowed with natural resources.

CAUSES OF EROSION.

CLEARING OF NONAGRICULTURAL LAND.

Injudicious clearing for cultivation of land on which a forest cover should always have been maintained has been one of the main causes of unnecessary erosion. Thousands of acres on slopes too steep for successful farming have been ruined in this way. Such land has been cheap and the settler frequently has been only too ready to cultivate it for a few years until it was worn out and then complacently move on to repeat the process elsewhere. Improper methods of agriculture have often hastened the devastation. Unfortunately, this has not been confined to the area itself. Once started, erosion has progressed in both directions, washing out and burying fertile lands below and eating back into forested lands above.

Complete clearing of lands that should have been only partially cleared has had the same result. Not infrequently it happens that part of an area can safely be cleared for farming if the rest of the area is left in forest. Failure to recognize this fact and to retain the forest where its protective influence is needed has been the direct cause of much unnecessary wasting of the soil.

FIRE.

Among the many evils chargeable to forest fires, their effect on the character of the run-off is by no means the least. Their tendency is in the same direction as clearing—to decrease the amount of water absorbed and consequently to increase surface run-off and soil washing.

From the standpoint of erosion every fire on hilly land is a menace—the steeper the slope the more serious the menace. Conflagrations which completely destroy the cover are, of course, most dangerous. Even light surface fires, however, are not to be disregarded. By destroying the humus and the carpet of weeds and other plants, these tend to harden the soil and to reduce materially its absorptive capacity. Repeated fires on the same area are particularly dangerous, since they gradually open up the stand, remove all trace of vegetable matter, and may cause the soil to harden and pack so as to be almost impervious. One or two specific examples may help to make clear the damage that may be done by even a single fire.

On the north side of the Soleduck Valley, in western Washington, some 12,000 acres were severely burned in 1907. All vegetable growth was destroyed and all soil cover removed. Very little vegetation started in the first four years following the fire, and during these years the slopes were subjected to considerable erosion. Soil and fragments of stone were carried in great quantities to the many gulches and water courses. In November, 1910, a combination of heavy snow, followed by a chinook wind and a warm rain, caused an enormous run-off of water, carrying with it great quantities of soil and rock. This shifting mass was so great that most of the creek channels, where they struck the flat, became choked with it and built up fan-shaped deltas, in some cases several acres being covered with débris from 1 to 6 feet deep. Even now erosion on these areas is considerable, although not nearly so great as during the first few years after the fire.

In the brush-covered foothills of southern California, near the town of Piru, is a small watershed of perhaps 1 square mile known as "Nigger Canyon." In October, 1912, approximately 100 acres of this were burned over and the cover completely destroyed. The following January a series of heavy rains caused unprecedented erosion on the area. Rocks from 2 to 24 feet in diameter, so large that they could hardly be moved by a team, were brought down by the flood. A section of 1-inch iron pipe between 400 and 500 feet long was entirely washed out. Ten acres of orange orchard near the mouth of the canyon were covered with a deposit of gravel from 6 inches to 5 feet in depth, so that in many places the lower branches of the trees rested directly on the ground. Though the orchard was not destroyed it was so injured that it will be necessary to reset the buried area. Farther downstream, where the deposit was not so deep, the individual trees have been raised at considerable expense by means of a derrick. Near the first orchard the bed of the creek was so filled with débris that the orchard was in constant danger of being overflowed at high water, and it was necessary to construct a dike in order to confine the water to the main channel. Four acres of bottom land which had been cleared the year previous to the fire for planting to lemons were so covered with gravel and bowlders as to be completely ruined. Local residents state that while the precipitation that winter was heavy, they do not believe it was worse than in many other years. One owner expresses the opinion that there has been more damage from erosion in the 3 years since the fire than in the 22 years before.

DESTRUCTIVE LUMBERING.

All cutting, of course, changes to some extent the character and amount of the soil cover and therefore disturbs more or less the natural balance between rainfall and runoff. If the cutting is properly regulated, however, this effect may be so slight as to be practically negligible. It is nearly always possible to leave sufficient cover on the ground to prevent any ill effects from the opening up of the stand, and if fire is kept out this is soon supplemented by other vegetation which effectively protects the soil from erosion.

Unfortunately, past cuttings have not in all cases been properly regulated. Considerable unnecessary erosion may be laid to destructive lumbering carried on without regard to the future welfare of the forest itself or of the interests dependent on its protective cover. Clear cutting has been practiced on steep slopes where at least a part of the stand should have been left. Roads have been so located as to be subject to serious erosion. Deeply gouged skid trails, formed by dragging many logs down the same rut, have been left unprotected to wash out after every heavy rain. Worst of all, fires have been allowed to burn uncontrolled on the cutover areas. The dry mass of twigs, branches, and other inflammable material left after all lumbering operations adds to the fury of the flames and enables them to expose the bare soil to the mercy of the other elements.

One of the papers in the Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture for 1913 ("Economic Waste from Soil Erosion," by R. O. E. Davis) cites a specific example of the results of destructive lumbering. The owner was proceeding to remove all the timber possible from his tract with entire indifference as to the effect upon the soil of such a procedure. In one field where the entire forest cover had already been removed, great gullies had appeared and ruined the field for farming. One of the gullies extended for over half a mile to a creek bottom which had once been a fertile field, but was now covered in most places from 1 to 3 feet deep with sand which had been washed down from the cut-over area. When the lumberman was asked regarding his treatment of the land he replied that all he expected to get from it was the lumber; that he did not suppose he could sell it, because he "didn't think it worth anything as farm land, it washed



FIG. 1.—THE RESULT OF CLEAR CUTTING AND FIRES. This land is in the mountains, at too high an elevation for agriculture (over 10,000 feet), and should have been retained in forest.

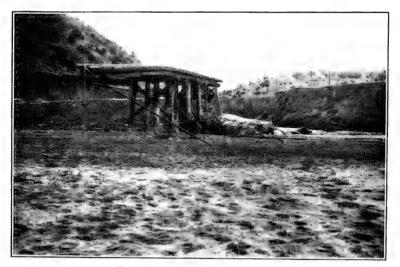


FIG. 2.-ONCE A TROUT STREAM.

This stream formerly had a small but steady flow throughout the year and was named Trout Creek from the fish which made it their home. Cutting, overgrazing, and fires in the mountains at its headwaters have brought about steadily increasing washouts. So serious has been the damage to the railroad which originally ran along the bank that more than a million dollars would now be required to replace the track. Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE XIII.



FIG. L-HOW FARM LAND IS DESTROYED.

By being buried under a heavy deposit of sand and gravel brought down by a single flood from the out-over and burned-over mountain watershed above, 11 acres out of the 45 acres of irrigated land on this farm were practically ruined. The irrigation works were also so damaged that no irrigation was possible the year following the flood.



FIG. 2.- A WASHED-OUT ROAD.

The washout occurred the next year after a severe fire in the mountains shown in the background. The gate, no longer used, shows where the road formerly ran—5 feet higher than its present location.

PLATE XIV



FIG. I.-FARMING NO LONGER POSSIBLE.

Land which formerly sold for \$600 an acre has been rendered worthless by the deposit of sand, gravel, and howlders brought down the year after a severe fire in the mountains shown in the background. Previous to the fire the stream bed had been an inconspicuous wash carrying only a small amount of water even in the rainy season.



FIG. 2.-A RESULT OF CARELESS FARMING. The damage might have been prevented by proper terracing and cultivation. Even now reclamation of such land is both possible and profitable.

PLATE XV.

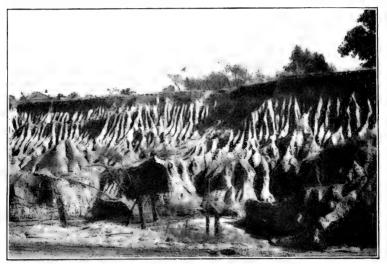


FIG. 1.—FERTILE LAND RUINED BY EROSION. If the soil-washing is not checked there is danger that the buildings in the background will eventually be undermined.



FIG. 2.—EROSION GAINING HEADWAY ON A STEEP SLOPE. An effort is being made to check it by filling the gullies with brush. Tree planting would also help.

PLATE XVI.



FIG. I.-A RESERVOIR ENDANGERED.

Where vegetation is sparse erosion once started is very difficult to check. It is particularly serious in this case because the eroded area drains directly into a proposed reservoir site.



FIG. 2 .- OVERGRAZING ANOTHER CAUSE OF SOIL WASHING.

The protective vegetation has been partly removed as a result of too heavy grazing by sheep. If grazing is not checked, the entire hillside may be destroyed.



FIG. 1.—THE KIND OF LAND FOR A WOODLOT. Timber growing pays better than farming on lands of this character.



FIG. 2. A PROTECTED RIVER BANK.

During the Kansas River flood of 1903 the fringe of willows and cottonwoods protected this river bank from erosion, and the land back of it from burial under a mass of sand, gravel, and other infertile material.

so bad." His method of handling it was indeed ruining it for either farm or forest, and in addition was contributing to the ruin of fertile land below.

OVERGRAZING.

Although less spectacular than fire, overgrazing may beequally serious in its effect on erosion. It is particularly dangerous in those areas where precipitation is light and where the vegetation even when ungrazed has a hard time holding its own. The woodland areas in the Southwest are typical examples. Here the natural balance between precipitation and run-off is so finely adjusted that very little disturbance of the soil cover is required to upset it. Moreover, adverse climatic conditions make it very difficult for vegetation to reestablish itself in such regions. Erosion once started, therefore, is likely to be permanent.

The evil results of overgrazing are well illustrated in central and southern Utah. Forest Service Bulletin 91¹ estimates that in the country surrounding the Manti National Forest, overgrazing, which occurred before this area was included in the National Forests, has been responsible through erosion and floods for a loss of \$225,000. Among the items of damage included are destruction of roads, bridges, streets, and buildings; heavy depreciation of realestate values; ruin of crops; permanent injury to agricultural lands; filling up and destruction of reservoirs, canals, and ditches; and even death.

Farther south, overgrazing on a single watershed has been responsible for an annual loss of about \$3,000 to the town and farming community of Salina. Furthermore, the sand and sediment carried by Salina Creek has filled up the main channel of the Sevier River between Salina and Redmond to such an extent that the river has submerged some 1.000 acres of valuable farming land worth about \$100,000, and has damaged other lands to the extent of about \$50,000.

OTHER FACTORS.

In addition to the forest and other soil covers, the chief factors having an influence on erosion are the amount and character of the precipitation, the degree of slope, the geo-

¹" Grazing and Floods: A Study of Conditions in the Manti National Forest, Utah," by R. V. R. Reynolds.

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logical formation, and the depth and composition of the soil. In general, anything that increases surface run-off increases erosion. Severe storms, steep slopes, and soils with relatively low water-absorbing capacity are, therefore, all dangerous because they tend to make it impossible for the soil to absorb the water as fast as it is supplied. This is the case with the torrential downpours of rain that occasionally occur in various parts of the country, and especially in the West. These are often known locally as "cloud-bursts," or, more expressively, as "gully-washers," particularly if damage results from them.

In July, 1915, for example, a cloud-burst in northern Washington did considerable damage in the rolling farming and grazing district known as "Happy Hill." Deep gullies were cut in the side hill at intervals of from 20 to 30 feet. crops were destroyed, live stock drowned, and several acres of fertile bottom land ruined by being buried under rocks and other débris. Altogether, the storm, which covered an area of only 2 or 3 square miles, was responsible for a damage of some \$2,000. It should be noted, however, that one of the reasons why the unusually heavy precipitation was able to do so much damage in this case, as in many others, was the fact that the soil cover had already been broken by cultivation and overgrazing. It is a significant fact that "cloud-bursts" occur most frequently where the ground cover has been disturbed by fire or grazing, or in some other way. Equally severe downpours elsewhere are apt to excite little attention and to pass merely as heavy storms.

Under natural conditions the various forces are so adjusted that the damage from excessive erosion in most parts of the country is comparatively small. Some damage is, of course, inevitable, but such scars as are made are usually soon healed over by the growth of vegetation. As a rule it is only when the natural protective cover of forests, brush, grass, and other plants is disturbed that serious and longcontinued erosion results.

KINDS OF EROSION.

SHEET EROSION.

Sheet erosion is marked by a more or less uniform washing away of the soil over the entire surface. It usually occurs on hillsides of only moderate slope and on the more cohesive

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soils. Every rain washes away some of the finer particles, but the progress of erosion is usually slow and the results not particularly conspicuous.

GULLY EROSION.

Gully erosion is much more noticeable than sheet erosion and usually progresses much more rapidly. In its early stages it is often characterized by the formation of numerous small, more or less parallel gullies, sometimes known as shoe-string gullies. Not infrequently gullies of this type are found on areas that have already suffered from sheet erosion. As they increase in size they vary in shape according to the character of the soil, from sharp-bottomed, V-shaped cuts with steep sides to broader depressions with more gently sloping, rounded sides.

Another type of gully has vertical, cliff-like sides which keep caving in as the water undermines them. Once started, it usually grows rapidly in length, breadth, and depth with every storm, until it has developed from a mere gash into a yawning chasm. It is the most striking form of gully erosion, the most rapidly progressive in its development, and the most difficult to check.

LANDSLIDES.

A landslide consists in the slipping down in a solid body of a considerable mass of the surface soil. Landslides usually occur where the soil rests on a smooth-faced, slippery substratum, or where the soil is of a "slick," micaceous character. They are caused by the soil becoming thoroughly saturated with water and then slipping off in a body from the underlying subsoil or rock. Railroad and highway cuts and the undermining of river banks often help to start them. Forest fires, by destroying the roots which pin the surface soil to the subsoil, are also a contributing cause. In November, 1910, for example, seven distinct slides took place on burned-over areas on the Rainier National Forest in western Washington. Some of these areas had been burned over only once, others repeatedly. The slides followed a series of warm, heavy rains which so saturated the soil that the decaved roots of the fire-killed trees and the short roots of the young, new growth were unable to hold it in place.

RIVER-BOTTOM EROSION.

Along river bottoms erosion is of still a different type. Here good valley land may be destroyed either by the wearing away of the river banks along the main channel or by the gouging out of new channels. Sometimes hundreds of acres of excellent agricultural land are so scoured out and stripped of their soil by a single flood as to be rendered valueless. The famous Kansas River flood of 1903. for example, completely destroyed 10,000 acres of excellent farming land and caused a total loss of at least \$22,000,000. Such damage is indirectly due in large part to erosion farther up the stream and its tributaries. The eroded material brought down by the rivers is deposited in their lower portions, fills up the channels, and creates obstructions which cause the water to overflow in time of flood. Furthermore, the material brought down by the flood serves as a scouring agent which most effectively reinforces the work of the water. Prevention of erosion at the higher elevations is, therefore, an important step in checking erosion along river bottoms.

CUMULATIVE CHARACTER OF EROSION.

One of the worst features of erosion is its tendency to progress with ever-increasing rapidity. Once given a good start it will grow of itself. Where sheet erosion is taking place every bit of the surface soil washed away decreases by so much the water-absorbing capacity of that which remains, and hastens its removal down to the subsoil and often to the bare rock. Where gullies have been formed the runoff is concentrated in these and frequently scours them out with almost inconceivable force. Often, indeed, the undermining and caving in of the banks proceeds so rapidly during a heavy storm that it is dangerous to be too close an observer.

Moreover, the eroded material greatly increases the scouring power of the running water. The sediment of sand, gravel, and bowlders carried down the gullies and stream courses exercises a powerful influence in carving out their banks and tearing away formations which would not be affected by the water alone. This is especially true on steep slopes, since the transporting power of water varies as the sixth power of its velocity. In other words, when a current of 2 miles an hour can move only fragments of stone the size

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of a hen's egg, a torrent of 20 miles an hour can carry bowlders weighing nearly 100 tons. The tremendous scouring power which such a burden as this adds to the water and its effect in hastening the progress of erosion are obvious.

EFFECTS OF EROSION.

RUIN OF LAND.

Undoubtedly the most serious and far-reaching effect of erosion is the ruin of the land itself. Soil is, indeed, the most valuable natural resource possessed by any nation. It is the primary source from which we derive our food, our clothing, and our shelter—the basis, in fact, of civilization. Looked at from this standpoint it is as indispensable to existence as are air and water. Certainly its conservation is one of the most important steps for the welfare of the country.

Already some 4,000,000 acres of farm land have been ruined by erosion, and nearly twice as much more has been seriously damaged. In other words, erosion has rendered completely nonproductive an area capable of forming nearly 100,000 farms and of sustaining a population approximately equal to that of Arizona and New Mexico combined. Every year there is an unnecessary waste from erosion of more than 400,000,000 tons of soil material, an amount greater than that removed in digging the Panama Canal. Much of this comes from good farming land and all of it reduces by just so much the productive capacity of the country. In addition, thousands of acres of bottom land are ruined each year by being buried under infertile eroded materials brought down from the higher elevations.

Even a nation as rich in soil resources as the United States can not afford a loss of this magnitude. The day of reckoning will surely come when we shall pay the price for such prodigality. Continued waste of the soil can result only in failure to attain that development in production and population which our original endowment promised. So serious indeed is the situation that Dr. N. S. Shaler, formerly dean of the Lawrence Scientific School, was once moved to remark that if mankind can not devise and enforce ways of dealing with the earth which will preserve this source of life, "we must look forward to the time—remote it may be, yet clearly discernible—when our kind, having wasted its greatest inheritance, will fade from the earth because of the ruin it has accomplished."

LOSS OF FERTILITY.

Actual waste of the land is, however, by no means the only evil wrought by soil erosion. Loss of fertility must also be charged to its account. The finest particles of soil are naturally the first to be washed away, and the removal of these seriously impairs the physical and chemical quality of the soil. In the Piedmont section of North Carolina, for example, the plant food and humus contained in the 4,000,000 tons of soil washed away every year are valued at \$2,000,000. A single week of heavy rain in August, 1908, is estimated to have impoverished the soils to the extent of more than \$500,000. Figures are not available for the country as a whole; the loss certainly mounts high into the millions.

One of the most serious features of this loss is the fact that it is seldom fully appreciated, particularly when it is not accompanied by pronounced gullying. It is not at all an uncommon occurrence on certain soils for the top layers to be washed away so gradually and uniformly that the change is hardly perceptible. In such cases the farmer frequently does not realize that erosion is taking place. He attributes the decreasing fertility of the soil to the fact that it is getting "worn out," and eventually abandons the land without once suspecting that he himself is in any way responsible.

LOWERING OF THE WATER LEVEL.

Another important effect of erosion, too often overlooked, is its effect in lowering the level of the ground water. As gullies are deepened and stream channels lowered there is a constant tendency for the water in the upper layers of the soil to sink to the same level. Not infrequently this lowering of the ground water is sufficient to have an unfavorable influence on crop production, to make the use of the water for irrigation impracticable, and even to change the natural type of vegetation. A specific illustration of this which occurred in eastern Oregon may be cited.

A mountain meadow of some 200 acres was formerly well covered with an excellent growth of grass. The small stream which ran into it had no pronounced channel, but spread out so as to irrigate the entire area. Then came grazing, and then more grazing, until finally the sod began to be cut up and well-worn trails to be formed. Every spring, water would run down these trails until there was one deeper than the rest. This took the bulk of the flow and became the main drainage channel for the meadow. The channel was too small to accommodate all of the water, however, and the exposed soil soon began to erode. The banks at the lower end of the channel are now constantly caving in and being washed away, while at the same time the gully is growing deeper and deeper and working its way back toward the head of the meadow. As this development has taken place a striking change has occurred in the character of the vegetation. In the lower part of the area, where the lowering of the water level is most pronounced, the grass has entirely disappeared, and the land is now covered only with sagebrush and is worthless for grazing. Near the head of the meadow the grass still maintains its hold; but here also, unless the erosion is checked, the existing vegetation will be replaced in time by sagebrush and the value of the meadow entirely destroyed.

In addition to the loss of water through the deepening of drainage channels, the increased surface run-off which has accompanied erosion is a further cause of the lowering of the water level. This depletion of the water supply is of much more than local importance. In Bulletin 71 of the Bureau of Soils, for example, it is estimated that throughout an area of some 500,000 square miles in the eastern United States the natural level of the water in the ground has been lowered from 5 to 30 feet since the country was settled—the equivalent of 15 years' rainfall over the area depleted. Obviously such a drain on the water resources of the country, for the most part needless, can not be continued indefinitely.

DAMAGE TO TRRIGATION.

Erosion is also one of the most serious dangers that threaten irrigation. This is true for several reasons. The farmer on irrigated land is above all else dependent on a sufficient supply of stored water, which may come from either natural or artificial reservoirs or from both. Under normal conditions this storage is brought about primarily by the mantle of soil which clothes the mountains, protects the headwaters of the streams, and acts as a great natural reservoir. The effectiveness of this natural reservoir is decreased just in proportion as the soil is removed or its absorptive capacity diminished. Both of these effects are produced by erosion. The result is a greatly increased surface run-off after heavy rains, corresponding low-water stages during dry periods, and a marked decrease in the amount of water available for irrigation. Everyone who has seen how the water pours off a bare mountain side or a thoroughly compacted soil after a storm realizes how little of it nature is able to store for future use.

Furthermore, erosion has a secondary harmful effect in the filling up of artificial reservoirs with the soil brought down by the stream. Any increase in the amount of this sediment, therefore, means a corresponding decrease in the capacity of the reservoirs. In many cases dam sites at which storage reservoirs can be constructed at a reasonable cost are limited, and when this is true the silting up of the reservoirs means the eventual abandonment of the irrigated lands dependent upon them for water.

Water heavily laden with eroded material also decreases the efficiency and increases the cost of maintenance of other irrigation works, such as diversion dams, pipe lines, flumes, and canals. Sometimes it injures the crops to which it is applied, and not infrequently it seriously impairs or even completely ruins the land by burying it under a mass of sand, gravel, bowlders, and other coarse material.

An example of the damage that may be done to irrigated lands by erosion following even a small fire is afforded by a ranch in Cajon Canyon in southern California. Approximately 100 acres of comparatively low, brush-covered hills just above this ranch were burned over in the fall of 1914. The next spring all of the irrigating ditches lying immediately below the burned area were filled with sand and gravel, although no such trouble had been experienced previously. In some places the deposit of gravel was from 7 to 8 feet deep. In others, repeated filling up made it necessary to dig out the ditch three different times. Altogether some \$800 was spent just for labor to repair the flumes which were burned out and to dig out the ditches. More serious than this, however, was the damage to the alfalfa crop. In the fall of 1914 one cutting of alfalfa on about 35 acres was lost, as a result of which it proved necessary to buy approximately \$600 worth of stock feed during the winter. Worse still, the 1915 crop of alfalfa on 50 acres which had been seeded early in the spring was completely lost because the ditches could not be repaired soon enough to get water on the area in time to save the crop—a direct loss of perhaps \$2,500.

In the spring of 1914 a little settlement on irrigated land in the foothills near Los Angeles suffered similar and heavier damage. The fall before, some 700 acres of the brush-covered watershed from which the settlement derives its water supply was completely burned over. Previous to the fire the stream draining this canyon had been hardly more than a serious wash, carrying so little water, even in the rainy season, that no one had thought of the possibility of its doing any damage. The next spring, however, a tremendous flood brought down hundreds of tons of eroded material. The inconspicuous wash widened until it carved out a stream-bed in places half a mile wide, in some spots gullied several feet deep, in others buried under from 8 to 10 feet of sand, gravel, and bowlders. Roads were washed out, irrigated orchards cut to pieces, and some land totally ruined. So serious was the damage that the county has spent several thousand dollars in correcting the stream channel and in constructing check dams in the canvon for the prevention of future floods. The total loss may be conservatively estimated at over \$60,000-rather a heavy price to pay for a small fire.

LOSS OF WATER POWER.

In its relation to water power, erosion is of the utmost importance, because it interferes with the steady flow which is so essential to successful development. As in the case of irrigation, the capacity of the natural reservoir is depleted and artificial reservoirs are filled up. Many striking examples of this are afforded in the Southern Appalachians. In one reservoir which had a depth of 28 feet when the dam was first closed, an island had appeared in 2 years. Another pond about 4 miles long and 40 feet deep at the lower end had its upper part entirely filled in 4 years and near the dam was about three-fourths full. So serious is this effect that in this region the attempt to use more than the unregulated flow of the streams for water-power development has been practically abandoned.¹

Still another result of erosion in this connection is the increase in the number and severity of floods. In a single year the damage from floods to storage reservoirs, power plants, and other property in the Southern Appalachians amounted to \$18,000,000.¹

INTERFERENCE WITH NAVIGATION.

Erosion, because of its interference with navigation, has been one of the factors responsible for our failure to develop properly the inland waterways of the country. Increased rapidity of run-off results in decreased low-water flow. At the same time the sediment brought down by streams is deposited in their lower reaches. The action of both factors tends in the same direction—to decrease the depth and hence to impair the navigability of the stream. Many rivers formerly navigable have become so filled as to render them practically impassable by boats of even moderate size. Others have to be constantly dredged in order to keep them open.

To take a single example: The Tennessee River has been changed in comparatively recent years from a practically clear to a sediment-bearing stream. A survey in 1896 of the lower portion of the river, between Riverton, Ala., and Paducah, Ky., showed 49 bars through which it was calculated that a channel could be opened by the removal of 650,000 cubic yards of sand and gravel. As the work developed it proved necessary in some of the bars to remove several times as much material as had been calculated, and others had to be dredged several times. One, indeed, was opened five times in 8 years. By 1908 several new bars had developed, 1,127,660 cubic yards had been dredged in 31 places, and the results were stated to be fairly permanent in two-thirds of these.

GENERAL.

Altogether it has been estimated that erosion is responsible for an annual loss in this country of approximately \$100,000,000. To the farmer it means money out of his

¹U. S. Geological Survey, Professional Paper 72, "Denudation and Erosion," by L. C. Glenn.

pocket from start to finish. It impairs the fertility and decreases the productivity of his land, and may even ruin it altogether; it renders irrigation more difficult and more costly; by reducing the possibilities of cheap water-power development it tends to keep up the price and check the more extended use of electricity; and by interfering with navigation it helps to prevent the development of a comprehensive system of cheap inland water transportation. But the farmer is not the only sufferer. The entire community is directly affected by the loss and is justified in taking heroic measures to remedy the evil.

PREVENTION OF EROSION.

CONTROL OF SURFACE RUN-OFF.

Since surface run-off is the primary cause of erosion, it is obvious that complete control of this would constitute a solution of the entire problem. In other words, if we cure the cause we shall also do away with the effects.

Some of the factors that influence surface run-off, and therefore erosion, are, of course, beyond our control. We can not alter the total amount or the distribution of the precipitation. Neither can we remake at will the geological formation, the general slope, or the depth and character of the soil. Some of these things, however, we can modify to a certain extent. By means of terraces we can break up the uniformity of the slope; by the addition of fertilizers and by proper methods of cultivation we can increase the absorptive capacity of the soil. Most important of all, we can, within the limits imposed by climate and soil. do almost what we will with the ground cover.

Prevention of erosion is, then, dependent primarily on the way in which we treat the protective cover of trees and other vegetation, and secondarily on the way in which we handle cleared lands. If the problem is to be solved we must cease to accelerate surface run-off by burning the forests and brush fields, overgrazing the range, clearing steep slopes for agriculture, and practicing antiquated methods of cultivation. On the contrary, the farmer, the forester, and the stockman must cooperate in seeing that the land is so used that surface run-off, particularly at the higher elevations, is reduced to a minimum. If this is done, erosion can be effectively controlled without interfering with the fullest use of our natural resources.

CLASSIFICATION OF LAND.

The first step toward controlling the run-off is to classify all land according to its liability to erosion and need of a protective cover. This might well be part of a broader classification aimed to devote all land to its highest use. Such a classification by competent authorities would perhaps accomplish more than any other one step not only in preventing erosion but in bringing about the fullest use of all our natural resources. Until Federal and State authorities take comprehensive action in this direction the individual will have to settle the question for himself as best he can with the knowledge at his disposal. So far as erosion alone is concerned, this should not be a very difficult matter.

FARM LAND.

How steep a slope can safely be cleared for farming depends largely on the character of the soil. It has often been said that no slope steeper than 15° should be cleared, and as a general guide this is probably as good as could be given. Yet slopes of less than 15° not infrequently show serious erosion under cultivation, while occasionally slopes of 20° and even more show none. The question, therefore, is one that must be settled separately for every locality, and even for every tract. As a rule, however, there is some cleared land in every vicinity which can be used as a guide. In case of doubt the safest course is to leave the land uncleared.

Some erosion must be expected on all slope land cleared for cultivation. On land really suitable for farming, however, this can be reduced sufficiently to prevent any marked deterioration. The general principle to be kept in mind is to prevent surface run-off just as far as possible. Water that is absorbed by the soil not only causes no erosion but increases the supply of ground water, diminishes drought, feeds the springs, and maintains a steady flow in the creeks and rivers.

One of the most effective methods for preventing erosion on cultivated land is terracing. Properly constructed ter-

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races check the velocity of surface run-off and give the soil a chance to absorb far more water than would otherwise be possible. Their construction has been so frequently described in various agricultural publications that it need not be discussed here.¹ Their importance in any well-regulated scheme of farming should, however, be emphasized. There is scarcely a region in which they can not be used to advantage.

Numerous other measures can also be taken to convert surface into underground run-off. Deep plowing and fertilizing increase the absorptive capacity of the soil. On soils that become saturated quickly artificial drains help to carry off the surplus water. Contour plowing acts in the same general way as terracing. Winter cover crops and such crops as grapes and berries offer mechanical resistance to surface run-off and also bind the soil. Rotation of crops helps to retain the fertility and therefore the absorptive capacity of the soil. Occasional turning of the land into pasture for a few years is often beneficial. Properly located and constructed ditches help to carry away safely the excess run-off, and brush and stone dams serve to break its force. There is hardly a farm in the country where at least one, and usually several, of these measures should not be practiced.

FOREST LAND.

Forests, which are the highest type of vegetation, form the most effective cover for converting surface into subterranean run-off. They should therefore be retained on all areas which, if cleared, would either be in danger of erosion themselves or a menace to other areas. Paradoxical as it may sound, the crop production of the country would be greater if the forest cover were maintained where its protective influence is needed than would be the case if the entire area were cleared for farming.

MOUNTAIN FORESTS.—Water, like fire, is an unruly element which must be controlled at the outset if it is to be controlled at all. It is this fact that gives the mountain forests their peculiar importance. They catch the water at the begin-

¹ See, for example, Bureau of Plant Industry Circular 94; Department of Agriculture Bulletin 180; North Carolina Geological and Economic Soil Survey Bulletins 17 and 236; and South Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station Circular 20.

ning of its journey to the sea. They tackle the problem at its very source. Furtherfore, they afford protection where the precipitation is heaviest and the slopes steepest. For these reasons the great bulk of the land on the steeper slopes and at the higher elevations should be retained in forest, and the forest cover supplemented where necessary by small check dams and larger storage reservoirs. In no other way can the soil be kept on the mountain sides, surface run-off controlled, and the prosperity of the community safeguarded. In many regions farming, irrigation, municipal water supplies, water-power development, and navigation are all, in the last analysis, dependent upon the mountain forests.

Europe has already had its lesson. In the Apennines, near Florence, it is now possible to walk for miles on mountain slopes of bare rock where a century or so ago dense forests grew. France has spent millions of dollars in reforestation and engineering works in the Pyrenees and French Alps to control the torrents and the erosion which have resulted from forest destruction in the mountains.

In the United States marked progress is being made. Since 1891 the reservation under Federal ownership of forested public lands has been an established policy of the Government. One hundred and sixty-three million acres of National Forests, mainly in the mountains of the West, now protect both the forests and the various interests dependent on them. Another step in advance was taken in 1911, when Congress enacted legislation providing for the purchase of forest lands on the watersheds of navigable streams. Already some 400,000 acres of forest land have been acquired and some 900,000 acres more approved for purchase under this act. In addition, some 2,800,000 acres of mountain land are held as State forest reserves.

Much still remains to be done, however, before the mountain forests will exercise the influence of which they are capable in controlling surface run-off. Throughout the world, history has demonstrated unmistakably that unrestrained private ownership can not be relied upon to give such forests the protection that is necessary. They are a community asset, and community ownership or control is essential for their proper management. Until the Nation and the States realize this fact and act upon it, the problem of erosion, with all its attendant ills, will not have been solved.

WoopLots.—But the mountains are not the only place where a forest cover is necessary. Every farm has its patches which should be devoted to a woodlot—areas which are too rocky, poor-soiled, or steep to make cultivation practicable. Such areas if left barren are worse than useless because they form an actual menace to the rest of the farm. Woodlots on areas of this sort more than pay for themselves in the protection which they offer against rapid run-off and erosion. Not infrequently the very existence of a farm is dependent on the protection afforded by them. What timber they yield is clear gain.

Belts of timber may also be used advantageously to prevent erosion on long, moderately steep slopes. Unbroken slopes of this character which are otherwise suitable for farming often permit the run-off to gain such headway as to cause serious washing on their lower portions. Narrow belts of timber, which should, of course, be wider the steeper the slope, effectively check this tendency. The mechanical obstruction that they offer reduces the velocity of the water, which is then absorbed by the humus. A forest barrier is both more efficient and more profitable than any other.

RIVER BELTS.-Even along river bottoms the forest has its use. A fringe of trees along the main channel is of wonderful assistance in binding the banks and preventing the scouring out of adjacent lands. Although they have no effect on the height of flood waters, they offer a mechanical obstruction which checks the velocity of the water and causes the stream to deposit its load of sand, gravel, and other infertile débris. Instead of a raging torrent the flood is turned into a quiet overflow, carrying a burden of silt the deposit of which enriches the neighboring farm lands. Many examples of this were offered by the Kansas River flood of 1903. Farms where the river banks were protected by trees were in many cases actually benefited by the flood, while others without such protection were often completely destroyed. One farm protected in this way had some 200 acres enriched by a deposit of fine silt; another adjacent but unprotected farm had 16 acres gouged out to a depth of from 6 to 8 feet and 100 acres more ruined by being buried under from 1 to 3 feet of coarse sand. Every river which is in danger of floods, and therefore erosion, should have its banks protected by a belt of trees from a few to several hundred feet in width. For such a belt to be of the most benefit, however, the channel should be made as straight as possible and kept free from all obstructions, such as accumulations of logs and other débris. Nothing can prevent erosion on a stream so choked up that its channel is barely able to care for the normal flow.

FIRE PREVENTION.

From the standpoint of erosion it is fully as important to keep the forest floor in an absorptive condition as to maintain merely a stand of trees. Fires destroy both. They have no place in a well-managed forest, except occasionally as a help in securing natural reproduction, and then only under the direction of an expert. The prevention of uncontrolled fire is, indeed, an absolute necessity if the forest is to perform effectively one of its main functions.

Everyone recognizes a crown fire which destroys an entire forest as a disaster. But everyone is not yet educated to the realization that every surface fire, no matter how light, is a real menace. The mere fact that a fire is able to burn is sure proof that it is destroying organic material, and it is this organic material which makes the forest floor the great sponge that it is. Repeated fires will in time completely destroy this sponge. The change may be barely perceptible from year to year, but it is none the less sure. Every fire does its share toward removing the humus and making the forest less valuable for the storage of water and the prevention of erosion.

Adequate protection will not be secured, however, until the fire problem is attacked as systematically in the forest as it now is in the city. Laws to prevent the starting of forest fires, and a well-organized and well-equipped force to detect them as soon as possible and to extinguish them before they gain any considerable headway are essential in any protection system. To achieve such a result the efforts of forest owners, both public and private, must be supplemented by



FIG. 1.—AN UNPROTECTED RIVER BANK. During the Kansas River flood of 1903 this adjacent bank, which was unprotected by trees, was badly washed out and the farm land back of it seriously injured.



FIG. 2.-FARM LAND ALSO SUFFERS.

This steam thresher stood on land unprotected by a fringe of trees along the river. During the same flood it was buried in sand, a telephone line in the background was washed down, and the value of the entire farm greatly impaired.



FIG. 1.-SOIL GONE; ONLY BARE ROCK LEFT.

The soil on this mountain slope has been washed out down to the bare rock as a result of the removal of the timber, followed by fires.



FIG. 2. -BOTTOM LAND BURIED UNDER SAND.

This fertile alluvial river bottom has been buried under a deposit of sand and other infertile material brought down as a result of crosion in the higher elevations at its headwaters.



FIG. 1.—AN EXAMPLE OF THE CAVING GULLY. This type of erosion often progresses very rapidly and is particularly difficult to stop.

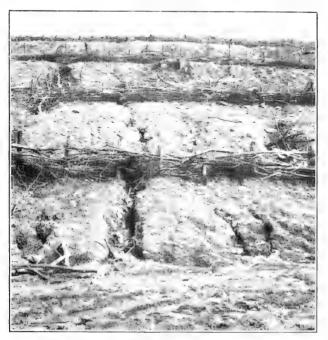


FIG. 2.—BRUSH DAMS HELP TO CHECK EROSION. An attempt was made to grow peaches on this area. Brush dams are now being used to hold the soil preparatory to planting forest trees.

PLATE XXI.



FIG. I.- THE CARRYING POWER OF WATER.

This huge bowlder, weighing some three tons, was washed down by a flood caused by rapid run-off from overgrazed lands on the upper part of the watershed. The carrying power of water varies as the sixth power of its velocity.



FIG. 2. BOTTOM LAND STRIPPED OF ITS SOIL.

This alluvial bottom has been rendered worthless by the washing away of the soil. The small area in the center shows the soil level in the bottom, the best part of the whole farm, before the soil was removed.

the cooperation of the entire community. The public as a whole suffers from the evil and should cooperate in putting a stop to it.

GRAZING REGULATION.

The regulation of grazing, whether conducted on farm lands, on forest lands, or on intermediate lands devoted entirely to grazing, is important in preventing erosion. The most important precaution is to make sure that the grazing is not overdone. When carried to extremes it is a fruitful source of erosion because it reduces greatly the amount of surface vegetation, packs the soil, and forms well-worn trails in which the water readily collects. Such damage may be prevented by limitation of the number of stock grazed and by proper methods of handling.

One point to be borne in mind in determining whether an area should be used for grazing or forest production is the fact that a sod cover is not so efficient in decreasing the rapidity of surface run-off as a humus cover. A well-knit sod nearly always binds the underlying soil sufficiently to prevent erosion, but does not absorb water so readily. Consequently, certain areas that are not themselves in danger of erosion may be a more serious menace to farm lands below if devoted to grazing than if retained in forest.

On steep slopes where landslides are apt to occur, it may often be advisable to stop grazing during periods of very wet weather.

CONSERVATIVE LUMBERING.

The forest can be cut for its timber without serious danger of starting erosion, except on the highest, most exposed, and thinnest-soiled slopes. In such places the natural balance is very closely adjusted, and cutting should be prohibited entirely or limited to the removal of individual trees here and there. Areas of this sort should be set aside as "protection forests." These should be managed primarily with a view to retaining their protective value, and timber production should be treated as a purely secondary object.

Elsewhere ordinary lumbering operations may be carried on safely. Usually a sufficient cover of small trees, underbrush, and humus is left to protect the soil, and this is soon

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reinforced by new growth. Certain precautions must be observed, however. Such methods of logging should be adopted as will cause as few deeply gouged skid trails as possible. When soil and climatic conditions are such that these are liable to erode badly they should be filled up with brush and other slash left after logging. This will check the rapidity of the run-off and enable nature to repair the scar before serious damage results. Above all, the cut-over area should be protected from fire. Burning is permissible only as a silvicultural measure to assist natural reproduction, and then only under the direction of an expert. Uncontrolled fires following lumbering have caused far more damage than the cutting itself. They are a serious menace from every point of view and the greatest danger to be guarded against in connection with lumbering.

EDUCATION.

The most fundamental step that can be taken toward the prevention of erosion is education of the general public. The importance and extent of erosion, its causes, and methods of control should be made matters of common knowledge. In the last analysis an enlightened public sentiment is the only cure for a public evil.

Much can be done along this line in our educational institutions, especially in the common schools. Children in particular should have their interest actively aroused and their support enlisted. In one State "gully clubs" have been organized by the State forester. These are composed largely of school children who take an active part in the work of gully reclamation and particularly in finding and checking incipient gullies before it is too late. Why could not such organizations as boy scouts, girl scouts, and campfire girls be used in the same way? The normal child is never so happy as when doing something. Here is an outlet for his or her energies.

Much may be done also in the various agricultural organizations, such as the granges and farmers' institutes. County agents have an unequaled opportunity for effective educational work where it will do the most good. Legislatures can do their share by enacting adequate laws for the prevention of fire, the protection of mountain forests, and even of grazing and farm lands. It has been suggested that soil wash in cultivated or abandoned fields should be considered a public nuisance, and the holder of land on which it is permitted to occur held liable for resultant damages to neighboring lands and streams. This suggestion is based on the idea that the community has a right to take any action necessary to preserve its most valuable natural resource.

RECLAMATION OF ERODED LANDS.

NEED FOR PROMPT ACTION.

It should never be forgotten that to prevent an evil is infinitely better than to remedy it after it has once occurred. Nowhere is it more strictly true than in the case of erosion that "a stitch in time saves nine," and that "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." At the same time it is reassuring to know that erosion can be controlled if action is taken in time. If delayed too long, however, the process may have proceeded so far as to make control measures impossible except at a prohibitive cost. The golden rule in all reclamation work is to start early and stick to it; vigilance and persistence offer the only assurance of success.

The same measures which are effective in preventing erosion may also be used to control it after it has once started. Terracing, ditching, damming, deep plowing, contour plowing, fertilizing, straightening of stream channels, and forestation all have their place. Each case is a problem in itself, and the measures to be adopted depend on local conditions and the character of the erosion.

DAMS.

Small gullies may often be stopped by blocking them with cornstalks, straw, brush, logs, and similar material. These check the force of the water, and the gullies are gradually filled up with the sediment deposited. More pretentious dams may be made of earth, stones, or concrete. One device of this sort, known as a "christopher" or as the "Dickey system," consists of a dam beneath which is laid a sewer pipe with an upright arm. After every storm the basin

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behind the dam is filled with water to the height of this arm, which then carries the additional water off through the sewer. The sediment carried by the water is deposited in the basin until finally the gully is entirely filled. More effective drainage of the basin can be secured if it is also underlain by a tile drain connected with the sewer. The chief objection to dams in general is the danger of their being undermined by the water and washed out. This, of course, merely increases the evil, and is a danger that must be guarded against.

REVEGETATION.

Another method of reclaiming gullies is to cover their sides with vegetation. Herbs, shrubs, or trees, or sometimes a combination of all three, may be used for this purpose. Often it is wise to start the work with such plants as honeysuckle. Bermuda or other grass, Japan or native clover, or even sorghum or rye, and to follow these up later with trees. Black locust is a rapid-growing tree which is excellent for this purpose in places where the locust borer is not abundant. Willows, poplars, sycamore, yellow poplar, black walnut, shortleaf pine, white pine, and Norway pine may also be used to advantage in different parts of the country. The trees should usually be set fairly close together, say from 4 by 4 to 6 by 6 feet. The steeper the slope and the greater the danger of erosion, the closer should be the planting.

A combination of dams and revegetation may often prove advisable. This is especially true in particularly bad cases. Deep gullies with vertical sides are the most difficult to reclaim. Here the sides should first be flattened out by plowing back at their heads until uniform slopes of perhaps 15° have been established. Revegetation of these slopes should then be undertaken immediately. These measures should also be reinforced by dams if conditions are such that they will not be washed out.

On slopes where the soil is being washed away uniformly by sheet erosion it is usually possible to plant some cover crop. Best results are obtained by using a rotation of crops and by turning the land occasionally into pasture. Liberal fertilizing adds materially to the effectiveness of such measures.

Farms, Forests, and Erosion.

Reforestation of denuded lands at the higher elevations will often serve to check erosion below. Along the main river bottoms the principal remedial measures to be used are straightening of the channels, removal of all obstructions, forestation of the banks, and in extreme cases the building of levees and revetment works.

FINANCIAL RESULTS.

That reclamation of eroded lands is not only practicable but often financially successful has been proved time and again. A badly eroded farm in Tennessee, for example, having a gully from 8 to 10 feet deep, was purchased for \$53 an acre. The owner proceeded to reclaim the land at a cost of \$10 an acre by filling the gully with débris and soil, adding manure, and planting rye. A few years later he refused an offer of \$100 an acre for the farm.

Another owner reclaimed eroded land on his farm by plowing back the side walls of the gullies to a moderately gentle slope, planting them to peas, then to grass, pasturing the area for two years, and then repeating the rotation. Ten years later the reclaimed areas, which for 30 years previous had been practically worthless, were valued at \$35 an acre. The owner estimates that even during the first year the returns were more than sufficient to pay for the labor expended in reclaiming them.

Still another owner reclaimed the gullies on his farm by planting them with black locust trees and sowing them to grass. Fifteen years later formerly worthless areas yielded good fence posts and excellent pasturage, and were then producing such crops as oats. During the same period the value of the entire farm had increased from \$7.80 to \$35 per acre.

CONCLUSION.

The problem of erosion and its control forms an integral part of any comprehensive plan for the development of our natural resources. If all land were put to its best use and so handled as to maintain its productivity the problem would be solved. This result can be attained, however, only by marked change in our present practice. A stop must be put to reckless destruction of the forest, to uncontrolled fires, to overgrazing, and to careless farming. For the sake of the farmer in particular and the public in general, steps should be taken to retain and restore the forest cover in the mountains, under public ownership or supervision. There should be brought home to the people as a whole the extent and seriousness of erosion and the necessity for its control by the community. When all these steps are taken, and not until then, will "farms, forests, and erosion" be a queer combination. When that day finally arrives we shall indeed have farms and forests, but no erosion.

THE PLANT-INTRODUCTION GARDENS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

By P. H. DORSETT,

Plant Introducer, Office of Foreign Seed and Plant Introduction, Burcau of Plant Industry.

FEW Americans, possibly not more than one in ten thousand, realize that plant introduction has given to the United States practically all of its commercial crops. Thousands of the new plant immigrants that enter the United States each year find their first home in the plant-introduction field stations, or gardens, of the Department of Agriculture. These are the "Ellis Island" of the plant immigrants. but they also are the workshops, field laboratories, and plantpropagation factories of the Office of Foreign Seed and Plant Introduction. They are situated at Miami and Brooksville, Fla., Chico, Cal., "Yarrow," near Rockville, Md., and Bellingham, Wash. Here the new plant arrivals are cared for and studied for the purpose of determining whether they are of economic importance, and those which promise to be of value are extensively propagated. From these stations the plants are distributed, upon orders from the Washington office, to specialists of the department and of the State experiment stations and to the thousands of private experimenters, special cooperators, and plant breeders throughout the country.

LOCATION OF THE GARDENS.

The almost complete freedom from frost and the general tropical character of the region in which the Miami station is located make it most advantageous for the propagation and preliminary testing of a wide range of new plant introductions from the tropical and subtropical regions of the world.

The Brooksville station, containing 35 acres in the hammock region of western Florida, was established after a careful search had been made for ideal conditions for the propa-

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gation of plants coming from the moister but not tropical portions of China and Japan. The first Federal plantation of any considerable size of the Japanese timber bamboo is located at this garden. It is here that the propagation of the dasheen has been most successful and the chayote, a moisture-loving tropical vegetable, has grown luxuriantly.

The Chico Plant Introduction Field Station is located in one of the leading deciduous-fruit, nut, and citrus sections in northern California. The high summer temperature, abundance of water for irrigation, long growing season, and mild winters of this region make possible the propagation and testing of such widely different species of plants as alfalfa from the steppes of Siberia, hardy apples, pears, and cherries from Russia, chestnuts, jujubes, and persimmons from northern China, and citrus fruits from the Tropics.

The Yarrow garden was established primarily to meet the pressing demand for a place near Washington where newly introduced plants which the inspectors of the Federal Horticultural Board pass as apparently free from disease, but in regard to which there is a suspicion, may be cared for. Here they can be held or propagated and grown under observation for a season or until all possible danger of the development of disease is past and it is perfectly safe for the material to be distributed.

Extensive greenhouses, coldframes, and lath sheds have been provided at this garden, which admit of the propagation, care, and proper handling of the tropical and subtropical species in the rapidly growing stream of new plant immigrants. The hardy plant introductions are propagated, grown, and preliminarily tested in the nurseries and test orchards in the open.

The establishment of the Bellingham field station is the natural outcome of several years of experimentation carried on in various parts of the country to discover where flowering bulbs could be most successfully grown. It has been maintained for several years as a bulb garden, but is now being developed to include the propagation of a wide range of plants from western Europe, northern Japan, and the high mountain regions of western China.

PRECAUTIONS USED TO PREVENT THE INTRODUCTION OF INJURIOUS INSECTS AND DISEASES.

The thousands of new plant immigrants annually received in Washington in the form of seeds, plants, cuttings, etc., sent in by the agricultural explorers and correspondents of the office are unpacked and given an identification number in the specially equipped plant-inspection laboratory of the office in the presence of the inspectors of the Federal Horticultural Board, whose specific duties are to determine whether or not the material is in a condition to be distributed. If it is found to be affected with insect or other pests or with diseases, it is ordered into guarantine and the necessary treatment prescribed and administered. If found to be apparently free from insects and diseases, it is given a clean bill of health which permits it to be forwarded to the experimenters of the department for whom it was especially secured or to the plant-introduction gardens for propagation. cultivation, preliminary tests, and, later, if deemed advisable to be grown for distribution, to the special experimenters of the office.

The plant propagators at these gardens, who are personally responsible for the care and propagation of these new plant immigrants, have frequently to resort to every known practice of the craft to save an introduction arriving out of season or in a critical condition; and in some instances, when the plant introduced is unknown and no information regarding its identity can be secured, they must rely upon their own ingenuity in developing methods of handling such material in order to save what may eventually develop into an important new plant industry.

The necessary records of each new plant immigrant received at Washington include a Federal Horticultural Board inspection card, upon which is recorded the inspection and introduction number, the source and amount of material received, the dates of inspection, names of inspectors, and treatment prescribed: a plant-introduction card giving the plant-introduction and inspection numbers, by whom and from whence introduced, when received, its probable economic value, and such other available information as is considered important or of special interest; a plant-order card showing to whom the material was forwarded and the amount sent; and a shipping tag upon which is a certificate of inspection signed by the inspectors of the Federal Horticultural Board.

PRELIMINARY AND EXTENSIVE TESTS MADE.

The propagation houses, coldframes, lath sheds, greenhouses, and other equipment at the plant-introduction gardens of the department, together with trained superintendents, experienced plant propagators, and a corps of capable gardeners and laborers, afford excellent facilities for the propagation and preliminary testing of the thousands of new plants annually introduced by the Office of Foreign Seed and Plant Introduction. They also make possible the efficient distribution of new plant material to specialists of this and other bureaus of the department, the State experiment stations. and to the thousands of private experimenters who, in occupying and developing the vast areas of agricultural lands of our country, are calling for something new to grow, either as an entirely new crop or to take the place of one that locally can no longer be grown commercially with profit. Ornamental trees and flowering plants for vard and park planting are also very much in demand.

The new plants annually propagated at the department gardens, together with the test nurseries, test orchards, and permanent plantings, afford exceptional facilities for study to all who are interested in the development of a broader agriculture, and can avail themselves of the opportunity to visit these gardens and become personally familiar with the interesting new plant introductions.

It is at these plant-introduction field stations of the department that the agricultural experts determine which of the new plants show promise of being of economic value as direct producers and which are likely to prove valuable in plant breeding and selection experiments.

RECENT INTRODUCTIONS NOW BEING TESTED AT THE GARDENS.

Among the host of interesting new plant introductions which have been propagated at the various gardens, a few selected examples will give some idea of the range of species handled and the variety of the problems presented. The jujube, Ziziphus jujuba, from China, is possibly as promising a plant commercially for California and the semiarid South and Southwest as any of the other valuable crop and ornamental plants that have been introduced from the Far East.

The experimental tests made with this new alkali and drought resistant fruit at the Chico Plant Introduction Field Station, to determine the possible value of the strains and varieties that have been introduced from among the several hundred known to exist in China, have been very satisfactory. The fruit of the better varieties is fully as large as a large prune, and reddish or mahogany brown in color when ripe. While the jujube is a very good fresh fruit, it is undoubtedly of greatest value when processed with cane sugar or honey. Prepared jujubes are as delicate in flavor as many dates.

From the seed of the tung-oil tree (Aleurites fordii) an oil is made which the paint manufacturers of this country consider one of the best drying oils known to the trade. The importations of this oil are valued at from \$2,000,000 to \$3,000,000 per annum. Trees of this new plant immigrant distributed from the Chico garden in 1906-7 are doing well and bearing fruit in many places in the region extending from northern California to and throughout the Gulf States, but appear to be doing best in northwestern Florida and the southern parts of Georgia and Alabama.

The oil manufacturers are watching the experimental plantings of this tree with a great deal of interest.

The pistache tree (*Pistacia vera*), a promising introduction from central western Asia, presages another new industry for the United States. The small, green-fleshed nuts are most excellent to eat when roasted and salted, and are extensively used in the coloring and flavoring of ice cream and confections. The entire supply of these nuts at present comes from abroad. This country can, and surely should, grow what it needs. The trees do exceedingly well in the Sacramento and San Joaquin Valleys in California. A few of the grafted trees of some of the commercial varieties in the Chico test orchard are bearing a few nuts this season. Seedling trees near Fresno, Cal., have borne large crops of nuts for some years. Mr. Walter T. Swingle and several others

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who have studied the subject and are familiar with the conditions believe that in the not distant future pistache culture will be an established commercial industry of considerable importance in this country.

Budded and grafted plants of some of the best commercial varieties have been distributed to experimenters interested in testing out this introduction to determine the possibilities of its cultivation as a new plant industry.

The peculiar beauty of the Chinese pistache (*Pistacia chinensis*) and the great age to which it lives have suggested its trial as an avenue tree, and thousands of young trees have been distributed to parks throughout the country. A trial avenue a quarter of a mile long, planted at the Chico garden in 1910, already makes an excellent appearance.

The udo $(Aralia \ cordata)^1$ is a new salad plant from Japan that will probably succeed in practically every State in the Union. The crisp young shoots produced by this plant, when properly blanched, make a delicious salad or are excellent when cooked like asparagus. The culture and handling of udo is similar to that of asparagus. A few plants of udo should be in every home garden. It is believed that when the merits of this new introduction, both as a salad and vegetable, are better known, its cultivation will develop into an industry of considerable economic importance.

The Chinese varieties of persimmon (*Diospyros kaki*) vie with those of Japan in size, quality, beauty, and hardiness. Many varieties have been propagated at Chico and Yarrow, and the special Chinese stocks upon which they are grown in China have been used. The region in which the oriental persimmon can be successfully grown commercially includes California and the South, where the temperature does not fall much below zero. The culture of this excellent fruit is destined, sooner or later, to develop into an important industry. Dried persimmons form a staple food product of China and Japan.

The Chinese chestnut (*Castanea mollissima*) is an extremely interesting and possibly very valuable new plant introduction. This species, according to Mr. Frank N.

¹ Fairchild, David. Experiments with Udo, the New Japanese Vegetable. U. S. Department of Agriculture Bul. 84, 1914.

Meyer, to whom belongs the credit of discovering that the chestnut bark disease (*Endothia parasitica*) is indigenous to China and Japan, is more or less resistant to this disease, which is threatening to destroy the American chestnut. A considerable quantity of nuts of this species sent by Mr. Meyer have been propagated and the trees distributed from our plant-introduction gardens to interested experimenters for growing and testing in disease-infested areas.

We have in Dr. W. Van Fleet's hybrid chinkapin-chestnut the result of a cross between *Castanea pumila* and *Castanea* crenata, an extremely promising new chestnut. A considerable number of the trees that are being grown experimentally appear to show rather marked resistance to the disease. Many of the plants have borne good crops of nuts within 18 months to 2 years from the planting of the seed. The trees will no doubt be small; the nuts, however, are of good size and of very good quality.

The Chinese dry-land elm (Ulmus pumila) is a promising new plant immigrant. This elm is found throughout northern China and Manchuria and is known to be very resistant to drought, neglect, and extremes of heat and cold. Seedling plants of this elm secured at Fengtai, near Peking, Chihli, China. in 1908, were grown and distributed from our Chico Plant Introduction Field Station. These early distributions proved sufficiently promising to justify its propagation in quantity for distribution throughout the United States. Our stock at the Chico garden being limited to a few small trees retained for permanent planting, it was necessary to resort to propagation by dormant hardwood cuttings. The tests with this elm at the Government Great Plains Field Station at Mandan, N. Dak., indicate that it is likely to be of very great value for windbreaks, shelter belts, and other plantings in the Great Plains region.

A promising small, early sweet cherry (*Prunus pseudo-cerasus* Lindley), introduced from Tanghsi, China, in 1906, was saved to the country by a chance graft. When this introduction was received at the Chico station, the gardener, after working practically all of the scions received upon nursery stock in the usual way, conceived the idea of running the few he had left into the small limbs of an old seed-ling cherry tree. The scions worked upon commercial stocks

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in the usual way all perished; two of those worked upon the old seedling tree survived, and in the following spring these grafts were in full flower before the buds of the seedling tree began to swell, and they ripened their fruit by the time the old tree was in flower, which was 10 days earlier than the earliest commercial cherries of that region. From the scions thus saved a large number of plants have been propagated and distributed throughout the country for experimental tests. At Yuba City and Vacaville, Cal., this introduction gives promise of being of considerable commercial importance as an early cherry for the eastern markets.

It is a curious fact that this Tanghsi cherry and not the Japanese flowering cherry is the true *Prunus pseudocerasus*, and its introduction puts in the hands of the American plant breeder a new oriental species of fruiting cherry which may prove valuable in the production of early strains of cherries.

The Davidiana peach (Amygdalus davidiana), a promising new stock for stone fruits other than the cherry, appears to be quite resistant to alkali and drought and well adapted to the deep alluvial soils of California. It is also succeeding at San Antonio and other places in Texas and has stood a temperature of -40° at the State Agricultural Experiment Station, Ames, Iowa, with little or no injury when 50 other varieties tested in comparison were either killed outright or seriously injured.

The fruit of this wild peach is small and inedible; however, the introduction may, on account of its extreme hardiness, prove valuable in hybridization experiments for the production of hardier types of commercial peaches.

Upward of 200 trees of this promising new plant immigrant have been planted in orchard form at the Chico station for the purpose of insuring a domestic seed supply.

The chayote (*Chayota edulis*), a little-known vegetable from tropical America, has been successfully grown in a limited way in California, Louisiana, and Florida, and can possibly be grown successfully in other parts of the country where the temperature does not fall much below freezing.

Many of those who have eaten the chayote consider it superior to our summer squash or vegetable marrow. The plant is a perennial vine that is comparatively easy to

The Plant-Introduction Gardens.

grow. The single-seeded, pear-shaped fruits, light green or creamy white in color, are produced in quantity in the fall and can be used then or stored and used as a fresh vegetable throughout the winter.

Bamboos are among the most useful and ornamental economic plants in the world. The first systematic planting of the timber and edible bamboos for experimental purposes in the United States on any considerable scale was made by the Government at the Plant Introduction Field Station at Brooksville, Fla., and at Avery Island, La., in cooperation with Mr. E. A. McIlhenny.

Canned and dried bamboo shoots are imported into the United States in considerable quantities for consumption by Chinese residents. The importation of bamboo canes for fishing rods and other purposes amounts to several millions of dollars annually. All of this material can and no doubt some day will be grown at home, for already most excellent shoots have been harvested from plantings in this country and poles of marketable size have been produced.

Flowering bulbs, which are imported into this country for forcing and ornamental planting at an expense to the people of the United States of at least \$2,000,000 annually, have been grown at the Bellingham station with excellent success. Judging from the results of these experiments, there are many reasons to believe that the so-called "Dutch bulbs" can be successfully grown in commercial quantities in the Puget Sound region and probably in other sections of the United States. Tests so far made show that the homegrown bulbs are fully equal and in some respects superior to the imported stock.

In the spring of 1916 the flowers at Bellingham were unusually fine. The extensive masses of gorgeous colors made a scene of exceptional beauty. Fully 2,000,000 bulbs were in bloom, and in a single day upward of 2,000 people visited the garden and inspected and admired the flowers.

The avocado (*Persea americana*) as a salad fruit stands without a rival. It is also excellent served in the "half shell," with salt or with lemon and sugar. The tree is adapted for culture in southern Florida and southern California.

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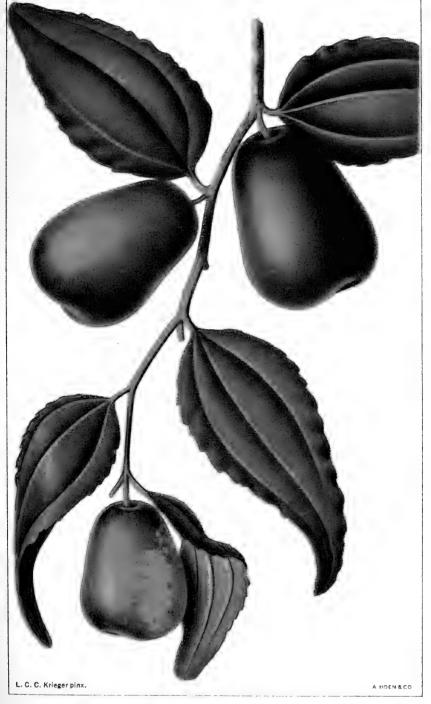
To assist in building up the avocado industry, which has recently awakened widespread interest in southern California and southern Florida, considerable areas of the Miami garden have been devoted to the preliminary testing of a large number of varieties, and some of the more important problems of the new industry are being worked out there.

The introduction of hardier types from Mexico and the hardier, hard-shelled varieties from the highlands of Guatemala, which ripen their fruit at a different season from the West Indian and South American varieties, it is believed, will result in an extension of the commercial culture of the avocado and secure a practically continuous crop of this most excellent fruit throughout the season.

The introduction of the East Indian mango (*Mangifera indica*) has been stimulated in Florida by the growing and fruiting of nearly 100 imported varieties at the Miami garden. The investigational work incident to the building up of the mango industry in this country has occupied a prominent place in the activities of this station, where most of the varieties now growing in Florida were propagated and where many of them have fruited.

While the foregoing brief descriptions indicate a few of the interesting new plant industries which are finding their beginnings in the Government plant-introduction field stations, even a bare list of the hundreds of species and varieties of plants which are now in process of propagation there would much exceed the limits of this article.

The work of the Office of Foreign Seed and Plant Introduction is to find, introduce, propagate, and distribute valuable new plants and also to assist in making possible the cultivation of some economic new plant immigrant upon every available acre of our agricultural lands. The field stations of the office are filled with the new beginnings of plant industries which later will add to the wealth and beauty of the country.



FRUITING BRANCH OF ONE OF THE LARGE-FRUITED VARIETIES OF THE CHINESE JUJUBE GROWING AT THE CHICO PLANT INTRODUCTION FIELD STATION (*Natural Size.*)



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PLATE XXII.



FIG. 1.—ONE OF THE PROPAGATING HOUSES AT THE YARROW FIELD STATION.

This illustration shows a block of young broad-leaved evergreens, *Pittosporum floribundum*, from the Himalayas, large enough to be distributed to experimenters. The utmost care has to be exercised to keep these plants free from disease and insect pests.



FIG. 2.-LATH HOUSE AT THE MIAMI FIELD STATION FILLED WITH TROPICAL AND SUBTROPICAL PLANTS.

The Miami garden has contributed largely to the agriculture of Florida through the study made there of new methods of propagating tropical plants, which heretofore were only grown from seeds.

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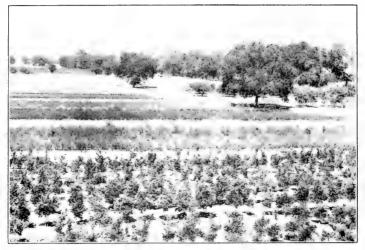


FIG. I.-A PORTION OF THE NURSERY PLANTINGS AT THE CHICO PLANT INTRODUCTION FIELD STATION.

Beyond the test nursery of citrus hybrids in the foreground are thousands of new plant introductions that are being grown for distribution during the season of 1916-17.



FIG. 2. - TEST ORCHARD AT THE PLANT INTRODUCTION FIELD STATION, CHICO, CAL.

Hundreds of varieties of new plants are here given a preliminary test, and it is here that many new plant immigrants fruit for the first time in the United States.

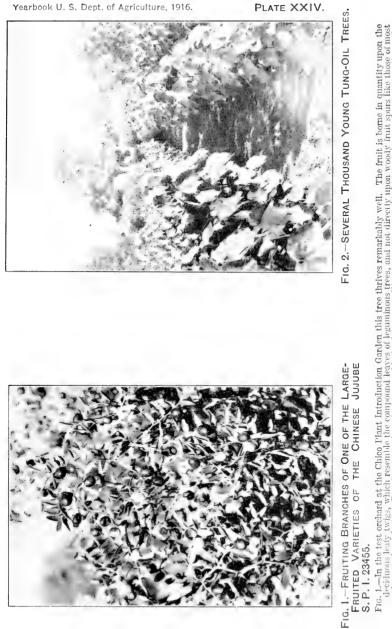


Fig. 1.—In the test orchard at the Chico Plant Introduction Garden this free thrives remarkably well. The fruit is borne in quantity upon the deviations the second early of ferminous trees, and not directly upon woody fruit spurs like those of most other northern funits. Fig. 2.—A portion of a nursery block of young seedling tung-oil trees, Chico Plant Introduction Garden. From the nurse of this tree one of the best drying oils of commerce is obtained.



FIG. 1.—CHINESE PISTACHE IN THE CHICO PLANT INTRODUCTION GARDEN TEST ORCHARD.

This species is an excellent pollen bearer and is being experimented with as a stock for the commercial pistache (*Pistacia vera*), a tree of which is to be seen at the right. It is also a fine ornamental, shade, and avenue tree for California, parts of Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and the South.



FIG. 2.-LATH SHED AT THE CHICO FIELD STATION FILLED WITH UDO SALAD PLANTS.

These were distributed during the season of 1911-12. The partial shade afforded by a lath shed of this character makes it possible to grow many species of plants which otherwise could not be propagated where the sunlight is most intense. Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE XXVI.



FIG. I.-A BLOCK OF DR. VAN FLEET'S YOUNG HYBRID CHESTNUT TREES AT THE CHICO PLANT INTRODUCTION FIELD STATION.

These were distributed during the season of 1915–16. They are hybrids between the Japanese chestnut and the American chinquapin, and although smaller-growing trees than the American chestnut, they produce good nuts and are more or less free from the chestnut-bark disease.



FIG. 2.-DAVIDIANA PEACH SEEDLINGS IN MARYLAND.

This shows a portion of a nursery block of seedling stocks of a Chinese wild peach (A mygdulus davidiana) at the Yarrow Plant Introduction Field Station that were distributed throughout the country to experimenters desiring to test a stock for various stone fruits or to utilize it in plant-breeding experiments.



FIG. I.-CHAYOTE ARBOR AT BROOKSVILLE, FLA.

One of a number of experimental plantings at the Brooksville garden for the purpose of determining the desirability of this method of training the plants. The chayotes produced will be utilized in cooking and demonstration experiments and to direct public attention to the delicate character of this valuable vegetable for the South.



FIG. 2.-VIEW IN THE BROOKSVILLE PLANT INTRODUCTION FIELD STATION.

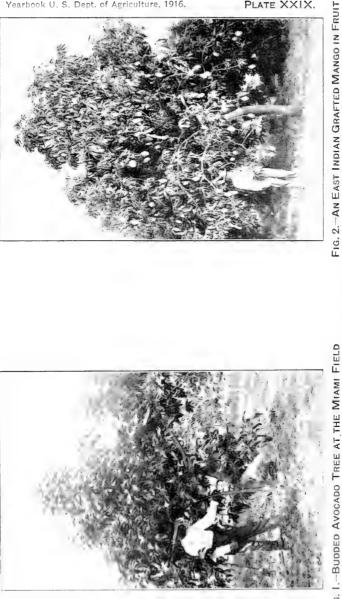
The road runs between a 3-acre planting of Japanese timber bamboo on the left, now 6 years old, and a mirsery of young bamboo plants on the right, set out for the purpose of propagation. The small 3-room field laboratory on the right is equipped for preliminary field studies and has been used for microscopic investigations and cooking experiments in connection with the dasheen and chayote investigations.

PLATE XXVIII.



JAPANESE TIMBER BAMBOO IN NORTHERN CALIFORNIA.

Portion of a 9-year-old planting of one of the large timber bamboos, *Phyllostachys bambusoides* (S. P. 1. No. 12180), at the Chico Plant Introduction Field Station. Large, young, growing shoots in this planting have made a growth of 16 inches in 24 hours. This is about the usual rate of growth under normal conditions. Growths of 26 inches in 24 hours have been reported; such rapidity of growth, however, is under exception ally favorable conditions.



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FIG. 1.-BUDDED AVOCADO TREE AT THE MIAMI FIELD STATION.

AT MIAMI, FLA.

PLATE XXIX.

Fig. 1.-Seedling avecade free with large shoot growing from near the base, which came from a bud of a valuable and hardy variety worked into The fruit was large, round, and hard shelled, with thick, firm flesh of excellent quality, pale yellow near the seed, changing to greenish yellow neur the surface. "Hort iculturists in southern California and southern Florida are very funch interested in the Guatemälan varieties of avocados, especially those coming from the higher elevations. Our growers need hardier types and varieties, and also those that will prolong the ripering season. Fig. 2 - The Sundersha mange from Bangelore, fudit, bears good, regular crops of large, Ridney-shaped fruit, which, when well pipered is of very good quality. This variety, while no o us high quality or as attractive as outwark with as other pieces in Florida, fruits with more regularity than many of dues and is especially valuable for canting and preserving. the stock 13 months previously. The bud slicks from one of which this bud was taken were secured in Antigua, Guatemala, at an altitude of 5.000 feet.

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PLATE XXX.



FIG. 1.-VIEW OF A PORTION OF NARCISSUS PLANTINGS AT THE BELLINGHAM GARDEN.

Madame Plemp in the foreground and Sir Watkin in the distance. This broad expanse of yellow and green was wonderfully beautiful and inspiring.

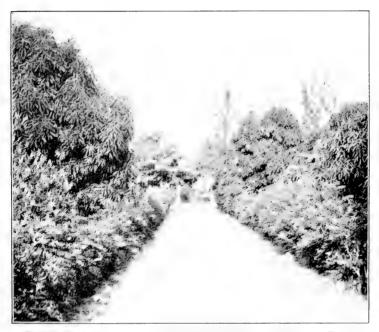


FIG. 2.-AN APPROACH TO THE MIAMI PLANT INTRODUCTION FIELD STATION.

On each side of the drive is a beautiful carissa hedge, *Carissa grandiflora*, an extremely handsome shrub bearing sweet-scented, while flowers and edible fruits. This plant is worthy of a place in the grounds of every home in southerm California. The large trees beyond the hedge on either side are different varieties of the East Indian mango, a fruit which for quality, fragrance, and beauty has few rivals.

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A FEDERATED COOPERATIVE CHEESE MANUFAC-TURING AND MARKETING ASSOCIATION.

By HECTOR MACPHERSON, Director Bureau of Organization and Markets, Oregon Agricultural College, and Field Agent, Office of Markets and Rural Organization, and W. H. KERR, Investigator in Market Business Practice, Office of Markets and Rural Organization.

UNITY of purpose among its members, correct methods of conducting its business, and loyal support accorded its management are universally essential to the success of any cooperative enterprise. These fundamentals are exemplified in every well-known cooperative association. Each organization, however, has its own peculiar problems to face and has developed specific methods of meeting them, a study of which can not fail to be valuable to similar associations.

A survey of the cheese industry in Tillamook County, Oreg., discloses the importance of proper marketing methods in the stimulation of production and the beneficial effects of concentrated agricultural effort for a common purpose. The Tillamook County Creamery Association, among other things, has standardized the product of its member factories and eliminated unequal competition in matters of production and prices. Much of the success of the association, it seems safe to conclude, has been brought about through correct methods of business administration. A study of these methods should be valuable to other rural communities where less success has been attained in manufacturing and marketing cheese.

GENERAL AGRICULTURAL CONDITIONS.

Tillamook County lies near the northwest corner of the State of Oregon, between the Coast Range and the Pacific Ocean. The climate is mild, and abundant rains in winter, with cool, clear weather in summer, tend to produce abundant green feed and pasturage for stock almost the year around. This condition of climate is conducive to large yields of milk at low cost, with regard to both labor and purchased feeds. A small expenditure in buildings is sufficient to provide 54159°-YBK 1916-10 145 stables for the herds, so that the investment of the farmer is almost entirely of a type which will furnish earnings on the money invested. Land values, however, are sufficiently high to offset the saving in building prices as compared with the average dairying district.

A TYPICAL SMALL DAIRY FARM.

The following survey of a small dairy farm in the county is pertinent in so far as it is typical of the best farms of this character in Tillamook County.¹ The 53 acres of cleared river-bottom land in this farm were valued at \$400 per acre in 1914, and \$7,000 had been invested in improvements, including the house, barns, and all outbuildings. The total investment of \$32,790 included, in addition, \$2,390 worth of live stock, an automobile valued at \$1,700, and \$500 worth of machinery.

The farm supported, in 1914, 35 dairy cows valued at \$60 each, 6 yearling heifers valued at \$25 each, and a Jersey bull valued at \$75. These cows were grade Holsteins, Jerseys, and Guernseys. No attempt had been made to grade the herd up to one breed. The proprietor owned a Holstein bull a few years ago, and had previously a Guernsey. Only the heifer calves from the best cows were kept, while all others were sold to local exporters when they were 2 or 3 weeks old. One horse was kept and used to haul the milk to the factory. There were 50 chickens on the place, the product of which was used mainly for home consumption, not more than \$25 being realized from the trading of eggs at the store for groceries.

Since this is a dairy farm of the most highly specialized type, the income is derived almost entirely from milk disposed of through the cooperative cheese factory. In 1914, the milk sold produced 9,411.36 pounds of fat. The average price yielded was 38 cents a pound for butterfat, making a gross income from the dairy of \$3,576.32.

The expenses for the year were \$480 for wages; \$100 for whole grain, bran, and ground barley, and \$343.90 for taxes, making a total of \$923.90. Subtracting this from the gross income, there remains \$2,676.10 as interest on the investment and labor income for the owner. Charging 7 per cent on the total investment, or \$2,295.30, there is left \$380.80

¹ This survey was made in July, 1915, covering the year 1914.

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as labor income. This comparison is hardly a fair one, however, since this farm represents a home value which it would cost the city dweller from \$7,000 to \$15,000 to duplicate.

It is not to be assumed, of course, that all farms, or even all river-bottom farms in Tillamook, are as productive as these 53 acres. In a few particulars, however, this farm is typical of the best lands of Tillamook County. In the first place, the cattle were pastured on the permanent pasture land of 33 acres, supplemented by the other 20 acres on the farm. which was pastured in early spring and in the fall after the hay had been cut. Another typical feature was the small quantity of grain and milled feed purchased. This particular farmer fed little or no grain to his cows, and yet an average of over \$102 worth of butterfat was marketed from each cow during the year 1914. This return may be compared with that on another small farm where the average income from each of the 27 cows was \$119.20 for the year 1914. This greater production was attained at an outlay of \$296 for the purchase of 8 tons of clover hay and 8 tons of bran, making a cost for bran and clover of \$10.96 a cow. Without taking into account the additional labor required, this would indicate a difference in net profit of \$6.24 per cow, owing probably to the feed purchased.

The farm in this survey, however, with its small outlay for milled feed, represents the common practice of Tillamook dairymen more truly than does the farm upon which grain feeds and clover are used for 4 or 5 months of the year.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE INDUSTRY.

The first white settler reached Tillamook County on the first day of April, 1851. Three men made the trip from the Columbia in order to investigate the Indian tales of rich meadow land, splendidly watered, which was reported to lie back of the bay. From that date the county passed rapidly through the usual stages of the frontier settlement. Hunting, trapping, and fishing were good along the bays and numerous streams. But the rich prairie and bottom lands soon attracted the stockmen, whose herds usurped the dominion of the deer, the bear, and the mountain lion. As the settlement grew, the fertile soil and rich pastures bid for more complete utilization. Farms crowded out the range, making dairying a specialty.

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Previous to 1893 dairying in Tillamook County was carried on in a primitive way common to communities in which dairying is conducted only as a side line. Cows were bred fresh in the spring and milked while the pasture was good, after which they were allowed to dry up until the following spring. Most of the butter was made in the homes of the farmers, packed in kegs, and shipped to commission men in neighboring coast cities.

Because of the varying quality of the butter produced under such conditions and the instability of the supply, returns usually were small in amount, while a period of from 6 months to a year sometimes elapsed between the date of shipping and the receipt of returns.

In 1890 the first serious attempt at scientific dairying was made in this locality, when certain of the methods employed in the production of butter in the Elgin district were followed. Three years later the first farmers' creamery in the county, the Tillamook Dairy Association, was established. The factory was completed in the spring of 1893 and was operated as a butter factory during its first season. Earlier in the same year a creamery was established in Tillamook County under private ownership, and the following spring it became the first cheese factory of Tillamook County.

From this beginning the movement spread until by 1899 there were 8 privately owned cheese factories in the county, producing a total of about 1,000,000 pounds of cheese a year, and four large creameries having an output of about 350,000 pounds of butter annually.

As cheese proved better adapted than butter to the uncertain transportation conditions of the locality, the number of cheese factories increased rapidly until in 1902 approximately 40 privately owned cheese factories were operating in the county, and half of these were very small plants handling the milk of from 1 to 3 farms.

COOPERATION IN MANUFACTURING CHEESE.

A new business type which was to bring far-reaching changes in the dairy industry of the county already had made its appearance by 1899, when the Tillamook Dairy Association was formed at Fairview. This factory was cooperative from the beginning, \$1,000 being raised as capital, but this amount fell far short of meeting the needs of the association. Because of the limited number of farmers who could be induced to purchase stock in the new venture, the members then owning stock combined on a joint note and raised an additional \$1,200, which represented the balance of the necessary capital. The factory first was employed in the manufacture of butter, but as prices were poor in this commodity, equipment was installed for the manufacture of cheese. This experiment proved quite as unsatisfactory and gave very little relief, and the factory reverted to the manufacture of butter.

Such conditions discouraged some of the members, who offered to pay their proportionate share of the losses and withdraw. Other members, however, were determined to make the creamery succeed and refused to relieve any member from his position in the society and his liability on the note, unless he should pay the whole \$1,200. By this means the membership was held together. By the end of the second year the association had begun to succeed, and paid off its obligation without a levy on its members.

The success of this association led to the establishment of other local farmers' creameries. The cooperative movement has grown until now, out of a total of 23 factories in the county, but two are privately owned. A few farmers still are making their own cheese, but most of the small factories have ceased to operate and their place has been taken by larger and more economically managed plants, owned and controlled by the farmers in cooperation.

All of the factories, though for the most part cooperative, are corporations organized under the Oregon corporation law. The plan of organization is simple. A few of the most interested farmers make an inventory of the dairying assets of the neighborhood, taking into account the number of cows, the pasturage, and the crop conditions, from which a decision is reached whether the locality can support a cheese factory. If conditions are found favorable, a company is incorporated with sufficient capital to provide an adequate factory for taking care of the milk supply.

Cooperation between banks and farmers' companies in Tillamook County has been responsible, in a great measure, for the success of many of these creameries during the early stages of their existence, since funds have been provided at low rates of interest and for a long time.

PLAN OF OPERATION

The security offered in most cases took the form of a joint note of the members, but in some cases the note of the association, signed by the board of directors, was sufficient.

The management of these factories is vested in a board of from 3 to 5 directors. This board elects from its number a president, who is the legal head of the association. A secretary and a treasurer also are appointed by the board of directors. In the majority of Tillamook creameries these important officers may not be members of the board.

To meet the expenses of operation, a flat rate per pound is charged for manufacturing cheese. The standard price is 1³ cents per pound. For the large factories this price is sufficient to meet all charges, including making, hauling, and inspection of cheese, entrance charges, insurance, the cost of marketing, and the annual addition to the sinking fund. Tn addition to meeting all these expenses the charge of 1³/₄ cents per pound provides for the accumulation of a considerable surplus in the case of large factories. Because in most cases these factories are not conducted as true cooperative associations, but are rather farmers' stock corporations, this surplus sometimes is distributed only to a small number of patrons who are stockholders. Associations which tend toward the stock-dividend policy have been known to pay as high as 100 per cent dividends upon their capital stock. This condition of affairs sometimes leads to discontent among the patrons who have not been able to share in the distribution of the surplus.

Where factories are conducted upon a strictly cooperative basis the policy is to pay a liberal rate of interest on capital . invested, the remaining surplus being distributed to patrons in proportion to the milk they have supplied during the year. One such factory distributed a surplus by paying 10 per cent on capital stock and 2 cents on the hundred pounds of milk delivered at the factory.

The economic waste of conducting small factories for the manufacture of cheese is exemplified by comparing some of them with those of larger capacity. It has been found that whereas $1\frac{3}{4}$ cents per pound for making cheese is sufficient to produce a large surplus in factories with a heavy output, the same rate is not sufficient even to sustain the smaller

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factories, and for that reason these small factories are an expense rather than an advantage to the farmers patronizing them, providing there is a market for their product elsewhere at a lower cost.

CENTRALIZED MARKETING CONTROL.

The great influence of proper marketing methods on the success of cooperative manufacturing or marketing associations has been demonstrated fully in the experience of the Tillamook County cheese factories. Previous to the year 1904 the factories. on account of the lack of storage facilities. were compelled to ship their cheese, as fast as it was made, on consignment to jobbers and commission houses in the large centers of population on the Pacific This necessity created a temporary congestion on coast. the market in the cities receiving the bulk of the output during the period of high production, and especially was this true in Portland, Oreg. The depression in price which followed was maintained until the season of low production in the fall of the year, which also is the season of greatest consumption of cheese. The diminished supply and increasing demand generally brought about an immediate upward trend in prices which resulted in great profit to those dealers who had stored the cheese during the summer. Such a condition, resulting as it did in unsatisfactory prices to the producers, brought about a consolidation of the various factories of the county in an effort to market their output as a unit and to provide storage capacity so that the excess production of cheese during the summer could be held over at the point of production under the ownership of the association.

The efficiency of the cooperative plan of consolidated purchasing and marketing immediately began to have its effect upon privately owned factories, several of which went into bankruptcy or sold out to farmers' companies during the next two years. The added efficiency which secured higher prices under this plan of operation also brought greater returns to the farmers and stimulated the production of milk on all the farms previously supplying these factories. This gave a great impetus to the cooperative movement, so that by the spring of 1909 the cooperative selling agency was handling the output of 16 large factories and 3 private farm factories.

This cooperative plan of selling brought about the establishment of a central office supervised by a secretary-salesman who kept in touch with all the markets and arranged the sale of the entire output of the member factories. The increase in business transacted through this office also brought about the establishment of highly efficient accounting methods, which not only facilitated sales but also improved the quality of the output.

By having only one salesman to handle 90 per cent of the output of the county, the Tillamook factories have been able to get better prices for their cheese. The secretary-salesman knows that his prices must conform closely to the prices for eastern cheese. Hence, the price asked for Tillamook cheese is determined by eastern markets. To the price of New York or Wisconsin cheese is added the freight to the coast point, and from this rate the freight from Tillamook is usually deducted. Although this is the rule, the secretary-salesman explains that it is often broken. The whole cheese situation of the coast, with the supply on hand in the factories and their daily output, is taken into consideration. The secretary-salesman knows that eastern cheese is coming into his territory constantly, and that any attempt to raise the price unduly would stimulate such shipments and result in a hardship to his factories at a later date. By keeping in constant touch with the conditions in eastern markets, he is able to secure the highest possible average prices for cheese the year around.

Close acquaintance with jobbers and wholesalers throughout the Pacific coast has had its advantages. Bad debts have been reduced to the minimum. During the last 10 years the entire loss from this source will not amount to \$500. As the sales have amounted to over \$3,000,000 during that time, the losses from bad debts have amounted to only one-sixtieth of 1 per cent. The terms of sale stipulate cash within 30 days. The secretary-salesman has occasionally suspended business relations with a house which failed to make its payments promptly until it had complied with the terms of the contract.

The regularity with which the returns for cheese come in enables the factories to pay their patrons regularly. Punctual payment is no small factor in the success of the cooperative cheese factory, or, for that matter, in the success of any other farmers' marketing organization.

QUALITY STANDARDIZATION.

The gravest problem encountered in pooling the output of several factories was that of securing a uniform quality. Under the early operation of this plan, numerous complaints were received about the quality of the cheese. The cheese was shipped as it came from the different factories, and the cheese makers mixed their off-flavored and gassy cheese with their best product, bringing the whole output into disrepute. A meeting of the factories selling through one salesman was called. resulting in the organization of the Tillamook County Creamery Association, which began operations in 1909 with a membership of 9 of the largest factories. The object of this organization, according to its by-laws, was in part as follows: To bring the producers of the different creameries in Tillamook County together and maintain just and cordial relations among them, and by cooperation to advance their common interests; to foster and encourage domestic and foreign trade pertaining to the farming interests of Tillamook County and to acquire and disseminate valuable business information; and to adjust controversies between its members and generally to secure to its members the benefits of cooperation in the furtherance of their legitimate pursuits.

The most important action taken by the association was the placing of an inspector in the field to visit regularly each of the factories belonging to it. The duties of the inspector are to help improve the quality and increase the quantity of cheese obtained from the milk of the associated factories. Under his administration the factors responsible for poor cheese practically have been eliminated. Inefficient workmen have been removed, and the methods of making cheese in all of the factories have been standardized. Through the interchange of ideas among cheese makers, the good points responsible for high quality of output in one factory have been introduced in another, and improved methods, such as the use of a commercial starter and of acidity tests for whey, have brought about a much greater certainty as to the quality of the cheese. While undoubtedly there is not nearly so much gassy cheese or high-acid cheese as there was formerly, there is still room for improvement in the quality, as the association has been working more for increased yield than for the highest quality. The increase in the average yield of cheese obtained per hundred pounds of milk is shown by an increase from 10.7 pounds in 1909 to 11.12 pounds in 1914.

The association now includes 18 factories, and the inspector visits each of these factories once a week. He tests one cheese out of each vat produced, and if the cheese is found to conform to a standard set by the Tillamook County Creamery Association the boxes required for the cheese inspected are stamped "Inspected by Tillamook County Creamery Association." If a vat of cheese for any reason falls below the required standard, the boxes are not stamped in this way and this cheese must be shipped in what are known as plain boxes. Indicative of the standard uniformly attained by the various cheese makers, it may be noted that the amount of cheese shipped in plain boxes is now less than 1 per cent of the total output. Plain-boxed cheese is usually consigned to be sold on commission for whatever it will bring. and under this plan of distribution its sale does not have any appreciable effect on the position of the better cheese on the market

BUSINESS PRACTICE.

The business practice followed in the Tillamook County Creamery Association concentrates the marketing and operating control in the hands of a secretary-salesman. The books of record necessary for tabulating and accounting for the operations in the several factories are kept under his direction in the central office. As the milk is received at the factories each morning, the cheese makers enter the milk receipts from each person on a tally sheet. At the beginning and the middle of the month composite tests are made of the milk supplied by each patron. At the end of the month the tally sheets are summarized in a monthly report showing the total amount of milk and the tests for each patron for the month. This monthly summary is sent to the secretary-salesman's office, where it is used as the

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	У	lilk received	•	Cheese produced.			
Factory No.—	1912	1913	1914	1912	1913	1914	
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	
1	4, 809, 293	4, 539, 999	4, 861, 981	527, 233	514, 791	5 50, 592	
2	4, 148, 442	4, 149, 791	4,153,089	464,136	463, 233	463, 846	
3	3,923,074	4,008,258	4,078,036	441,007	451,700	455, 683	
4	2,391,159	2, 287, 492	2, 527, 709	259, 766	253,945	284, 120	
5	2, 276, 749	2, 138, 362	2,106,504	252, 314	233,804	232, 456	
6	2, 120, 895	2,012,366	1,931,413	230, 766	220, 381	210, 871	
7	1,866,008	1, 892, 720	1,901,107	203, 162	210, 931	207, 029	
8	1, 574, 255	1, 672, 663	1, 844, 850	175, 272	189, 765	204,691	
9	1,351,081	1,669,356	1,720,606	147,953	183, 089	192, 845	
10	1, 160, 768	1, 569, 610	1, 595, 005	125, 824	174, 572	174, 620	
11	1, 104, 691	1,015,855	1,262,108	122, 256	110, 293	139, 961	
12	896, 694	932, 640	1,006,872	95, 958	101, 463	111, 63	
13	453, 768	904, 013	• 947, 374	51,876	100, 356	104, 691	
14	470, 214	794,039	889, 548	50, 503	86,074	97,034	
15	394, 901	614, 719	642, 888	40, 647	67, 483	71, 898	
16	224, 522	595, 393	611, 158	22, 231	65, 434	69,364	
17		575, 726	530, 580		60, 451	58, 477	
18		183, 747	465, 493		17,951	51, 335	
19			126, 195			13, 311	
Total	29, 166, 514	31, 556, 779	33, 202, 516	3, 210, 904	3, 505, 716	3, 694,45	

Comparative table of products handled by Tillamook County Creamery Association.

Factory No	Value of cheese.			Factory	Value of cheese.			
	1912	1913	1914	No	1912	1913	1914	
12 34 56 7 89 1010	72, 164, 53 42, 534, 51 41, 115, 58 37, 260, 67	\$79, 769, 31 71, 582, 48 69, 990, 08 38, 214, 69 36, 036, 32 34, 310, 60 32, 571, 84 29, 296, 79 28, 179, 31 26, 974, 72 17, 090, 04	\$84, 799. 84 70, 943. 19 70, 743. 95 43, 777. 94 35, 711. 07 32, 428. 43 38, 853. 76 31, 970. 42 29, 932. 61 26, 585. 03 21, 481. 96	13 14 15 16 17 18 19	8, 324. 53 8, 274. 43 6, 721. 44 3, 505. 12	\$15, 457, 76 15, 470, 11 13, 213, 03 10, 416, 75 10, 075, 86 9, 321, 55 3, 768, 22 541, 748, 46	\$17, 127. 57 16, 066. 00 14, 667. 40 10, 944. 87 10, 674. 78 8, 875. 14 7, 781. 73 2, 028. 84 568, 395. 53	
11	20,177.05	17,099.01	21,481.90					

basis in making out the patron's monthly statement. In addition, each cheese maker is required to make out a weekly report to the secretary-salesman showing the total amount of milk received and the number of cheeses of the different kinds made for each day of the week. Supplementing these reports, the inspector is required to make out a report of the number of cheeses of each variety inspected and of the number of cases of each kind branded as "Inspected by Tillamook County Creamery Association." The inspector's reports are made out daily and cover the factories as inspected by him. By referring to the inspector's reports the secretary-salesman is enabled to keep an accurate account of the number of cheeses of each kind ready for market at all times. This process of accounting makes it possible to manufacture the different styles of cheese according to the market demand. In the relations of the central office with the different commission men who handle the output, the association is enabled to safeguard itself against bad accounts and to distribute its output in those markets where the highest level of prices obtains.

When the shipping season is at its height orders come in rapidly by telephone, telegraph, and mail, and it is not uncommon for sales to average over \$3,000 a day during the months of May, June, and July.

Year.	Milk.	Cheese.	Value.	Yield of cheese. ¹
	Pounds.	Pounds.		Pounds.
1908		2,073,390	\$259, 355. 29	
1909	23, 416, 524	2, 506, 612	386, 135. 81	10.70
1910	23, 639, 664	2, 541, 057	400, 044. 84	10.75
1911	24, 131, 802	2, 619, 229	358, 206. 29	10.85
1912	29, 139, 514	3, 211, 004	524, 718. 61	11.02
1913	31, 566, 888	3, 505, 516	541, 748. 46	11.10
1914	33, 202, 516	3, 694, 458	568, 395. 53	11.12
Total.		20, 151, 266	3,038,604.83	

Total products handled for the last seven years by the Tillamook County Creamery Association.

¹ Per 100 pounds of milk.

The accounting records kept in the central office are arranged so as to account for the pounds of milk delivered by each patron. The value of this milk, figured either as to pounds or as to butterfat content, is credited to the patron's account, and at the end of the month a check for this amount, minus any deductions, is paid to the patron. All funds are disbursed by check, either over the signatures of the officers of the association or, in special cases, over the signature of the secretary-salesman. Supplementing this accounting system, the office operates a simple cost system, covering the manufacturing costs in the making of cheese.

Factory No.—	Milk.	Yield of cheese per hundred- weight.	Cost per pound for making cheese.	Gross price of milk per hundred- weight.	Net returns to farmers.	
					From milk per hundred- weight.	From butter fat, per pound.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Cents.			Cents.
1	4,861,981	11.32	1.75	\$1.744	\$1.546	38.7
2	4, 153, 089	11.17	1.75	1.708	1.513	37.8
3	4,078,036	11.17	1.75	1.735	1.540	38.5
4	2, 527, 709	11.24	1.75	1.732	1.535	38.4
5	2,106,504	11.03	2	1.695	1.474	36.9
6	1,931,413	10.92	2	1.679	1.461	36.5
7	1,901,107	10.88	2	1.675	1.457	36.4
8	1,844,850	11.09	2	1.733	1.511	37.8
9	1, 720, 606	11.21	1.75	1.740	1.544	38.1
10	1, 595, 005	10.95	1.75	1.667	1.475	36.9
11	1, 262, 108	11.09	2	1.624	1.402	35.1
12	1,006,872	11.08	2	1.701	1.479	37.0
13	947, 273	11.05	2.25	1.696	1.447	36, 2
14	889, 548	10.91	2,25	1.649	1.403	35.1
15	642, 888	11.18	2.50	1.702	1.412	35.3
16	611, 158	11.35	2.25	1.747	1.492	37.3
17	530, 580	11.02	2.50	1.673	1.397	34.9
18	465, 493	11.03	2.50	1.672	1.396	34.9
19	126, 195	10.55	3	1.608	1.291	32.3
Total	33, 202, 516	11.12		1.712		

Cost of manufacture and returns to farmers.

The importance of an adequate cost system in both creameries and cheese factories can not be overestimated. Since these types of business, to a great extent, are factories wherein manufacturing costs are largely the basis of success or failure, great care should be taken that all the items which enter into the cost of making the finished article are taken into account.



SOME AMERICAN VEGETABLE FOOD OILS, THEIR SOURCES AND METHODS OF PRODUCTION.

By H. S. BAILEY,

Chemist in Charge, Oil, Fat, and Wax Laboratory, Bureau of Chemistry.

A S far back as we have any authentic records we find that the peoples of Asia Minor used the oil of the olive, and undoubtedly the original salad oil was that obtained from the fruit of the olive tree, which grows luxuriantly in all the Mediterranean countries. With the spread of civilization from its ancient home, the cultivation of olive trees and the utilization of their fruit extended as far as the west coast of Spain. The Phœnicians and early Romans carried this precious oil, which was not only concentrated food but fuel for their lamps as well, to distant countries, whose peoples doubtless quickly learned to prize it highly.

In comparatively recent years the demand for oils suitable for salad dressings and general food purposes has increased so rapidly that now, even in the Mediterranean countries, the total annual production of olive oil is only about one-half the consumption of all the vegetable food oils. Cottonseed, coconut, and peanut oils already are used extensively in the United States, corn oil is beginning to appear in the retail stores, and the sunflower oil of Russia, soy bean, poppyseed, sesame, and numerous other oils of Europe are now making, or sooner or later probably will make, their appearance among American edible oils. We are welcoming to our shores not only the peoples of the Old World, but with them their foods.

Edible oils are food in a form highly concentrated and usually readily assimilated. Pure oils and fats are practically free from water, an ingredient present to some extent in nearly every other food except sugars and thoroughly dried grains. Edible oils contain no indigestible substances, such as the crude fiber of vegetables and the cartilage and tendons of meats. Partly because they are obtained readily in this natural, concentrated condition and partly because of the wide distribution of oil-bearing materials, many of

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these oils are among the cheapest of our food products. As compared with beef, for instance, at 25 cents a pound, cottonseed oil at 20 cents a quart will yield dollar for dollar more than five times the amount of body energy, although, of course, it has not the same tissue-building power.

Since the various vegetable food oils are similar in chemical composition and in digestibility, the question of their relative values for domestic use is one of preference rather than of absolute food value. Just which oil will be best suited to a particular individual often depends more upon the person to be nourished than upon the characteristics of the oil itself. It is a well-known fact that we are often more apt to digest without digestive disturbance a food which is palatable than one which is not: so in a final analysis the question of which oil is the best to use in the kitchen and upon the table resolves itself into the everyday question of what we like best and whether we can afford it. The Russian, accustomed to his sunflower oil, doubtless would think the bland, highly refined American cottonseed oil tasteless, while the Italian peasant, brought up on a low grade of olive oil, firmly believes that the better, sweeter grades he buys in America are adulterated or "diluted."

OLIVE OIL.

Olive oil is produced in Syria, Greece, Italy, southern France, and Spain, and in all the countries along the southern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, with the possible exception of Egypt. In the United States the olive now grows in California (where it was introduced by the early Mission fathers, who planted it wherever they established a mission) and to a less extent in Arizona.

While American olive oil is of high quality and commands a good price, especially in the West, the demand for pickled olives apparently is so great that it pays better to use most of the fruit in this way rather than to crush it for oil. The American olives are not nearly so rich in oil as those grown in Italy. In the "Mission" variety there is only about 20 per cent of oil and in the best "rubra" usually less than 30 per cent, while most of the varieties grown in southern Europe contain between 40 and 60 per cent of oil. By proper selection it will doubtless be possible to produce in the United States olives as rich as these if there is a sufficient demand for them, but at present the tendency seems to be toward the production of a large, firm fruit for pickling rather than of one with a high oil content.

For making the best grades of oil it is customary to gather the olives by hand just before they become fully ripe. The amount of oil present is said to increase gradually up to full maturity, but oil of a superior quality is obtained if the fruit is gathered before it begins to soften. In the manufacture of first-grade oil it is necessary in handling the fruit to guard against bruising, especially if the olives are to be held for even a short time before pressing.

Many producers of olive oil believe that in order to obtain the highest grades of oil the olives should be crushed without breaking the pits, which should be separated from the rest of the fruit before it is pressed. This is by no means always done, and there is reason to believe that it makes little difference whether or not the pits are removed.

The machinery employed for obtaining the oil from the fruit in different regions varies from the crude stone mortars and hand presses employed in Africa to the modern disintegrators and big hydraulic presses of the United States and parts of southern Europe. The process itself, however, is essentially the same to-day as it was a thousand years ago. In California the olives are crushed in immense flat pans by heavy wheels which roll around and around in these shallow bowls just as in the early days the old stones, turned by oxen yoked to the end of a pole, ground in their stone saucers the fruit for the Mission fathers.

The pulp as soon as crushed is put in heavy cloths or sacks and subjected to a gradually increasing pressure. The heavier the first pressing the lower will be the quality of the oil, but the greater the quantity. After this first oil, often called "Virgin" or "Sublime," has practically ceased to run from the press, the marc is wet down with cold water, or, in some instances, removed from the press and reground in a little water, then pressed again. The oil obtained in this second pressing is edible and appears on the market as second quality, or very often is found in the retail trade

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mixed with and sold as first-pressing oil. A third and sometimes a fourth grinding and pressing are given the pulp. These pressings are usually run hot, or at least hot water instead of cold is mixed each time with the marc. The quality of the oil from these hot pressings is comparatively low and the oil, unless chemically refined, is suitable only for making soap or for other technical uses. Abroad the final press cake, which usually contains from 10 to 20 per cent of oil, is extracted with carbon bisulphid or tetrachlorid, but apparently this method has not been found profitable in this country. The oil produced by the extraction process, freed as far as possible from the solvent, is a heavy, dark-green product known as sulphured oil or oliveoil foots and is used only for technical purposes.

The edible grades of oil as they come from the presses are run into tanks or cisterns and allowed to stand for a day or two. The oil gradually rises to the top, while the particles of pulp, water, and gelatinous material settle to the bottom. The clear oil is then dipped or siphoned off and sometimes washed with water to remove small quantities of foreign substances, which, if allowed to remain in the oil, would give it a cloudy appearance and cause it to become rancid in a short time. After standing at least a week in the finishing tank the oil is drawn off, usually through a filter, and is then ready for the table.

In order to procure for the market brands of oil which from year to year will be as nearly uniform in flavor as possible, it has been the custom of the brokers and exporters of Italy to buy oils from various sources and then blend them. In this way certain cities which are centers for olive-oil exportation have become famous for their products. Originally the oils shipped from Lucca were blends of Italian oils of that immediate vicinity, but the demand for these oils has become so great that now many of the oils labeled Lucca are mixtures of Italian and non-Italian oils. While this type of misbranding of foreign oils is not easily prevented, the importation into the United States of olive oil adulterated with peanut, sesame, poppyseed, or cottonseed oil has practically ceased, now that all shipments are examined by the Department of Agriculture before their entry is permitted. During the last few years, however, a more insidious form of adulteration has been practiced to some extent by the foreign brokers, some of whom are mixing with highly flavored, dark-colored oils the bland, almost tasteless refined, or so-called rectified, olive oil. This oil is made from low-grade or rancid oil by treating it with a mineral acid, and possibly with other chemicals. The exact details of the process are a trade secret. So far as is known, the refining and blending of olive oils is not practiced in the United States, and the production of olive oil in this country meets only a small part of the demand for this, the oldest and most widely used of all the vegetable food oils.

COTTONSEED OIL.

Since so little of America is climatically suited to the cultivation of the olive, it is fortunate that we have another food oil which in nearly every respect satisfactorily takes its place—cottonseed oil.

Cottonseed oil is produced in Great Britain, Germany, France, Smyrna, India, China, and South America, but by far the larger portion is made in the United States. Several varieties of cotton seed are pressed in this country. These are generally grouped into two classes—the bald or black, the smooth, lint-free seeds of the Sea Island varieties, and the white or woolly, the seeds from the Upland and similar cottons which come from the gins with a fluffy white coat of lint on them. While there is a climatic and varietal difference in the chemical composition of the cotton seeds, all of them contain on an average about 20 per cent of oil.

The present annual production of cottonseed oil in this country is more than 3,000,000 barrels or 150,000,000 gallons. Of this we export in normal times about 700,000 barrels, chiefly to Mediterranean ports. Although we are by far the largest producers of this oil and export nearly a fourth of our crop, we also import from China and other countries some 10,000 barrels annually.

The machinery and processes used in the production of cottonseed oil in the United States are superior to those of any other country, and plants of American design and construction are in operation in Europe, Asia Minor, India, and China. In the treatment required for the production of an edible oil there is one fundamental difference between cotton seed and the olive. The finest grades of olive oil are those expressed from the fruit with the least possible subsequent treatment, whereas before cottonseed oil is suitable for human food it must be refined, and in addition it is often bleached and deodorized.

In tracing the production of cottonseed oil from the raw seed to the finished edible product it will be followed through the crude-oil mill and then through the refinery. As is the case in any highly developed manufacturing process, there are many variations of the general methods used, and numerous so-called trade secrets are involved; yet the fundamental principles in all these processes are similar.

The cotton seed, as received at the crude-oil mill from the gins, is covered with short cotton fiber and is mixed with broken bolls, stones, nails, and similar trash, all of which must be removed before the seeds are ground. After being run through revolving screens which separate the larger pieces of trash, over shaking sieves and magnets, and through cyclone cleaners, to take out the sand, nails, and dust, the seeds are fed into the machines which remove the lint. These machines, known as delinters, consist of a series of fine-toothed buzz saws set close together on a rapidly revolving horizontal shaft. At the back of each machine is a long, cylindrical brush running so close to the saws that it catches the fiber that they have cut from the seeds and passes it on to the lint reel, which is set just behind it. Here the little, short cotton hairs which the gins failed to remove from the seed are compacted into a felt and rolled out like cotton batting, ready to go to the mattress maker or guncotton manufacturer.

As the seed comes from the last of a set of these linters it is nearly free from lint and ready for the hullers—mills which break the hard outer coat or hull and liberate the soft oil-containing meats. In order to separate the hulls and meats as thoroughly as possible, the material as it comes from the hullers is run over shaking screens. The hulls are passed through a second and sometimes a third huller, and then through additional separators until finally they come out practically free from any of the valuable oil-bearing interior portion. The meats when freed from the hulls are ground through a series of three or more heavy steel rolls and finally carried into the storage bins over the press room.

In the expressing of most of the edible oils frequently several grades are made by a re-pressing of the same batch of raw material. Cottonseed, however, at least in the United States, is pressed only once, and when hydraulic presses are used it is always heated or cooked before pressing. The cooking of the seed is the most important step in the making of the crude oil by the hydraulic or hot process. It requires experience and judgment on the part of the cooker to get the crushed meats in the proper condition to yield the maximum amount of the best possible grade of oil. The cooking is done in a shallow, steam-iacketed pan equipped with a mechanical stirrer, which, as it revolves, mixes the meats thoroughly and prevents uneven cooking. Inside, near the top of the pan, is a perforated steam pipe through which steam may be admitted to moisten the meats should they become too dry. In many mills a second pan. called a subheater. similar to the cooker, is installed just below it and used to hold the cooked batch until the presses are ready for it.

The type of press most commonly used in this country in the production of cottonseed oil is the steel box-frame hydraulic, which operates under a pressure of about 5,000 pounds per square inch. Such a press consists of a series of horizontal steel plates, about 14 inches wide by 34 inches long, set one above the other, about 5 inches apart, when the press is fully open. The plates are perforated or channeled and provided with closely fitting steel sides, so that the whole machine is really a series of steel boxes, without ends, piled one upon the other, the lowest box resting upon a hydraulic piston. Above the top frame is a heavy iron plate fastened to the piston cylinder by four vertical rods, which serve as guides for the sliding frames.

With the press fully open, that is, with the piston at its lowest point, a measured charge of cooked meal is dropped from the subheater, or holder, upon the strip of camel's hair or other press cloth in the cake-former. This cake-former is a steel block with a shallow groove, the size of a single press box in its upper surface. It is so constructed that after the meal has been run upon the press cloth and the two ends turned up over the charge, pressure can be applied from above or below, and the cake, now entirely covered with cloth except on its two long sides, can be subjected to a preliminary squeeze to compact it into shape. When the charge is in the cake-former pressure is applied for an instant and then released. A sheet of steel the width of the groove is slid underneath the cake, which is removed, cloth and all, from the former and pushed into the lowest frame of the press.

One after another all the boxes are thus charged until the press is filled; the compressed air is then turned on the hydraulic ram, forcing the frames upward, each against the one above it. The oil as it is squeezed through the cloths flows down over the sides of the press into a gallery around the bottom frame and out through troughs to the settling cistern. So perfectly has every detail of the construction and operation of these huge presses been worked out that they are often charged, pressed, and discharged ready for refilling in less than 20 minutes.

The dark-red crude oil, as it flows from the press, always contains some fine meal, which has been squeezed through the cloths. The larger particles of this meal collect in the oil troughs in the floor below the press, through which the oil flows to the settling tanks, and are shoveled out and repressed with the next batch of meats. To clarify the oil still further, before it is pumped or shipped to the refinery, it is held in settling tanks or cisterns until most of the finer particles have settled out.

In addition to the production of crude oil by the hydraulic process just described, an increasing amount is being made in mills equipped with a type of continuous-working press known as the expeller. Some of this oil is cold pressed, that is, the meats are not cooked before pressing, but in other plants the material fed into the expellers is treated in much the same manner as though it were intended for the hydraulic press. In the cold-press mills, after cleaning and delinting, the seed is merely ground, run through a tempering apparatus, where it is dried if too wet or blown with moist steam if too dry, and then fed into the expeller, hulls and all.

The expeller is built somewhat on the principle of the ordinary meat grinder, and is simply an interrupted screw revolving inside a slotted steel barrel. The ground seed enters through a hopper at one end of the barrel, is pressed along toward the other end, and finally discharged around a cone, which can be set in or out of the outlet orifice so as to give any desired pressure. The oil is squeezed from the seeds by the pressure of the screw, runs out through the small slits in the barrel, and after settling or, better, filtering through a filter press, is ready for shipment to the refinery.

The tempering of the seed, which is often necessary to make it press properly, is really a preheating process, and as the heat due to pressure and friction in the expellers is sufficient to make the oil and cake as they come from the press actually hot, the term "cold pressed" is not strictly applicable to oil obtained by the expeller process. Although this crude oil is very different from that obtained by the regular hot pressing, there is very little, if any, difference between the two oils after they have been refined.

As the yield of oil by either process is only about 45 gallons per ton, or less than 17 per cent of the weight of seed handled, and as a large part of the ground cake and hulls can be used as feed or fertilizer by the local farmers, the crude-oil mills often are located in the smaller towns throughout the cotton-growing sections. From these the oil is shipped in steel tank cars to more centrally situated refineries or to the packing houses and cooking-compound manufacturers of the North.

As previously stated, crude cottonseed oil is not suitable for human food, even when made from sound, sweet seed, for, although it has a pleasing nutty flavor, it contains coloring matter and other foreign substances such as the albuminous bodies and free fatty acids. The first step toward rancidity in an oil is, apparently, the formation of free fatty acids. The glycerids—chemical compounds of glycerin and fatty acids—begin to break up, and instead of the sweet neutral glycerids we have the acrid, free fatty acids and ordinary glycerin. Before the oil is marketable as a table oil, the acids must be neutralized and removed and the major portion of the coloring matter taken out. It is this process which is known as refining.

As the crude oil is received at the refinery it is run into storage tanks or pumped directly from the cars into the weighing tanks and then to the refining kettles—tall cylindrical sheet-iron tanks with conical bottoms and provided with a series of steam-heating coils extending part way up the sides. During the refining the oil is stirred either by some form of mechanical stirrer or by compressed air blown in through perforated pipes.

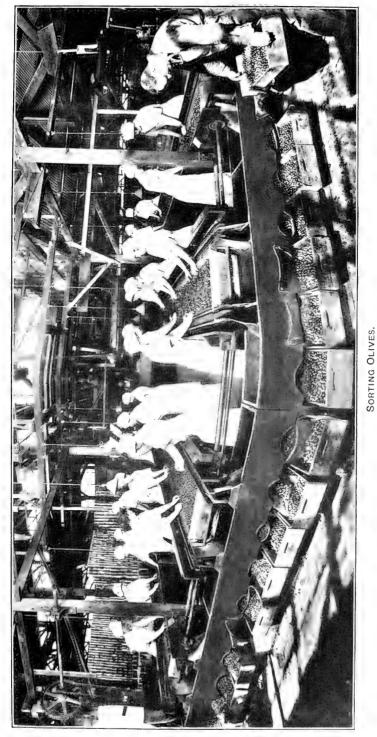
When a tank has been filled with crude oil to the extent, perhaps, of 100,000 pounds, the agitator is started and steam turned on to the heating coils until the desired temperature has been reached. This varies with different oils and in different plants, but is usually around 85° F. While the tank is being heated a sample of the oil is tested in the laboratory.

By the time the oil in the refining tank has been raised to the proper temperature the refiner knows from the laboratory report just how much caustic-soda solution to add to make a good refining. The lye solution is run rapidly into the oil and the agitation and heating continued until the dark-brown, almost black, particles of soap formed by the action of the lye on the free acids clot together into little spongy masses and begin to settle. The steam is turned off from the heating coils when the oil reaches about 120° F., the agitation is decreased, and finally stopped, and the tank allowed to stand several hours until the soap settles to the bottom, leaving the clear, golden-yellow oil above. This is siphoned off into a series of settling tanks, and after standing a while is transferred into a second and sometimes a third set of tanks. The oil at this stage is known as "summer vellow" and is used largely in making margarin and as a cooking oil. Before being placed on the market for table use the summer vellow oil as a rule is bleached and deodorized.

In addition to caustic soda or in place of it many other chemicals have been used in refining. A strong salt brine sometimes is added to produce a cleaner separation of the soap stock, and water glass, silicate of soda, and borax have been recommended, and, in the early days, bichromate of potash was tried.

Cottonseed oil, in common with most of the other edible vegetable oils, contains a large enough proportion of the socalled stearins, that is, glycerids of palmatic and similar fatty solids, so that in cold weather these separate out, giving to the oil a milky appearance which makes it undesirable for Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE XXXI.



The olive surverse they hand as they pass on moving belts in front of the girls, the imperfect and off-color fruit being culled out to be used for making oil.

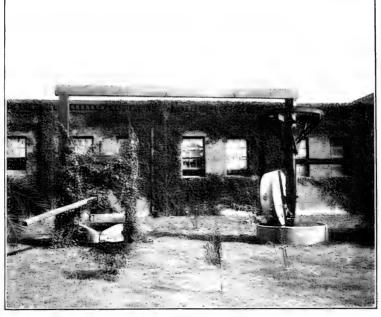


FIG. I.-OLD OLIVE MILL AND PRESS.

Goaded by a mission father, the oxen walked round and round, rolling the heavy stone wheel over the olives in the flat stone dish. From time to time the pulp was scooped out into cloths and pressed in a stone saucer by means of the screw and lever.

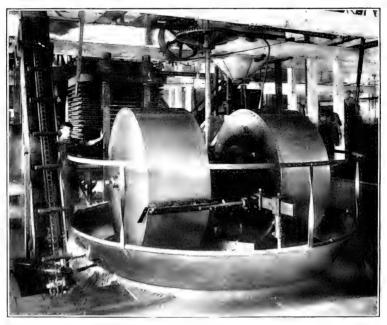


FIG. 2.-GRINDING OLIVES.

Heavy rolls like great bull wheels running in a huge iron saucer grind the olives to a pulp, which is then elevated to the charging bins.

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PLATE XXXIII.



FIG. 1.-PRESSING OLIVES (BACK); STRIPPING THE CAKE (FRONT).

After pressing in the big hydraulic presses the cakes of olive pomace are wheeled to one side, the cloths stripped off and refilled with fresh pulp, and these new "cheeses" are then run back into the press.

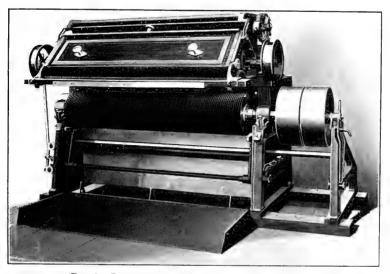


FIG. 2.—DELINTER FOR CLEANING COTTON SEED. In the delinters a gang of fine-toothed buzz saws cuts the lint from the cotton seeds and leaves the seed nearly bald ready for hulling.

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PLATE XXXIV.

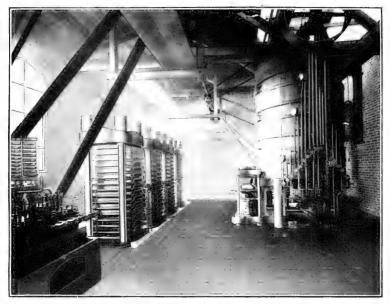


FIG. I.-PRESS ROOM.

From the steam-heated "cooker" the ground cotton seed is run into the "cake former" and the cakes, as fast as shaped, are transferred to the hydraulic presses, one cake to a shelf, 16 to a press.

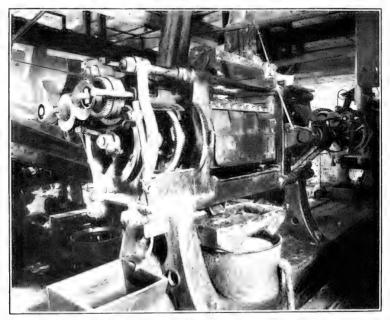


FIG. 2. OIL EXPELLER, PEANUT OIL MILL.

The peanute flow continuous by into this huge scusage-grinder sort of a machine and the oil in a bright yellow gream runs out below into the settling cisterns. The cake, in hot, fragrant ribbon 5, unwinds at the discharge end of the press into a conveyor.

use in cold climates. To produce an oil that will not "cloud up" and sometimes even solidify in winter, the summer yellow grade is "wintered," that is, held for a time in chill rooms or in tanks surrounded by cold brine until it becomes semisolid. This mushlike mass is then pressed, or run through centrifugals, to separate the solid stearin from the lower-melting oleins. The oil thus obtained is known as "winter yellow" and, if properly made, remains perfectly clear even in cold weather.

Housewives frequently show preference for particular colors in foods; thus, they demand greenish olive oil, goldenvellow butter, and light-vellow cottonseed oil. To meet the demand for a light-yellow oil and also to supply the lardsubstitute maker with one from which he can produce a white cooking compound, the refined vellow oil must be decolorized. In this bleaching process the vellow oil is heated in tall steel tanks similar to those used in the refinery, and is thoroughly mixed with a small amount of fuller's earth. sometimes called clay by the refiner. This fuller's earth is mined in Florida and other sections of the United States. although until recently the best qualities were imported from England. Various kinds of charcoal and animal blacks are occasionally added to the fuller's earth in small quantities to assist in the decolorization. After the batch of oil and earth in the clay tanks has been thoroughly mixed and heated, it is pumped into filter presses. From these presses the oil runs bleached and clear, leaving behind in the cells of the press the decolorizing materials.

Deodorization is necessary in order to remove the undesirable flavors natural to the oil, or remaining as a result of the claying process, and to make it bland and nearly tasteless. At this point, anyone going through a refinery probably would find that the door to the next department bore the sign "Positively no admittance." Numerous processes for deodorizing oils have been patented and many unpatented processes also are in operation, the secrets of which are guarded as among the most valuable assets of the companies using them. Since there is scarcely any color, taste, or odor to the pure chemical glycerids which make up nearly 99 per cent of all the common food oils, practically all the color, odor, and characteristic flavors must be in the remaining 1 or 2 per cent. The flavor substances, as a rule, are much more volatile than the bulk of the oil. and can be removed by simply heating the oil in a very high vacuum. This process, unfortunately, is only applicable as vet to small-scale laboratory experiments, and in practice the deodorizing is effected by washing with steam or heated air. It is common knowledge that fats readily absorb strong odors from the atmosphere. The good housekeeper takes care that the onions and cooked cabbage are not shut up in her refrigerator with the butter and lard. The refiner also has learned that unless the odor-causing bodies are removed from contact with his oil as rapidly as they are liberated it is difficult to deodorize the oil properly. For this reason the deodorizing process is usually conducted under vacuum in large cylindrical tanks covered air-tight and having a big gooseneck outlet pipe at the top, which is connected to a vacuum exhaust system. The oil is heated by means of closed steam coils, and the odors are swept out with superheated steam or hot air, which is injected through perforated pipes or nozzles at the bottom of the tank and carried off by the vacuum pipe at the top.

From a cloudy, dark-red, sometimes strong, rancid-tasting, crude cottonseed oil there is thus produced by refining, bleaching, and deodorizing a clear, light-yellow, bland, almost tasteless, and odorless product, which for those who do not care for a marked characteristic flavor in their salad dressings or for the lard taste in their pastry is a very desirable food oil.

PEANUT OIL.

The peanut is now rapidly coming into prominence as one of the most satisfactory crops for those districts of the South in which the boll weevil is making the raising of cotton uncertain. The ravages of this pest, which has been gradually working northward and eastward through the Southern States, have decreased the production of cotton in some sections to such an extent that the local oil mills have been forced to ship their seed long distances or find some other material upon which to operate. The peanut not only supplies the crusher with a splendid raw material, but the hay and press cake make highly desirable cattle feeds. It is not known whether the peanut, which is probably a native of Brazil, was used by the aborigines as a source of oil, but certainly in a comparatively short time after the early explorers carried this product of the Western World back to Europe its value as an oil material was realized. Peanut oil, or arachis oil as it is usually known abroad, may be expressed from any one of the many varieties of peanuts. That this oil is one of the most important of the world's food oils is shown by the fact that annually over 120,000 metric tons of peanuts in the shell, together with about 240,000 metric tons of shelled nuts, are crushed in Marseille alone, yielding 15,500,000 gallons of edible oil.

Abroad. peanut oil is made almost invariably from shelled nuts. Mills that buy the nuts in the shell first hull them by machinery designed particularly for that purpose. The foreign matter, such as sticks and stones, and a small quantity of unshelled peanuts are next removed by running the shelled stock over screens similar to the shakers used in the cottonoil mills. The inner or red skins are then removed as completely as possible by an air blast or fan mill. When thoroughly cleaned the kernels are ground, usually by a system of corrugated rolls which do not crush them as fine as cotton seed is ground for the hydraulic presses. The material when ground is put into press cloths and pressed in a machine somewhat similar to the ordinary fruit or cider press used in this country. These presses have no protecting sides or boxes such as are commonly found in the American hydraulic press, and the pressure which is applied to the peanuts is much less than that used with cotton seed. When the press is full the pressure is applied and the material allowed to stand under pressure until a little over half the oil has been squeezed out. This gives what is known as colddrawn oil, which is nearly colorless, has a pleasant, nutty taste, and needs no refining to make it suitable for salad or cooking purposes, provided, of course, the original peanut material was clean and free from rancid nuts.

After the first pressing the cakes are taken out of the cloths, reground, a small quantity of moisture added, and after being heated for a few minutes new cakes are formed and again pressed. The second oil thus obtained is inferior in quality to the oil of the first pressing and goes into a lower grade of edible oil. A third pressing and possibly in some mills a fourth, both of course after regrinding and heating, are sometimes made before the cake is exhausted.

In Europe the finest grades of peanut oil are used exclusively for edible purposes, and practically all that is produced in France is consumed there, only second-grade peanut oils being exported to the United States.

Of the five different varieties of peanuts grown in this country the Spanish is undoubtedly the best suited to oil production. It is adapted to a wide range of soil and climatic conditions, and contains an appreciably greater quantity of oil than do the Virginia Bunch, Virginia Runner, or African varieties.

The production of peanut oil on a large scale in this country is yet in its infancy, but the cottonseed-oil mills located in the peanut-growing territory and in charge of men thoroughly acquainted with oil machinery are rapidly taking up the pressing of peanuts.

While there are now perhaps 20 or 30 mills pressing peanuts, only a very few of these were built especially to handle this material. The others are cottonseed-oil mills, which have been remodeled to fit them for peanut-oil production. In some of these cottonseed-oil mills the unshelled peanuts, after being well cleaned to remove all the sticks, stems, stones, and adhering dirt, are run through disintegrators and then directly into expellers. In some only a part of the oil is expressed the first time and the cake returned for a second pressing, but more often only one pressing is made, which gives a lower grade of oil than would be obtained by a lighter partial crushing. In other mills cleaned shelled nuts are used, and when the stock is fresh and sound and not pressed too hard the first time the oil is of the highest quality obtainable.

The regular hydraulic presses also are being utilized for the production of peanut oil by those cottonseed-oil mills so equipped, and both shelled and unshelled nuts have been pressed, sometimes hot and sometimes without any cooking. This lack of uniformity in the American practice and the use of all sorts of stock from old, rancid, cull peanuts to prime fresh material have resulted in the production of oils of every quality, some of which require refining and bleaching the same as do cottonseed oils, while others are sweet and bright, ready for the table as soon as they have been filtered.

In even the best oil as it comes from the presses there is, of course, some insoluble matter, fine parts of the peanut, which must be filtered out to prevent a rapid spoiling of the oil. When good, sound stock is cold pressed and the oil well filtered, the peanut oil obtained, like that of the olive, is sweet and brilliant, ready for the housewife just as it comes from the mill, in fact, just as it existed in the peanuts themselves. Off-grade peanut oils, made either from spoiled nuts or from sound nuts improperly treated, can be refined and the disagreeable odor and flavor removed, but such oils are lacking in the characteristic sweet peanut taste of a virgin oil and are inferior for salad and general table purposes.

There is very little demand in the United States at the present time for a high-grade table peanut oil, but many who have tried the cold-pressed oil for salads consider it very satisfactory and think that practically the only difference between peanut oil and olive oil is one of flavor. Just as some people like grapefruit better than oranges, there are those who prefer an oil with a marked characteristic taste, such as olive oil, to a bland oil, such as refined cottonseed oil, and many who have become accustomed to peanut oil with its mild nutty flavor think it more palatable than any of the other vegetable food oils.

CORN OIL.

Within the last decade there has come into prominence in the United States another food oil which, like cottonseed oil, was originally a by-product. Corn oil, or, as it is sometimes called, maize oil, exists in the small germ portion of our common Indian corn. Although this germ itself is more than half oil, there is only from 3 to 6.5 per cent of oil present in the entire kernel. Were it not for the fact that in the preparation of cornstarch and brewer's grits, and sometimes in the making of corn meal and other corn products, the germ is more or less completely separated from the rest of the grain, corn oil doubtless would be a mere curiosity, as it would not pay to extract it.

Oils exposed to air and light, especially oils finely divided and mixed with the enzyms which occur to a greater or

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less extent in all oleaginous seeds, quickly become rancid and unfit for food. Because of this rapid deterioration in the oil portion of corn it has been found advisable to remove the germ from hominy and corn meal when these are to be kept for any length of time before being used. In the preparation of cornstarch, which is practically a pure carbohydrate, it is of special importance that all the corn germs be separated from the starchy portion of the grain.

In the degerminating of corn two distinctly different processes are now in use in the United States. In the older one. known as the wet process, the corn is soaked in dilute sulphurous acid for some time, and yields a germ in which the oil is already rancid when extracted. The corn oil made from these germs either has to be used for technical purposes or else refined to make it suitable for food. In the newer process, usually known as the dry process, no water is added to the grain, but the germs are removed by mechanical means. If the corn is sound the oil can be used for food purposes with little or no refining. Unfortunately the dry process vields only about one-fifth as much germ as the wet process, so that it has not entirely replaced the latter method, which is still generally used in the manufacture of starch and glucose. In making brewer's grits and corn meal a certain amount of germ may be left in the finished product, but it is essential that the corn itself should not be soaked, as this would spoil the finished product.

The wet process first came into use about 20 years ago, when it was discovered that the difference between the specific gravity of the corn germs and the rest of the kernel was such that the germs in certain strengths of starch water floated on top, while the major portion of the kernel settled to the bottom. In operating the wet process the shelled corn is first soaked for several days in large steep tanks in water containing a small amount of sulphur dioxid. The dilute acid added coagulates the glutinous material which otherwise would be difficult to remove later from the starch. During the steeping the corn swells and the germs become toughened, so that they are not readily broken up in the grinding process. The water and corn from the steep tanks are run together through attrition mills, which crack the grains and loosen the germs. The mixture, which, as it flows out of these grinders, is a sort of thin gruel, is fed into the germ separators-long rectangular steel tanks about 4 feet wide, with a semicircular bottom. These separators are filled with starch water of a specific gravity that will permit the germs to float and the grits to sink. As the gruel is fed in at one end of the separator it drops to the bottom and is gradually worked toward the other end of the tanks by a rapidly revolving beater. This beater removes the germs from the starchy portion of the grain, and as they rise to the top they are skimmed off by an endless belt which runs along just below the surface of the water. The starchy portion of the corn works along the bottom of the separator and is finally discharged through an automatic gate at the far end of the tank. The germs from the separator go next to a shaker screen of bolting cloth and are washed free from adhering starch particles by a spray of water. From this screen they are transferred to some form of moisture expeller which squeezes out the excess of water. They are then ready for the driers-long, nearly horizontal cylinders heated by steam or other means—which reduce the moisture content of the germs from 55 to not over 5 per cent. The dry germs are then put into bins and allowed to cool and cure for two or three hours, because if pressed immediately as they come from the kilns they are too brittle to give a satisfactory vield of oil.

The germs, after curing, are tough and leathery. They are then run through a series of flaking rolls which flatten them and break the oil cells, but do not grind the material into a flour which would be hard to hold in the oil presses. While hydraulic presses could be used, as in the cottonseed-oil mills, the general practice in the United States is to run the germs directly from the flaking rolls into expellers similar to those already described in connection with the production of cottonseed and peanut oils.

In the dry process the corn, instead of being soaked, is heated with live steam until it contains about 18 per cent of moisture. It is then put through a machine known as the automatic degerminator, which removes the bran from the whole corn, breaks the kernels, and partially separates the germs. From the degerminator the mixture of cracked corn and broken germs is passed through a series of screens and aspirators, where, by means of suction and sifting on wire screening, a further separation is made of the germ from the starchy portion of the corn kernel. The germ taken out by the aspirators is still partially mixed with grits and is again run through flaking rolls and aspirators, which suck out the lighter germ particles and leave the grits behind.

The pressing of the dry-process germs is similar in every way to that used in getting the oil out of the material obtained by the wet process. When the germ comes from the last aspirators it is tempered if necessary to insure the proper moisture content, being dried, if too wet, or moistened with live steam, if too dry, and is pressed in any suitable form of press.

Corn oil is not as yet a common household product, but it is now being placed upon the market in small retail packages for use as a table and cooking oil. For some time large quantities of the oil have been used for technical purposes, and since the methods for producing a sweet, attractive oil have been perfected, the manufacturers of edible fats are using increasing amounts of this product in making lard substitutes.

AGRICULTURE ON GOVERNMENT RECLAMATION PROJECTS.

By C. S. SCOFIELD, Agriculturist in Charge, Western Irrigation Agriculture, and F. D. FARBELL, Agriculturist in Charge, Demonstrations on Reclamation Projects, Bureau of Plant Industry.

FARMING UNDER IRRIGATION.

THE development of agriculture under irrigation involves conditions that are essentially different from those of ordinary farming. In general, the labor cost of crop production is somewhat greater, the necessary investment of capital is larger, and the requirements of social organization are more complex. These conditions require that irrigation farming shall yield larger returns than ordinary farming if it is to be successful. Of the three conditions mentioned the essential complexity of the social organization is the least understood by those who have to take part in it.

The development of an irrigation enterprise necessitates a period of pioneer existence. This period, unlike most of the pioneering with which many people are familiar, involves community problems which must be dealt with from the very beginning. On Government reclamation projects these problems are more conspicuous than elsewhere, chiefly because the colonists who occupy them have come together suddenly from widely different conditions of life and usually without previous experience to guide them.

The underlying purpose that has influenced legislative and administrative policies regarding Government reclamation has been to establish homes on the land rather than to provide the most efficient means for increased agricultural production. But successful home making is dependent upon a reasonable degree of material prosperity. Thus, the economic problems and possibilities of irrigation farming must be understood and realized if this great experiment in the reclamation of arid lands is to be made a success.

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COURSE OF DEVELOPMENT.

Prior to the recent rapid expansion of irrigation development it was generally believed that the reclaimed lands could be utilized profitably for the production of such special crops as orchard fruits, truck crops, sugar beets, and alfalfa. Recent experience, however, has demonstrated that these crops can not be depended upon to meet the requirements of the situation. New projects do not show immediately the assortment or balance of industries that ultimately are to become established. There is instead a rather regular sequence of development, beginning with the production of alfalfa and small grains and gradually reaching a great diversity of crops and industries. Finally, out of this diversity a few major industries become permanent.

Almost invariably it is desirable to get the land seeded to alfalfa as soon as possible, not only because of the usefulness of the crop itself but also because its growth greatly increases the productivity of the soil. It is a common practice to seed wheat, oats, or barley as a nurse crop for the alfalfa. Moreover, many farmers plant small grains as a first-year crop because of the quick returns and as a method of preparing the new soils for the production of perennial crops. Hence, on the newly irrigated lands, alfalfa and small grains occupy a large proportion of the cultivated acreage. As the soils begin to respond to cultivation, sugar beets, potatoes, truck crops, orchard fruits, and, on the southwestern projects, cotton are added to the cropping system.

Thus the agriculture of these projects is gradually changing and developing toward a diversity which ultimately will include a number of different crops, with the chief emphasis placed on those which under local climatic and economic conditions prove to be most profitable. The rate and direction of this development vary, of course, on the different projects. If account is taken of the 24 Government reclamation projects now in operation, including at present about 19,000 farms with about 800,000 acres in production, the areas devoted to the more important crops are approximately as follows, in terms of the total irrigated acreage: Forage (chiefly alfalfa), 50 per cent; cereals (chiefly wheat, oats,

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barley, and corn), 25 per cent; fruit crops, 7 per cent; potatoes, 3 per cent; seeds (chiefly clover and alfalfa), sugar beets, and cotton, each 2 per cent; and truck crops, 1 per cent.

PROBLEMS OF CROP DISPOSAL.

The problems encountered in the production of crops are. much less difficult than the problems of profitable disposal and utilization. The reclamation projects are all located in the sparsely settled Western States, far removed from the great consuming centers. Because of this fact the supply of crop products in these areas exceeds the local demand. and the problems of distant marketing must be worked out. Transportation costs from the reclamation projects to the great marketing centers are high. Furthermore, as the underlying purpose of Government reclamation is to provide homes for as many families as possible, the farm units on the reclamation projects are small. This results in a relatively small output per farm, and this in turn necessitates cooperation in marketing and in some of the enterprises of production. Groups of farmers must work together to attain those objects which the individual farmer is powerless to accomplish.

This does not mean that cooperation should be regarded as a panacea, but rather that the solution of certain specific problems of production and of marketing requires cooperation. In view of the fact that our farmers are still relatively inexperienced in matters of cooperation, there is need for a clear understanding of the purposes to be accomplished and for special attention to the methods of procedure.

To secure the necessary efficiency in meeting these problems of crop disposal requires that settlers on the reclamation projects endeavor as early as possible to develop definite agricultural industries for which the local conditions are favorable. It is the purpose of this paper to discuss briefly a number of the agricultural industries that have been or may become important on reclamation projects. This discussion may serve to show something of the present status of agriculture on these projects and to indicate what now appears to be the direction of progress.

THE SUGAR-BEET INDUSTRY.

The production of sugar beets has been one of the important industries on these irrigated lands. Where the climatic and soil conditions are favorable the crop has been fairly profitable, and while the returns are seldom very large they are reasonably certain. There is no serious marketing problem in this industry, because the beets are grown under contract at a price stipulated in advance of planting. The seed, and, if the farmer so desires, the necessary hand labor, are provided by the manufacturing company which purchases This company also provides field men to visit the beets. the farmer from time to time and advise with him as to the best cultural methods to use in producing the crop. These factors have been influential in maintaining and extending the irrigated area devoted to beets, in spite of the fact that the possible profit from beets appears to be less than from many other crops.

There are some undesirable features in the sugar-beet industry. The production of the crop requires much hand labor during two brief periods of the season-one in early summer, when the beets must be thinned and weeded, and one in the autumn, when the crop is harvested. In some places where the population is dense this labor may be locally available, but ordinarily it is necessary to import labor, and the people usually brought in and the circumstances under which they live are such that they constitute an undesirable social element. There is also a tendency in the sugar-beet industry toward the rental of land for beet production and toward continued cropping on the same land without a suitable crop rotation. Such intensive specialization does not make for the best development of an agricultural community. The production of sugar beets is possible only within reasonable distance of a sugar factory. These factories are large and expensive, so that unless a large acreage is available for beet production it is not feasible to construct a plant.

In respect to certain social and economic factors, the sugarbeet industry illustrates the essential points which need to be considered in the effective utilization of irrigated land. It is first of all a continuing or permanent industry. It is reasonably certain to yield a fair return on the labor and capital invested in production. The crop fits well into a rotation with alfalfa and the other common field crops. The advisory assistance of the field men employed by the sugar company is helpful, particularly to the inexperienced farmer. With an assured market for the crop, the farmer has every incentive to devote his bests efforts to increasing the efficiency of production, and the profits increase rapidly as the yields exceed the minimum which covers the cost of production.

In some of the points already enumerated the sugar-beet industry is essentially different from any other industry followed on irrigated land. While some of these practices are possible only with beet growing, others might be adapted, at least in part, to other industries with resulting advantage. While none of the sugar factories in this country is cooperative in the ordinary sense of that term, yet in another sense the cooperation between the manufacturer and the producer is very close and helpful. The widely prevalent custom of paying for the beets on a definitely adjusted scale of prices, so that the beets which are richer in sugar bring higher prices, is a stimulus to good farming, and the certainty of market and price, by eliminating one element of risk, also encourages the farmer to put forth his best efforts to secure high production.

POTATO PRODUCTION.

On several of the reclamation projects the soil and climatic conditions are favorable for the production of large crops of potatoes. A rotation in which this crop follows alfalfa not only makes for large yields of potatoes, but also leaves the land in good tilth for other crops. Yet potato production as an industry has not been important on many of the newer irrigated projects. This is due chiefly to the uncertainty of marketing. Were it possible to have for potatoes a market that is as definite and secure as that for sugar beets, the extent of the industry might now be much larger, even though the prices were to range below what is often received or ordinarily expected.

Where potato production is not well organized it has been the common experience that in only one year in three, or at best one year in two, is the price such as to return a profit to the grower. Sometimes there is no market or the prices offered are so low that the crop is used for feed or allowed to rot on the farm.

There are several obvious possibilities in the direction of improving the marketing situation, particularly on the northern projects. These possibilities may be achieved more easily through community cooperation than by individual There are two important demands for potatoes. action. The larger, of course, is for food, but there is also an extensive market for seed for planting. In order to reach either of these markets effectively it is of first importance that a community go into the industry seriously, with the purpose of continuing in it through years of poor prices as well as through years of good prices. When a certain region becomes known to the trade as a reliable source for potatoes it soon comes to enjoy an advantage that is a great asset. Buyers become accustomed to handling the crop and will take it all up before going into newer regions to supply their needs. The importance of community action in establishing the potato industry can not be too strongly emphasized. Without it the individual farmer on a reclamation project can scarcely hope to find a profitable market.

The first step to be taken by a community is to limit the number of varieties of potatoes that are to be grown and to continue the production of the same varieties from year to year. It is better to have only one variety, or at most two varieties, in a community, because it is then possible to develop a discriminatory market, to establish a reputation, and to ship in large lots of uniform character. Community action in potato production also affords an opportunity for the farmers to protect themselves against the introduction of certain dangerous diseases that are carried with the seed. It also makes possible the development of a system of certification of the product as being true to variety and free from disease and thereby secures important market advantages.

SEED PRODUCTION.

The production of seed, particularly of forage crops, has been developed on several reclamation projects and may come to have a place among the important industries on

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these projects. As the present time alfalfa seed is probably the most important of these crops. This country has not in recent years produced all the alfalfa seed needed, and large importations have been necessary. Speaking generally. the imported seed is less satisfactory than domestic seed, and since the outbreak of the European war these importations have been seriously interrupted. Notwithstanding these facts, which contribute to the ruling high prices of alfalfa seed, and the relative stability of the market for that commodity, serious difficulties are likely to be encountered in selling the crop. Similar difficulties are encountered in marketing the seeds of other plants. Seed crops are more susceptible to environmental conditions than most other crops. As a result, there are large variations from year to year in the available supplies and, consequently, in market prices. While these seeds are not so quickly perishable as are potatoes, the market demand and the prices fluctuate as widely. In view of these conditions the production of forage-crop seed should not be undertaken in a haphazard manner. A satisfactory industry can be developed only by intelligent and persistent attention to the business.

While community action may not be quite as essential in the seed industry as in potato production, it is, nevertheless, highly advantageous. By such action it is easier to develop reliable outlets for the seed and to establish a reputation which soon becomes an asset of material value. Seed-producing associations of farmers are useful not only as effective selling agencies, but they may provide for field inspection so as to insure the purity of the variety, and they may inspect, class, and certify the quality of the seed. These functions are of the utmost importance in meeting trade requirements and result in larger profits to the grower than can be expected where individuals act separately.

Because of the periodical fluctuation of yield and of market prices, the seed industry is uncertain and likely to be disappointing unless it is firmly established and continued from year to year. For the same reason it is inadvisable to devote a large proportion of the farm to the production of seed crops. The methods of production are often complicated and can be mastered only by constant attention to the business. The farmer who can irrigate his crops has a

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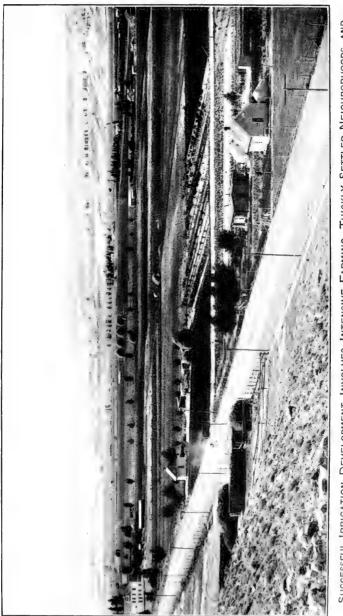
marked advantage in seed production over the farmer who can not, because of the critical water requirements of the seed crop. This feature, together with the relatively favorable climatic conditions that obtain in irrigated districts, gives advantages which should be made use of by irrigation farmers; but, on the other hand, these advantages do not justify exclusive specialization in the seed industry.

COTTON PRODUCTION.

The production of cotton is possible on only a few of the southwestern reclamation projects, and on these it has become important only recently. Interest in the possibility of utilizing these irrigated lands for cotton production has been stimulated by the decreased production in parts of the cotton belt, following the invasion of the boll weevil.

While much of the cotton so far produced on the irrigated lands has been of the ordinary short-staple varieties, it has become increasingly apparent that these must in time give place to varieties that yield the more valuable long staple, either of the American Upland or of the Egyptian type. It is economically unsound to devote high-priced irrigated land, having a long growing season, to the production of the cheaper types of cotton instead of the high-priced longstaple types, which have been found to yield equally well and for which there is a strong demand.

The production of cotton by irrigation enjoys certain important advantages which should be understood clearly and utilized more fully. Irrigation projects on which cotton production is possible are nearly all isolated from other cotton-producing regions. This isolation affords an opportunity to prevent the encroachment or invasion of certain insect pests, such as the boll weevil, and also, because of the definite limits of the community, it is easier to establish and maintain an industry based upon a single variety or type of cotton. The advantage to a community of isolation as an aid in preventing the invasion of noxious insects or plant diseases is so obvious as not to require discussion; but it may not be so generally appreciated that such isolation also favors the restriction of cotton production in a community to a single variety, or at least to a single type, and that such restriction is greatly to be desired.



Successful Irrigation Development Involves Intensive Farming, ThickLy Settled Neighborhoods, and Complex Social Relations.

The underlying purpose of Government reclamation has been to provide homes on the hand. (Photograph from the United States Reclamation Service.)

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PLATE XXXV.

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PLATE XXXVI.



FIG. I.-IRRIGATING SUGAR BEETS.

Beet production is one of the most dependable industries for irrigated lands and is unique in that it has no marketing problems. (Photograph from the United States Reclamation Service.)



FIG. 2.—AN EXAMPLE OF INTENSIVE SPECIALIZATION IN FRUIT FARMING UNDER IRRIGATION.

A greater diversification of industries would be safer, though perhaps less spectacular. (Photograph from the United States Reclamation Service.)



FIG. 1.-IN THE FIRST YEARS OF IRRIGATION FARMING AN EXCESS OF ALFALFA HAY IS OFTEN PRODUCED.

This crop may be made more profitable if fed to live stock than if sold off the farm.



FIG. 2.-A SMALL FLOCK OF SHEEP CAN BE KEPT CHEAPLY AND BE EXTREMELY USEFUL ON AN IRRIGATED FARM.

The sheep can utilize the aftermath on grain and hay fields and keep down the weeds along fence rows and ditch banks. (Photograph from the United States Reclamation Service.)



FIG. 3.-THE FEEDING OF STEERS FROM THE SURROUNDING RANGES IS ONE OF THE WAYS OF UTILIZING THE ALFALFA CROP TO ADVANTAGE.

The West must continue to produce increased quantities of meat, and irrigation farming should stimulate rather than hinder progress in this direction. (Photograph from the United States Reclamation Service.)

Where only one kind of cotton is grown in a community it becomes possible to achieve results in production and in marketing that are quite out of the question where several different varieties or types are grown. This is more particularly true with long-staple cotton, where full market values can be secured only by maintaining the uniformity of the product from year to year. In order to maintain the uniformity of the product, it is necessary to make provision for a continuing supply of seed for planting which will reproduce the desired type of fiber and be free from the contamination which results from the accidental mixture of seed at the gin or cross-pollination between adjacent fields. Where several different kinds of cotton are grown in a community such contamination is very difficult to avoid. Furthermore, the conditions of cotton marketing are such that buyers and manufacturers are influenced in favor of localities from which they have learned to expect certain kinds of cotton to be produced regularly. On the other hand, they are likely to be apprehensive if they are offered several different kinds of cotton from the same region, for experience has shown that under such conditions intermixture and deterioration of the better sorts are inevitable, and that, too, without any compensatory improvement in the quality or uniformity of the poorer sorts.

In view of these facts it should be the aim of isolated cotton-growing communities to adopt some one variety of cotton to the exclusion of all others and then to take such steps as may be necessary to maintain the purity of all the seed used for planting. With a constant supply of pure planting seed it becomes a very simple matter to establish market grades or types of cotton that can be reproduced from year to year and find prompt sale at a premium over the mixed lots of the bulk of the cotton crop.

The cotton crop is one that responds to favorable conditions of growth with increased production, and it is possible on rich irrigated lands to produce crops large enough and valuable enough to find a place with other industries. Furthermore, cotton fits in well with a number of other irrigated crops. Cotton, following alfalfa, responds to the stimulus afforded by the preceding crop, and the early intertillage followed by the shading of the mature growth aids in the eradication of weeds. The soil is thus left clean and in good condition for other crops. The cotton seed is also a commodity of value and the by-products of its manufacture are important as a feed for live stock.

FRUIT PRODUCTION.

The production of orchard fruits has been one of the most conspicuous features of irrigation farming in this country. Some of the oldest and many of the best known irrigated sections owe their fame and prosperity to one or another of the fruit industries. In many of these sections the natural conditions are so favorable to the growth of the fruit that these industries may be expected to continue and even to be materially extended.

But not all of the irrigated lands of the West are suited to fruit production, and there have been serious disappointments in some new regions which have been exploited on the basis of orchard fruits. The causes for these disappointments have been too many and too complicated to be discussed here in detail. In general, they have been the high capitalization of the land and the difficulties of marketing. There have also been some production problems, but these have been less important. All these difficulties, combined with the widespread tendency of the farmers to rely on fruit production exclusively, have caused serious economic depressions in several of the more important fruit-growing sections.

Almost from the first the problems of fruit transportation and marketing have been acute. These problems have been dealt with largely through cooperation on the part of the growers, and sometimes with marked efficiency. Some of the most conspicuous instances of agricultural cooperation are to be found in this field. In fact, it is possible that much of the spirit of cooperation among irrigation farmers is due to the example of success in this direction achieved by fruit growers. This cooperation has brought into use high standards of fruit packing and has stimulated improved methods of production.

There is to be observed at present on irrigated lands a reaction from fruit production toward other industries. This readjustment is probably to be regarded merely as a phase of normal development. It is to be expected that fruit production will continue to be one of the important features of irrigation farming, though in many sections it will probably remain subsidiary to other industries.

PORK PRODUCTION.

One of the first crops of which there is a local oversupply on the reclamation projects is alfalfa. The acreage devoted to this crop, particularly during the early stages of the development of a project, is frequently greater than that devoted to all other crops combined and the yield is abundant. The cereal crops are also very important in the first years of irrigation farming. Under ordinary conditions neither alfalfa hay nor grain will bear the cost of transportation to the market centers. It therefore becomes necessary to convert these crops into some form of live-stock products which because of relatively high value per unit of weight will stand the transportation charges from the projects to places of manufacture or consumption.

The hog is one of the most efficient of farm animals in converting alfalfa and grain into a readily marketable prod-The returns secured by pasturing hogs on irrigated net. alfalfa, supplemented with a light ration of grain, are frequently three to five times as great as could be obtained by selling the alfalfa as hay. If efficiently managed, hogs can be made to pay from 25 to 50 per cent more for grain than can be secured by the direct marketing of that crop. Furthermore, the amount of capital required to make a start in the swine industry is relatively small and the returns come quickly. The swine population of an irrigated farm can be made to increase from 500 to 1.000 per cent a year, and the animals are marketable before they are a year old. For these reasons the production of pork is one of the most promising industries for an irrigated farm. Much of the best progress made on several of the Government projects in recent years is directly attributable to the development of swine production. The abundance of cheap feeds, the favorable climatic conditions, and the advantages of isolation in the prevention and control of diseases all tend to reduce the cost of producing pork on these projects.

The successful establishment of the swine industry involves a number of factors to which careful attention must be given. These include matters of production and of marketing, and some of them are inseparably connected. Efficient production requires breeding for both quality and quantity, an intelligent understanding of the best methods of feeding, adequate housing facilities, and the control of diseases and pests affecting swine. Profitable marketing requires high quality, uniformity, an understanding of market requirements as to size and finish of the animals and as to time of delivery, and adequate arrangements for shipping and selling. In securing the necessary efficiency in these matters the individual farmer working alone is all but helpless. Some form of community action is imperative.

There is a great advantage in having only one breed in a community, as this facilitates improvements in breeding and marketing. Through an association the swine growers can be mutually helpful in working out problems of feeding and housing, as the interchange of ideas and experiences tends to eliminate mistakes and to popularize the best methods. Much can be done through community arrangements with respect to the utilization of the grain which is now shipped out in the fall by the farmers on or near the projects, while in the following spring the same kind of grain is shipped in, to be bought by swine growers at higher prices. This practice is obviously wasteful, and its elimination could be effected easily by concerted action.

The control of contagious diseases, particularly hog cholera, is impossible without community action. This fact is perhaps more conspicuous on the irrigated lands than elsewhere, because the germs of the disease may be carried in irrigation water and thus spread throughout the entire community; but, on the other hand, the isolation of the communities makes it comparatively easy to enforce the quarantine and sanitary regulations necessary to prevent or control the disease. In other words, the conditions on the projects, while especially requiring community action, also promote its effectiveness. The experience of the past two years in the control of hog cholera on certain of the reclamation projects has demonstrated fully that through community cooperation disease control is a purchasable service.

The size requirements of the swine industry on these projects should be understood clearly. Difficulty is commonly

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encountered in the early stages of the industry's development in making satisfactory shipping arrangements. When the total output of hogs is small, the railroads are unable to give as good service as when the output becomes sufficient to justify regular shipping schedules, live-stock trains, and other conveniences. Here, again, the importance of community action is obvious. If the community as a whole is actively interested in the establishment of the swine industry, satisfactory shipping arrangements can be made much more quickly than if the industry is forced to struggle along on a purely individual basis.

On the reclamation projects, where the farm unit is small, few farmers produce hogs in carload lots. Hence, the producer in marketing his output must sell to a local buyer or cooperate with his neighbors in shipping to market. Of the two, the latter is decidedly preferable and is properly a function of an association. Cooperative marketing already is being done with gratifying results on some of the projects. But the factors of successful cooperative marketing extend farther back than the mere act of collective shipping. The breeding and feeding practices need to be adjusted to the requirements of efficient marketing, so that animals of the desired size, finish, and number may be ready at the proper time. This, again, requires concerted action and community interest.

In the absence of real efficiency the swine growers are certain to suffer discouraging financial losses in periods of low prices for pork. Farmers should remember that productive efficiency, that is, low cost of production, is as much to be desired as high prices for the finished product. Fair prices, large consumption, and high efficiency are the things which promote the best development. With the proper consideration of these facts and with special attention to the community phases of pork production the farmers on the reclamation projects should be able to make swine production one of their most profitable industries.

DAIRYING.

It is not improbable that dairying has done more than any other live-stock industry to support irrigation agriculture in this country. This has been true not because the profits of dairy farming have been large, but rather because they have been comparatively certain. The dairy industry has saved the situation for hundreds of settlers when the expected returns from more spectacular industries have failed to materialize. The possibilities of dairying have not begun to be realized or even appreciated by the majority of irrigation farmers.

One of the chief favorable features of dairying is its continuity. It employs labor throughout the year and furnishes a steady cash income. The natural conditions on the reclamation projects are favorable to high production in dairying. All the necessary feeds can be grown cheaply and abundantly. This applies particularly to alfalfa hay, corn silage, and irrigated pastures. These, when properly combined, furnish practically all the feed required by dairy cows; and where concentrated feeds are abundant and cheap they, too, may be utilized profitably. A further advantage is the mild climate of most of the projects, which makes it unnecessary to provide expensive buildings.

The dairy industry combines well with pork production, the by-products of the dairy furnishing excellent feed for pigs. Sugar-beet production also fits in admirably with dairying, both in the employment of labor and in the utilization of manure. Perhaps no irrigated crop responds more markedly than sugar beets to the application of manure.

As the volume of the dairy products of the country increases and competition becomes more keen, there will be need for much higher dairy efficiency on the reclamation projects. While these areas have many natural advantages over the highly developed dairy districts in the Eastern and Central States, they are at some disadvantage in marketing and, at present, in the quality of dairy stock. Perhaps the greatest need of the dairy farmers on these projects is better cows. While the prices of dairy products remain fairly high, the availability of cheap feeds makes it possible for the settlers to make some profit from low-producing cows; but as production in the irrigated districts increases it will be necessary to cull out the less profitable individuals. As the local production expands, outside markets will have to be sought, and this will bring the irrigation farmers in direct competition with the more efficient dairymen of the older dairy regions. It is essential that the farmers on the reclamation projects foresee this development and prepare themselves for its requirements.

It is probable that the variations in individual efficiency are more marked in dairy cows than in any other domestic animals. These great variations are among the most conspicuous features of the dairy industry on the reclamation projects. Furthermore, the general level of productive efficiency is low. The average production per cow on these new irrigated lands could probably be increased 50 to 75 per cent through the introduction of better stock and the improvement of present herds through the use of good bulls and the general elimination of inferior cows. There is need also for improvement in methods of management.

Several of the reclamation projects, particularly those in the Northwest, are well situated for the production of cheese. The abundance of cold water, the cool summer climate, and the thickly settled neighborhoods are conditions which favor cheese making. The cheese industry within the past two years has experienced marked development on several of the northern projects, and there are indications of still further expansion.

The need for community action is perhaps even greater in the development of dairying than it is in pork production on these projects. Cooperation is needed in securing improved stock, in the local transportation of milk and cream, and often in manufacturing as well as in marketing; in fact, these functions can not be worked out satisfactorily without cooperation. The small farms, the newness of conditions, and the distances to market all result in a need for community interest. Necessity is developing a strong appreciation of these facts and the cooperative spirit on the reclamation projects is growing rapidly, among dairy farmers particularly.

THE SHEEP INDUSTRY.

• The production of sheep has not been an important feature of irrigation farming. Feed crops grown on irrigated lands have been used extensively in finishing stock produced on the range and in wintering range ewes, but the breeding of sheep and year-long feeding on irrigated lands has not been extensive.

It is to be expected that finishing range sheep and wintering ewes will continue to be important on these lands, but the practice is not without its disadvantages. One drawback is the uncertainty of the market for the finished product. This, together with the high prices usually demanded for the feeder stock, makes winter feeding rather hazardous. Under favorable conditions, however, the farmer who feeds range sheep secures not only a direct profit from his feeding operations, but also a large quantity of manure, through the use of which his crop yields may be markedly increased.

The conditions on several of the reclamation projects are specially favorable for the production of sheep on the farms. Sheep not only furnish a profitable method of disposing of some of the leading crop products, but they are particularly useful in utilizing certain crop by-products and in eradicating weeds. The material left in the grain fields, beet tops, the aftermath in hav fields, and the plant growth in fence rows and on ditch banks can be utilized profitably by sheep. A promising practice for many of the irrigated farms is to graze sheep on irrigated pastures. A pasture which will carry 2 cows to the acre will support 6 to 10 ewes and their lambs until the lambs are ready for market and still produce sufficient feed to carry the ewes through the season. By these means the irrigation farmer on many of the projects can keep from 20 to 100 breeding ewes with profit, the number depending on the size of his land holdings and the grouping of industries on his farm. Ordinarily there is much to be gained by developing pure-bred flocks as soon as practicable.

On certain of the projects which are adjacent to satisfactory grazing lands on the open range or in the National Forests a limited number of irrigation farmers can engage in sheep production on a larger scale. Small groups of farmers, each owning a few hundred sheep, can sometimes arrange to use the range cooperatively and to winter their flocks on individual farms. In this way the flocks may be carried through the summer at relatively low cost and be used profitably in the autumn and winter to consume forage and grain crops and by-products on the farm.

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The problems of marketing the wool and mutton produced by the flocks, particularly the small ones, can be solved best by cooperation among the farmers. The same is true of many of the problems of efficient management. Such things as breeding, shearing, and dipping offer many opportunities for advantageous cooperation. Frequently much can be gained by cooperation between the small sheep growers and the large range sheep producers. The latter sometimes will contract for years in advance to purchase from the former all the pure-bred ram lambs produced on the small farms. Thus, a profitable market for half the offspring of the small flocks may be assured in advance, to the benefit of everybody concerned.

If good use is made of the opportunities for cooperation, both among the small farmers and between them and the extensive range sheepmen, there are but few projects where sheep production can not be made a lucrative part of the activities of the irrigated farm. Already there are some successful sheep-growing enterprises on the projects, but the full possibilities can not be realized until community attention is focused upon the industry.

BEEF PRODUCTION.

Like the sheep industry, beef production on the irrigated lands has been confined to the winter feeding and finishing of range stock. Aside from this, the development of an extensive beef-cattle industry on the reclamation projects depends primarily on the availability of cheap summer range. Doubtless there will be some instances of specialized beef production, based largely on the breeding of high-class pure-bred stock, in which the animals will be kept on the farms throughout the year. Except in such instances it is unlikely that the year-long feeding of beef cattle on these small farms will be found as profitable as the feeding of dairy cattle, hogs, and sheep.

Some of the projects are located near grazing areas which are not fully stocked or on which readjustments can be made which will provide range for stock owned by irrigation farmers. Where the grazing of these areas is properly

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controlled and efficiently managed, as in the National Forests, or where arrangements can be made to assure undisturbed occupation and use, there are opportunities for beef production. The proper utilization of such grazing areas would add materially to the crop-disposal possibilities of the adjacent irrigated lands.

Because of the small size of the beef herds which can be fed on these farms, successful summer grazing on the adjacent range lands requires some kind of cooperation. This may consist simply of hiring a herder who, for a fixed charge per head, will handle the stock during the grazing season; or more formal grazing associations may be organized. These associations are growing in number and efficiency on several of the projects and it seems likely that they will continue to increase. The activities of the grazing associations may include the hiring of a salaried herder; the furnishing of salt; systematic efforts to prevent the loss of stock from diseases. poisonous plants, and predatory animals: the furnishing of well-bred bulls; negotiations with the Forest Service and other agencies regarding the allotment and management of grazing areas; and provision for live-stock insurance. It is through increased cooperation, particularly in range utilization, that the beef industry on these projects is likely to reach its best development.

THE GROUPING OF INDUSTRIES.

In the preceding discussion of the different agricultural industries which rank as important on reclamation projects, only incidental reference has been made to their relations to each other either on the individual farm or in the community. These relations are matters of the greatest importance. There are very few situations where a farm or a community survives, still less achieves success and prosperity, through the exclusive development of a single industry. The requirements of crop rotation, the efficient use of labor, and the insurance of some source of income are the potent factors that make a diversification of industries imperative.

The number of industries which it is possible to carry on in any irrigated region is much larger than the number it is usually desirable to have. This enables the farmer to select from among the available industries a few which suit his fancy and appeal to his judgment.

Much of the possibility of success in farming depends upon the proper selection and grouping of major industries. This is a problem that usually can not be settled in advance of practical experience. It is not enough to decide merely to have a diversity of industries. Each should be considered not only as to its own possibilities under the natural conditions, but also in relation to the others with which it is to be associated. If possible, the selection should be such that each will be profitable in itself, but it is sometimes worth while to carry on one industry which yields little or no direct profit because of its indirect benefit to others in the group.

In new regions far from market the farmer should also be influenced in his selection of industries by the opinions or desires of his neighbors. It has been repeatedly pointed out that community cooperation is often essential to success in these irrigated districts, and such cooperation often may be extended to the selection of the kinds of crops or the kinds of live stock that ought to be used.

The important point that needs to be kept in mind is that the problem of the proper selection of industries merits serious consideration. A farmer should not embark upon an industry merely because it is momentarily attractive or because someone else has succeeded with it. He should canvass the whole situation thoroughly and test each industry from the following points of view:

(1) Is it adapted to local conditions of climate and soil and to the location of the project with respect to transportation and marketing?

(2) Can it be fitted in with the others that are being considered, so as to permit the effective distribution of labor throughout the year?

(3) Does it fit in with the others to occupy the available land and either benefit them or utilize to advantage their effects?

(4) Is it one that may be accepted generally in the community and thus permit such cooperation as is needful for success? (5) Are the products subject to violent market fluctuations resulting from sudden scarcity or oversupply, so that special persistence is necessary to secure stabilization?

A careful consideration of these questions may determine the measure of success which will follow the farmer's selection of industries.

IMPORTANCE OF STABILIZING INDUSTRIES.

The proper establishment of any of these agricultural industries under the multiplicity of new and strange conditions may require years of time. The new settlers can not reasonably expect to develop in one or two years an efficiency or a reputation which will enable them to compete successfully with older communities. A period of pioneering is inevitable and readjustments are to be expected; but such readjustments should come about gradually and should be in the direction of constructive development.

Substantial prosperity requires that some of the industries in which the settlers engage be stabilized; that plans for their establishment be projected years in advance, just as the bona fide settler projects the plans for the establishment of his home. Periods of depression or adversity must be endured, and ideals of efficiency must be pursued constantly. Frequent and radical changes from one industry to another, stimulated among speculative settlers by market fluctuations, lead to inefficiency and failure. On the other hand, intelligent conservative practices, vigorously and constantly prosecuted, develop high industrial efficiency and thus promote general prosperity in these communities.

The agricultural commodities produced on reclamation projects must be shipped to distant markets. In order to sell to best advantage, these products must be well known in the market and come to be depended upon by the consuming public or the manufacturer. Much of the efficiency of marketing depends upon the establishment and maintenance of recognized grades or standards of the product. Such standards can be established and their recognition secured only by continued effort. These facts have an important bearing and should be considered seriously in connection with any proposal to establish a new industry on a reclamation project.

THE PLACE OF IRRIGATION FARMING IN WESTERN AGRICULTURE.

An unfortunate tendency that has been noticeable in the development of irrigation farming in the West has been to disregard its economic relation to the other agricultural enterprises of that region. The vast areas of land which surround the irrigated sections have long been important to the country as a whole because of their production of breadstuffs and meat. While the areas available for the production of wheat by dry farming and the range lands used for the support of live stock have been almost completely occupied by these industries, greatly increased production in both lines is still possible. These arid lands are certain to become increasingly important in meeting the requirements of the national food supply. Their possibilities have been by no means realized.

Grain production by dry farming and live-stock production on the ranges are subject to severe vicissitudes because of the periodical fluctuations in climatic conditions. The setbacks resulting from adverse seasons often cripple the farmers and stockmen to such an extent that they can not take advantage of the more favorable seasons that follow. The proper development of irrigation farming may be expected to aid in surmounting such difficulties, to the benefit of all concerned.

The irrigated lands that enjoy conditions favoring the high production of forage crops may properly become important as centers of stock feeding, not only in finishing stock but in wintering range stock and in carrying the animals through protracted periods of drought. Such enterprises not only furnish an economical means of utilizing the crops of the irrigated land, but also provide an outlet for some of the grain from adjacent dry farms.

The irrigation farmer who is confronted with the problem of marketing his crop products would do well to consider the possibilities that lie at hand in the way of cooperating with his neighbors on the dry farms and on the ranges. They, like himself, are subject to serious economic stresses. Some of these may be relieved through a better understanding of the situation and by making gradually such readjustments as are possible.

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Irrigation farming has been the subject of extravagant exploitation, as well as the cause of severe disappointments. As a matter of fact, it ought to be regarded merely as one of the ways of making a home and a living and not primarily as a means of making money. Irrigated lands may be expected to support prosperous communities wherever industry and intelligence are devoted to the work. In some respects irrigation farming is probably less hazardous than some other agricultural enterprises, but success can be assured only by diligent and persistent endeavor.

THE DASHEEN; ITS USES AND CULTURE.

By ROBERT A. YOUNG,

Botanical Assistant, Office of Foreign Seed and Plant Introduction, Bureau of Plant Industry.

INTRODUCTION.

ANYONE who has traveled much in the Tropics or the Orient, and especially one who has visited the Hawaiian Islands, can hardly have failed to make the acquaintance of the taro. Even those who have become well acquainted with it and learned really to like it, however, probably have not thought of the possibility of its successful introduction as a food crop into the United States. But such a thing has already come to pass, and a variety of the taro known as the Trinidad dasheen, from the island of Trinidad, West Indies, is now becoming established as a factor in the agriculture of the South.

There has been a growing need in the Southern States for more crops similar in character to the potato, to supplement the supply of that great staple food plant. The dasheen seems largely to meet this need. The comparative difficulty of growing more than one good crop of potatoes a year, the further difficulty of successful storage by small growers or dealers, and the fact that northern markets consume a large portion of the crop at good prices make the price of potatoes always high except in cities that are reached by water from the North when the supply is abundant there.

Dasheens for home use can be grown at small expense by most farmers in the South, and by many can be grown for local markets at prices no higher than for potatoes. Since the Trinidad dasheen contains about 50 per cent more protein and 50 per cent more starch and sugars than the potato, dasheens at equal prices would really be a cheaper food. This crop is adapted for cultivation in rich, moist, welldrained soils and matures in October and November. It requires at least seven months to reach full maturity.

Although the dasheen was introduced into the United States from the West Indies, it is believed to have come originally from China. This belief obtains partly because

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the name dasheen appears to be a corruption of the French phrase "de la Chine," meaning "from China," and partly because other varieties, very closely allied to it, have been found in southern China.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DASHEEN.

The Trinidad dasheen¹ is an especially fine variety of a particular type of the taro. As will be seen from the leaves, it bears a strong resemblance to the ordinary elephant-ear plant. The two are closely related, though the elephant-ear "tuber" makes very poor eating in comparison with the dasheen.

Each hill of dasheens usually contains one or two large, central corms, besides a considerable number of lateral cormels, commonly called tubers. In rare cases there may be as many as three to five of the large corms in one hill. The corms of the Trinidad variety when grown in the right kind of soil are of at least as good quality as the tubers, and sometimes better. In texture and flavor the dasheen may be described as being between the chestnut and the potato.

ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE OF THE DASHEEN AND OTHER TAROS.

The taro, including the type recognized here as the dasheen, is one of the important food plants in most of the warm regions of the world. The culture of the crop is probably developed to a higher degree in the Hawaiian Islands than elsewhere. It is grown as an upland crop in certain parts of the islands, but much more extensively under irrigation. As an irrigated crop it is usually grown in patches from one-eighth to one-fourth acre in size, each plat being inclosed with dikes and being at a different level, so that the water runs from one to the other. The movement of the water is slow but continuous. The plants do not grow so tall as when grown in rich soil that is only moist. The season required for maturing a crop varies from 8 to 15 months, depending on the variety.

¹ Certain varieties of taros resemble the Trinidad dasheen, especially in the character of the tuberous part of the plant. These varieties constitute a distinct type of taro and are referred to here as dasheens. Where the dasheen is mentioned in this article the Trinidad variety is always to be understood.

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PLATE XXXVIII.



PHI820ES

FIG. I.-TARO FIELDS NEAR HONOLULU, WITH DIAMOND HEAD CRATER

The dasheen is a fine-flavored variety of the taro, a root vegetable grown extensively in Hawaii and widely in other warm regions of the world. Taro fields are flooded, while the dasheen grows without irrigation in the Southern States.



FIG. 2.-DASHEEN PLANTS AT BROOKSVILLE, FLA. Hills as they appear at the time of harvest, early in November, 7½ months after planting. One of these hills produced 26 pounds of corms and tubers. A good average yield, however, in rich soil is from 6 to 8 pounds per hill, or 360 to 475 bushels per acre.



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FIG. 3.—A 4-ACRE FIELD OF THE TRINIDAD DASHEEN. Plants as they appeared early in October at the United States Plant Introduction Field Station, Brooksville, Fla. This field of dasheens is a little more than 6 months old. The dasheen was first introduced into this country from the island of Trinidad, West Indies, in 1905.

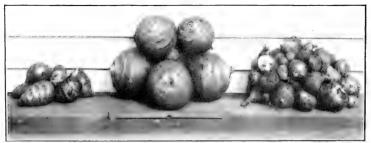
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PLATE XXXIX.





The cooked dasheen, in texture and flavor, is between the chestnut and the potato. The dasheen contains about half again as much protein and half again as much starch as the potato, and is consequently much drier. The corm here shown weighed 25 pounds. The rings around the corm are the leaf scars, and the large light spots on the lower half are the scars formed by breaking off the side tubers. Some corms are more nearly spherical and others are more elongate, depending upon the soil and weather conditions and the length of the season.



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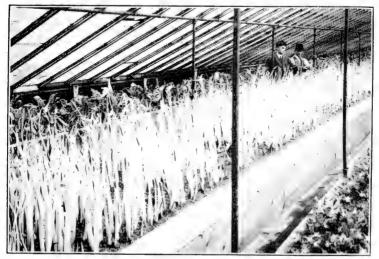
FIG. 2.-TWENTY-THREE POUNDS OF DASHEENS, THE PRODUCT OF A SINGLE HILL.

In the center are five marketable corms, having a total weight of 113 pounds. Most hills, however, produce only one or two large corms each. At the left are eight first-grade tubers, which weighed 22 pounds, making a total of 144 pounds of first-grade marketable dasheens. In the pile of tubers on the right some are of size and shape good enough to be classed as second-grade for market. The remainder are suitable for home table use, for seed, or for stock feed.



FIG. I.- A HAWAIIAN POUNDING POI, NEAR LIHUE, ISLAND OF KAUAI, HAWAII.

Poi, the famous Hawaiian dish made from the taro, of which the dasheen is a selected variety, is an easily digested fermented food used often by Americans in Hawaiias a breakfast dish. It was formerly all made by this method, the taro being first cooked by steaming by means of heated stones in a pit.



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FIG. 2.- A BED OF FORCED AND BLANCHED DASHEEN SHOOTS, FROM WHICH THE COVERING HAS JUST BEEN REMOVED.

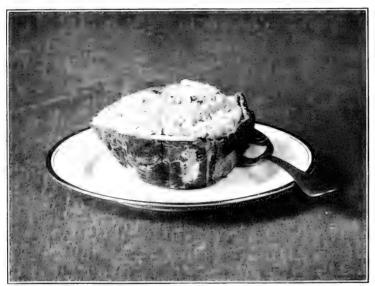
In forcing and blanching dasheen shoots in the North, corms weighing 2 to 4 pounds are planted in a bed of moist, very sandy soil, with bottom heat, and the bed tightly inclosed above with boards or other material, to exclude light. The shoots are delicate in flavor and texture, the flavor suggesting that of mushrooms.



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FIG. I.-A CASSEROLE OF SLICED DASHEEN, BUTTERED, WHICH WILL BE READY FOR SCALLOPING AFTER THE ADDITION OF MILK.

Dasheen corms or tubers are pared raw and sliced with a fluted vegetable slicer. The cooking of this dish requires only a little more than half as long as scalloped potatoes. When well prepared it is one of the most satisfactory dishes made from the dasheen. Plain slices instead of latticework may be used.



P19422FS

FIG. 2.-STUFFED DASHEEN IN THE "HALF SHELL," FOR INDIVIDUAL SERVICE.

In preparing stuffed dasheens, the corm is cut from top to base and baked; the contents are then removed, seasoned, and returned to the half shells.

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PLATE XLII.

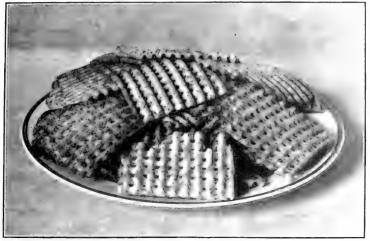


FIG. I.-DASHEEN CRISPS.

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Raw dasheens are pared and sliced with a fluted slicer and fried slowly to a light brown in deep fat. For certain purposes this is one of the very best ways in which the dasheen can be prepared. They will often remain crisp for a week or more, if not exposed continuously to the air.



PL TOPS

FIG. 2.-ROLLS MADE FROM WHEAT FLOUR IN COMBINATION WITH BOILED DASHEEN.

Bread made in this way is similar to that made with boiled potato in that it keeps moist longer than when flour alone is used. The bread is sometimes a fittle darker because of the dasheen, but the flavor is in no way impaired. One part of dasheen to two or three parts of flour gives excellent results.

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PLATE XLIII.

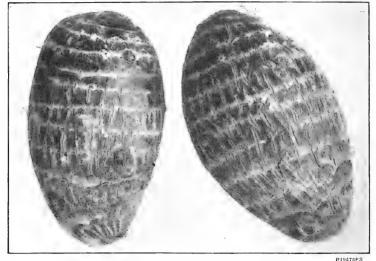


FIG. I.-DASHEEN CORMELS OR "TUBERS."

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Tubers of the grade here shown are referred to as first-grade tubers and are about twothirds natural size. With many of smaller size or irregular shape, they grow clustered around one or more large corms. Under proper soil conditions they are of excellent quality and command a much better price than the smaller and irregularly shaped ones.



FIG. 2.-TWO BARRELS OF DASHEENS READY FOR COVERING AND SHIPPING.

They are usually covered with hurlap. The holes near the top and similar ones near the bottom are for ventilation. The barrel at the right contains corms and that at the left selected tulers. When dasheens are well grown there is usually little difference in flavor and texture between the corms and tubers, though the corms are a little more mealy and many persons prefer them. The railroads have placed the dasheen on the sume basis as the potato infreight classification, which makes it possible to ship dasheens in barrel lots to many northern points at a very moderate expense for transportation.



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FIG. 3.-AN 11-POUND HILL OF DASHEEN CORMS AND TUBERS, WITH SOIL AND ROOTS REMOVED, IN ACTUAL POSITION OF GROWTH. The taro is eaten in Hawaii boiled or baked, like potatoes, or in the form of poi. It is as poi that it is eaten most largely. In making poi the taro is thoroughly cooked, by steaming or boiling, and peeled. With the addition of a little water it is then reduced, either by pounding with a stone pestle or pounder, the old method, or by grinding with a modern mill, to a sticky mass. The pounding process includes the wetting of the empty hand in a vessel of water, kept at the side, at each fall of the pounder and moistening the lower surface of the pestle as it is lifted for the next stroke. When the paste, or poi, has become perfectly smooth from the pounding, it is usually put into a covered receptacle for a day or so, in order to ferment. Poi made by the modern process is fermented in the same manner. The old method is still in use to a limited extent.

The taro is credited, wherever grown, with being more easily digested than most other starch foods, and poi is held to be the most easily digested form in which it can be prepared. Poi, however, is a dish that does not appeal strongly to most persons unaccustomed to it, and its use has not spread among other peoples. The expected increase in the use of the dasheen, and perhaps other taros, will be as a vegetable, or in the form of flour for use in combination with wheat or other flours in baking.

In many countries where the taro is cultivated, because of the inferiority of the varieties grown and the poor methods of cooking it, the vegetable is esteemed but little by Europeans and Americans. In parts of China, according to Mr. Frank N. Meyer, Agricultural Explorer for the Department of Agriculture, the taro is in the class of luxuries, and the very poor can rarely afford to eat it. In Japan, where it is classed among the so-called imos, it is said to be used by all classes of people, often being cooked with fish.

The taros and the yautias (another group of edible "aroids," as the plants of the arum family are called) are grown widely in tropical America and constitute a rather important part of the food supply of the native peoples. Dasheens, under the name "malanga," are brought from Cuba to Tampa, Fla., for the Latin-American people of that eity.

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For two centuries at least, from time to time, individuals have brought into the Carolinas and grown there on a small scale inferior varieties of the taro. Even now occasional patches of a rather strong flavored taro, known as the tanier, or tanya, are met with in the South Atlantic States.

A very inferior kind of taro, somewhat similar to the tanier just mentioned, is grown in the eastern Mediterranean region, especially in Egypt, where it is called "qolqas." It appears to be eaten only by the laboring classes. It has been imported into the United States, apparently for consumption by the oriental population in some of our eastern cities, but this market is now supplied by dasheens from the Southern States. Taros are also shipped to America from China and are sold in Chinese shops as "China potatoes."

INTRODUCTION OF THE DASHEEN.

Until the investigation of the aroid root crops was begun by the Department of Agriculture a few years ago, it does not appear that any serious attempts were ever made to grow them outside of tropical or subtropical regions except in Japan and China. As a preliminary part of this investigational work, there was assembled, first by Mr. O. W. Barrett, at the Porto Rico Agricultural Experiment Station, and later at Washington, D. C., the largest collection of varieties of these plants ever brought together. They were collected from every quarter of the globe where grown. From field tests made of these varieties in South Carolina and Florida it was found that the Trinidad dasheen, taking into account its adaptability to the climate and its food qualities, was especially well suited for culture and use in this country.

The propagation and testing work with the dasheen since 1911 has been carried on by the department principally at its Plant Introduction Field Station at Brooksville, Fla. A large number of people in the South, especially in the Southeast, are now growing the dasheen for home use, stock feed, and market.

USES OF THE DASHEEN.

It is not intended that the dasheen shall displace either the potato or the sweet potato in any market. A greater variety of starchy vegetables is needed, however, and the dasheen has been welcomed by many as an addition to the small list

The Dasheen: Its Uses and Culture.

of those foods now in use in the United States. But for the present, at least, outside of the regions where grown it is not to be looked upon as a cheap food; the shipments are not yet large enough to bring the prices to the level which they may reach later. In the South, however, where the dasheen is grown it is expected that it will eventually come to be used extensively, partly as a matter of economy, and especially during the long season when potatoes have to be shipped from the North.

Most persons when eating the dasheen naturally think of comparing it with the potato. Many say they like it better; others equally well; and some not so well. However individual opinions may differ as to the relative merits of the two vegetables, a sufficiently large number of persons who have tried the dasheen have been so favorably impressed that there seems to be no question of its ultimate popularity as a table vegetable.

Dasheens, as well as other taros, are reputed to be more easily digested than many other starch foods. This ease of digestion has not been scientifically demonstrated, so far as is known, but the belief is current and doubtless has some basis in fact. The extremely small size of the taro starch grain, one of the smallest known in food plants, may possibly have some connection with its digestibility.

PREPARATION FOR THE TABLE.

Dasheens are suitable for use in the same manner and in quite as many ways as potatoes, with slight modifications, which are necessary in some cases on account of the differences in the texture of the two vegetables. Some housewives or cooks fail to get the best results, or fail completely, with dasheens at first, wholly from lack of care in following the directions for cooking and serving. It should be remembered that in order to give a new vegetable a fair trial every detail regarding its preparation for the table should be carefully followed. One common mistake is to bake or boil the dasheens too long; another is to cook them before the rest of the meal is prepared and so keep them standing for some time before they are served. Baked or boiled potatoes that are kept standing lose in palatability, and the dasheen loses quite as much if not served promptly. Dasheens do not require quite so long a time to cook as potatoes of the same size, and it is important to remember this, especially in boiling or baking them.

There is an almost endless variety of ways in which dasheens can be prepared for the table. A number of recipes have been worked out carefully and a few of these will be referred to here.

Baking is the most satisfactory method, in general, of cooking either large or small dasheens. Large ones (corms) are usually first parboiled for 10 to 20 minutes, in order to reduce the time necessary for baking and so avoid the possibility of charring the outside. A moderately hot oven is required. If the dasheens are well scrubbed, to remove the fibrous part of the skin, and the baking is properly done, a soft crust is formed, which is very delicious. Large dasheens may be served in the "half shell" if desired, the corms usually being cut in half before baking. They are made still more attractive by placing a lump of butter in a hole scooped out of the center of the cut surface. The halves of corms that are small enough can be served as individual portions and the larger ones used for several persons.

The interior of a well-grown dasheen is usually mealy when baked or boiled, though often more firm than a potato. It is sometimes of cream color, but more often it is grayish white or tinged with violet. The same seasoning is used as for potatoes, but on account of the comparative dryness of the dasheen more butter or gravy is generally needed. Too much importance can not be given to serving baked or boiled dasheens promptly after they are cooked.

Dasheens mashed like potatoes are likely to be too sticky to be attractive, but when put through a potato ricer after boiling or baking they make a most satisfactory dish. A ricer stronger than the ordinary ones on the market is desirable for the dasheen, because of its firm texture.

Scalloped dasheen made with either latticework or plain slices is a most satisfactory dish where a large company of persons is to be served and where the dish must of necessity stand for a time. The addition of a few slices of onion will bring out the dasheen flavor.

Stuffed dasheens, especially the large corms, are exceedingly attractive and when properly seasoned are as good as they look. The stuffed halves may be served one to a person or one for several persons, according to the size of the corm.

Dasheen crisps, made from raw dasheen with a fluted vegetable slicer and fried in deep fat, are declared by some epicures to be the most delicious of all dasheen dishes. The delicate nutty flavor of the dasheen is accentuated by this method of preparation. While these crisps are better when freshly made, they often keep their crispness for several days, depending on the amount of moisture in the air.

As a filling for fowl and other meats the dasheen can hardly be surpassed. Served au gratin, that is, cooked with grated cheese, it is equal to any similar dish. It makes a delicious salad and may be French fried or German fried, like potatoes. It can also be used boiled in making bread, as potatoes are used by many housewives, and with the same results.

DASHEEN FLOUR.

A very good flour has been made from dasheens. The corms and large tubers are pared and either sliced or shredded and then dried and ground in a flour mill. As the dasheen does not appear to contain gluten, the flour can not be used alone in baking, but must be used in combination with wheat or rye flour. Excellent bread, muffins, biscuits, crullers, griddlecakes, soups, and various other products are made by using dasheen flour in part. A proportion of onefourth or one-third of dasheen flour is generally used.

DASHEEN SHOOTS.

A secondary use of the dasheen is the forcing of the large corms for their shoots.¹ These shoots are more tender than asparagus and have a delicate flavor not unlike that of mushrooms. They are forced in the dark in order to blanch them. The slight acridity which the blanched shoots contain is destroyed by the following methods of cooking:

(1) Cut the blanched shoots into 2-inch lengths, pour on an abundance of boiling water, add salt, and boil for 12 minutes; drain, pour on enough cold milk² so that the shoots will be completely covered

 $^{^{1}}$ A circular fully describing the forcing, blanching, and cooking of dasheen shoots will be sent without charge upon request to the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

² The change from hot water to cold milk or water when the shoots are nearly done is to keep them from becoming too soft.

when it boils, season with salt, and boil for 5 minutes; drain, season with butter, and serve on toast or plain. It is necessary to add a little butter¹ to the milk in boiling if skim milk is used. Cream sauce may be used in serving if desired.

(2) Instead of boiling in milk, after draining off the first water add a little piece of butter or bacon¹ and then cover the shoots with cold water, season with salt, and boil for 5 minutes. Drain and serve.

DASHEENS AS STOCK FEED.

Although extensive feeding experiments with the dasheen have not yet been made, as a stock feed it is probably equal in value to the potato, sweet potato, or cassava. For thispurpose, however, as with potatoes and sweet potatoes, dasheens will, in general, be used only incidentally, as in cases of overproduction or of dasheens unsuited in size or quality for market. They seem, in the raw state, to be more palatable to stock than potatoes and, while doubtless less palatable than sweet potatoes, they contain a higher proportion of protein to starch and sugars than sweet potatoes. Both cattle and hogs eat them with relish after getting the taste, and pigs 8 months old have been fattened for the market in a month by turning them in the autumn into a patch of dasheens.

CULTURE OF THE DASHEEN.

PLANTING.

Dasheens are adapted for commercial culture only in the Southern States. They require a frostless season of at least seven months, with plenty of moisture, to fully mature a good crop. For a large crop of good quality the dasheen must be grown in a moist but well-drained rich sandy loam. The addition soon after planting of a fertilizer containing 8 to 12 per cent of potash, even in good soil, as a rule has a beneficial effect on the crop. A large proportion of either clay or muck in the soil produces strong-flavored or tough dasheens, which often are quite unfit for table use. However, those grown in muck soil yield heavily and are reported to be entirely satisfactory for stock feed.

Planting is done in February in southern Florida and as late as the early part of April in South Carolina. Whole

 $^{^{1}}$ The butter fat of the milk, or the bacon fat, appears to assist in destroying the acridity.

tubers are used and are planted singly, 2 to 3 inches deep. Tubers weighing 3 to 5 ounces each are better than smaller ones for planting, although the character of the soil and the amount of moisture present are much more important factors than the size of the tubers.

In rich soil about 12 square feet is allowed for each plant, the spacing being 4 by 3 or $3\frac{1}{2}$ by $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet. This permits horse cultivation with the ordinary farm implements.

Recently the dasheen has been found to be subject to the common root-knot¹ disease of the South, which attacks many cultivated plants and weeds. The effect of the disease is to reduce the yield of dasheens. The spread of root-knot in dasheen culture is largely controlled by reserving for seed the tubers from selected, healthy plants only and planting in land that is free from infection.

HARVESTING.

The digging of dasheens for home use can usually begin in the middle of September and the main crop be harvested at any time after the last of October. The digging can be done with a spade, or when the area is large enough to warrant it the plants can be turned over with a plow. When the dasheens are to be stored or shipped, the soil is shaken from the clumps as soon as possible after digging. The clumps are then left on the surface of the ground in the field for two to four days to dry. The tops and feeding roots are then broken from the corms and tubers.

In localities where autumn frosts are severe, harvesting should be done before they occur, as the corms and tubers are likely to be injured if exposed to frost after digging.

STORAGE.

When dasheens have dried sufficiently in the field and are stored, free from soil, in a covered but well-ventilated place, they usually keep well. It is better not to store them in large piles, but to spread them out so that the air can circulate rather freely among them. There are several rots² that are likely to attack dasheens in storage, or even while

¹Byars, L. P. A nematode disease of the dasheen and its control by hot-water treatment. Phytopathology, vol. 7, No. 1, January, 1917.

² Harter, L. L. Storage-rots of economic aroids. Jour. Agric. Research, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, vol. 6, No. 15, July 10, 1916, pp. 549-572.

on the ground, if the dasheens are left lying in the field too long after digging or otherwise are improperly handled in harvesting or storing.

The fibrous covering of dasheens in the field seems to enable them to withstand for a short time temperatures several degrees below freezing before digging, but a temperature in storage even as low as 41° F., if prolonged for several weeks, has been shown to be very injurious to them. The results of experiments indicate that where the storage temperature can be controlled, temperatures in the neighborhood of 50° F. are better than lower or much higher ones.

SHIPPING.

The dasheen is a good shipper, and as the railroads of the country have cooperated with the department so far as to place the new vegetable on the same footing as the potato in freight classification, shipment in barrel lots to most eastern and northern points is entirely practicable. The same protection against cold should be given dasheens in transit as is given potatoes.

The department is glad, so far as possible, to direct intending purchasers of dasheens to the most convenient commercial sources of supply.

CONCLUSION.

The dasheen is a recently introduced root crop, well adapted for culture in the Southern States. It is very similar to the potato in its food characteristics, but contains a higher percentage of nutritive material than that vegetable, owing to its lower water content. The flavor is delicately nutty. The crop matures in the autumn, when potatoes have to be shipped from the North, and is a good keeper. There seems to be no reason to doubt, therefore, that in time it will become firmly established in southern agriculture and be a welcome addition also to the limited list of starchy vegetables at present found on northern markets. Dasheens are easily shipped and the freight rates are no higher than for potatoes. The successful establishment of the dasheen industry means a new and valuable food crop for the Nation as a whole and at the same time an additional source of income for the South.

AN EXPERIMENT IN COMMUNITY DAIRYING.

By R. R. WELCH,

Dairy Division, Bureau of Animal Industry,

OUTLINE OF THE WORK.

NOMMUNITY development in dairving was undertaken by the United States Department of Agriculture in the typical small-creamery community at Algona, Iowa, in September, 1910, to determine the practicability of employing a skilled instructor to assist in the development of successful dairy farming. Algona was chosen because it was a representative small-creamery community where little attention was given to real dairy farming and because of its stability. due to the fact that 65 per cent of the patrons lived on farms which they owned. Algona is in Kossuth County and has 3.500 inhabitants. The land in that region is naturally fertile. The farms vary in size from 20 to 200 acres, the average being about 160 acres. Most of the farmers were engaged in grain farming and stock raising, dairving being only a side line. When the experiment was started there were 44 farmers who, throughout the previous year, had regularly patronized the creamery, and 20 others who were patrons for only a short time in the summer.

Fifty of the herds contributing milk or cream to the creamery were divided as follows according to breed: Purebred Shorthorn 3, grade Shorthorn 33, purebred Red Polled 2, grade Red Polled 4, grade Guernsey 3, grade Jersey 2, purebred Holstein, Angus, and scrub, 1 each. The average number of cows in each herd was approximately 12. Forty pure-bred bulls were in service—3 Guernsey and 3 Jersey; the remainder were beef breeds.

The farmers in the community had grown and fed beef cattle for many years, and were not accustomed to feeding for milk production. Little clover hay was grown, and the feeds available were unsatisfactory for the production of milk. Timothy and bluegrass were in general use for sum-

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mer pasture. Cows were put on pasture too early in the spring, and turned into the cornfields after the corn had been picked in the fall. On most farms they were allowed to remain in the fields of standing stalks until late in the winter. Only seven silos were found in the community, and little corn fodder was saved. Few farmers were interested in improving their cattle along dairy lines, and none kept dairy-production records.

THE FIELD MAN.

The Algona development project has been constantly in charge of a field man. He was furnished with a horse and buggy, which enabled him to make personal visits to all patrons of the creamery. His first work was to create an interest in dairying, and especially in better dairy methods. He assisted farmers in culling out the low producers from their herds, helped them select better bulls, drew plans for new dairy barns, assisted in remodeling old ones, helped lay concrete floors, and advised concerning the proper lighting and ventilation of dairy barns and the construction of silos. In all this work economy and efficiency received equal attention.

Under his direction the farmers began feeding for large and economical production, they kept individual production records, and many eliminated all animals that reacted to the tuberculin test. They reduced the expense of raising calves by shifting them earlier from whole milk to skim milk, used stanchions to save labor in feeding, and utilized suitable feeds to insure maximum growth. Through his influence the barns and yards were kept clean and sanitary, and the milk utensils were properly sterilized. Milking was done under sanitary conditions, the milk properly separated, and the cream immediately cooled and kept cool until delivered at the creamery.

These changes added little either to labor or expense, but practically did away with the delivery of sour cream at the creamery and resulted in better prices for butterfat. By constantly watching production costs and by working earnestly for cleaner dairy products and better prices, the farmers soon brought dairying in that community to a more profitable basis. An Experiment in Community Dairying. 211

SPECIAL MEETINGS, PICNICS, AND CAMPS.

During the winter months special dairy meetings were held in the town or at a farm home. At each meeting a dairy problem was discussed and an effort made to get at the real facts. For instance, one meeting was designated as a "silo special." In this case invitations were sent to other creamery communities in the county. As a result, many silos were constructed in the community. Special meetings were also held for the study of dairy cattle, alfalfa, cowtesting associations, and various other dairy subjects. After each meeting the field men followed up the work by personal visits to the farms.

Farmers' picnics were held several times during the summer months, usually on some patron's farm where the best dairy methods could be observed. The farmers, their wives, and children went to the meeting in the forenoon and carried picnic dinners. During the forenoon the farmers inspected the buildings, live stock, and crops. In the afternoon, speakers from the State agricultural college and from the force of the State dairy and food commission were present. Local farmers also took part in the program and discussion, and the women and children assisted with music, readings, and recitations.

To interest the boys in dairving, and through them to influence their parents to adopt better methods, two encampments were held. Twenty-seven boys attended the first and a larger number the second. Tents were erected on a camping ground on the bank of a stream near one of the bestequipped dairy farms in that section. The boys prepared their meals, and did all other necessary work in connection with the maintenance of the camp. Baseball, swimming, and boating furnished amusement. At certain hours each day the boys visited the dairy farm and received instruction in the selection of dairy cattle; the feeding, care, and management of dairy stock; and the proper care of milk and cream. They studied the arrangement of the dairy barn, its light, ventilation, and sanitation, and noted the cleanliness of everything about the milk house. Opportunity was given to study the construction of the silo and to note the quality and condition of the silage. The boys learned to operate the Babcock tester and the cream separator. They

saw the cows milked properly, and watched the weighing and recording of each cow's milk. The ideas of modern dairying acquired during the encampment were instrumental in influencing the boys' parents to make improvements in every line of dairy-farm management.

One winter a school of agriculture and domestic science was held in Algona, the instructors being furnished by the extension department of the Iowa State College of Agriculture. The course in agriculture included dairying, stock judging, and corn judging; and the course in domestic science consisted of lessons in cooking and sewing. From 4 to 5 o'clock each afternoon the schoolboys had work in judging corn and cattle, and the girls were instructed in cooking and sewing.

THE CREAMERY BUTTERMAKER.

The buttermaker of the Algona creamery worked in close cooperation with the field man, and assisted greatly along all lines of community development in dairving. His advice was especially helpful in dairy-herd improvement and in getting the farmers to adopt better methods of caring for milk and cream. He made many improvements in the creamery and greatly increased its efficiency. The average overrun for the year previous to the beginning of the study was 16.3 per cent, while that for 1915 was nearly 23 per cent. Better sanitary conditions on the farms and in the creamery improved the quality of the butter, and the better product brought better prices. A system of grading cream was established, and a premium paid for sweet cream. This gave the farmers more money with which to extend and improve their dairies. The modern methods established in the creamery attracted the attention of buttermakers in other creameries and influenced them to make many improvements. During the last year of the work a butter-scoring contest, open to all the buttermakers of the State, was held at Algona.

On January 10, 1914, the assistant State dairy and food commissioner of Iowa inspected and scored the Algona creamery for the purpose of determining whether the creamery should be granted the right to use the State butter trade-mark (fig. 6). To obtain this right a creamery must score 93 or better. The Algona creamery passed the test with a score of 99. Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.



FIG. 1.-THE OLD CREAMERY AT ALGONA, IOWA, WHICH WAS USED FOR A FEW YEARS AFTER THE EXPERIMENT IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT BEGAN.



FIG. 2.-THE NEW MODERN SANITARY CREAMERY AT ALGONA, IOWA, WHICH REPLACED THE CREAMERY ILLUSTRATED ABOVE.

FAR-REACHING EFFECTS OF THE WORK.

The development of the community experiment brought about the organization of a county buttermakers' association to encourage the extension of the work throughout the county and into other counties. A cow-testing association, organized in 1913, is assisting in determining which dairy animals should be disposed of, and is raising the average production and profit from year to year. A Holstein breeders' association was organized to promote the interests of that breed, and similar associations will be formed in the near future to look after the interests of other dairy breeds. The

influence and support of the creamery board of directors was of much assistance The members of the board were always prompt in making improvements in the creamerv on the recommendation of the field man, and the board's influence was a potent factor in promoting better dairy methods throughout the community. A whitewash pump was provided, to be lent



FIG. 6 .--- Butter trade-mark.

to patrons. This encouraged the farmers to improve the appearance and cleanliness of the interior of their barns.

The local press gave much publicity to the dairy movement. One of the papers published a dairy column each week, using material written by the field man. A part of the column was devoted to local dairy-farm news, and occasionally the good results accomplished on some particular farm were emphasized. The papers also advertised dairy meetings and reported the work accomplished.

PROFITABLENESS OF THE WORK.

At the end of the five-year period a complete survey of the community was made to determine the results accomplished.

The following table shows net profits due to increased production per cow and to improvement in the quality of cream.

x	Increased net income from larger and more economical production of butterfat.	Increased net income due to better quality of butter man- ufactured.	Total net profit to patrons.
1911		\$2,060	\$2,060
1912	\$2,694	2,309	5,003
1913	3,965	2,422	6,387
1914	6,435	2,641	9,076
1915	6,956	2,687	9,643
	20,050	12,119	32, 169
Salary and expenses of field man for 5 years.			11,196
-	it above salary man	-	20,973

Sources of increased profits to creamery patrons.

During the 30-day period ended March 15, 1916, the cowtesting association records showed that there were 32 cows which gave more than 40 pounds of butterfat each, the highest being 71 pounds. The work of the cow-testing association, by eliminating low producers, added much to the value of every herd tested. The net financial gain through dairyherd improvement due to selection, breeding, and feeding can not be closely estimated, but it is doubtless greater than the net gain from dairy products as itemized above.

As an example of the cash value of cow-testing records, the local auctioneer estimated that one farmer sold 19 head of dairy cattle at an average price from \$10 to \$12 a head more than he otherwise would have received.

CAUSES OF INCREASED PROFITS.

As the work progressed unprofitable cows were eliminated, better bulls were obtained, and up-to-date feeding methods were adopted. In order to reduce the cost of milk production much attention was given to the growing of such feeds as clover, alfalfa, and silage corn. During the five-year period the number of silos was increased from 7 to 44, or

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more than 600 per cent. Many herds that had been without shelter even in the coldest winter weather, and that had been compelled to gather a large part of their feed in the cornfields, are now kept in comfortable barns and fed good rations, economically balanced. The water supply for dairy cows had previously been furnished in an open tank which in midwinter was often covered with several inches of ice, but now in cold winter weather tank heaters are in use on a large percentage of the farms.

In January, 1913, in competition with associations from 14 States, the Kossuth County Buttermakers' Association took the gold and silver medals for butter made from gathered cream, and during the same year the Algona buttermaker won several first prizes, among which was highest score at the National Dairy Show. This, in a way, illustrates the improved dairy conditions on the farms. Before the development work began, 90 per cent of the cream was delivered in a sour condition, but during 1915, 89.4 per cent of all the cream received at the creamery was sweet, and the remainder, though sour, was of good quality. By following the advice of the field man, all improvements were made at little cost, and the net profits were very large in comparison to increased cost of production.

CONTINUANCE OF THE MOVEMENT.

Even without assistance, it seems certain that the Algona community will continue the development already started. Members of the cow-testing association and of the Holstein breeders' association are much interested in the continuation of the dairy movement. Since the beginning of this project the county-agent movement has met with great success in all parts of the country, and it is believed that community development in dairying can be carried on with advantage in close cooperation with, and perhaps under the direction of, county agricultural agents.

WHAT HAPPENED TO THE OLD CREAMERY.

The old creamery at Algona was on land owned by a railroad, close to the stockyards, in an out-of-the-way place which was far from sanitary, and the machinery was in

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need of repair. Financial conditions were such that the old building had to be used until the development work improved the financial condition of the organization and permitted the construction of a new building. During this period every effort was made to keep the old building and equipment neat and clean. The results showed that much was accomplished in spite of adverse conditions.

The old creamery was discarded in 1914, and a modern brick-and-tile building was erected on the main street in the business section of the town. The general plan of this building was designed by the Dairy Division of the Bureau of Animal Industry and embodies the latest ideas on convenient and sanitary arrangement. Many creamery boards of directors from various parts of the State already have visited the creamery with the idea of incorporating the improvements in new creamery buildings soon to be erected in their own communities.

BETTER FARM HOMES.

As financial prosperity increased, living conditions among the farmers became more comfortable. When the work began, modern conveniences in farm homes were not common. At the end of the five-year period 18 patrons used furnace heat in their dwellings, 16 had gaslight in their homes, 4 had small electric-light plants, and 21 homes were equipped with baths and running water. The special dairy meetings, farmers' picnics, and boys' encampments developed a community spirit which greatly improved social conditions. The financial gain is the one most readily measured, but it is only a small part of the total results that came from this experiment in community development in dairying.

SUPPRESSION OF THE GIPSY AND BROWN-TAIL MOTHS AND ITS VALUE TO STATES NOT IN-FESTED.

By A. F. BURGESS,

In Charge of Gipsy Moth and Brown-tail Moth Investigations, Bureau of Entomology.

MANY years ago a circumstance occurred at Medford, Mass., which was destined to cause enormous expense and trouble in that community and throughout the neighboring States. About 1869, Prof. Leopold Trouvelot, a French naturalist who was a resident of Medford, introduced a few egg clusters of the gipsy moth for the purpose of conducting experiments on silk culture. During the course of the experiments some of the caterpillars escaped. Realizing that the insect was a serious pest in Europe, he made a careful search on the trees and in the woodland nearby for the purpose of destroying any that could be found. He also notified the Department of Agriculture at Washington. None of the insects which had escaped could be found, but as no injury resulted during the next few years, it was thought that the matter was not of great importance.

About 20 years later the neighborhood was invaded by swarms of caterpillars which were supposed by most of the residents to be a native species that had become unusually abundant. A study of the matter developed the fact that the insect which was defoliating the trees was the notorious gipsy moth of Europe and that it had become firmly established in the locality in which it had originally escaped and throughout the immediate surroundings. Its slow increase seemingly was remarkable, but this has been accounted for by the facts that the wood and brush land in the neighborhood was burned over every few years by forest fires, that time abundant in the neighborhood, and that the destruction of a few caterpillars when the species was very rare would result in holding down the increase for a number of years.

The city of Medford and the State of Massachusetts soon interested themselves in a campaign to destroy this insect. It had become so abundant in many places during the early nineties that the trees in the residential sections were de-

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foliated completely during early summer, and the caterpillars swarmed into houses, making themselves a general nuisance throughout the community. In some sections it was impossible to rent property on account of the abundance of the caterpillars, and real estate values declined rapidly. For 10 years a desperate battle was carried on by the State of Massachusetts to exterminate the insect, and during that period it was found to occur in greater or less numbers throughout 30 towns and cities, principally toward the north and west of Boston. This work reduced the infestations to such an extent that many citizens who, during the first part of the period, had been seriously annoyed by the pest, or had suffered severe loss from it, came to the conclusion that because it was seldom seen the work was unnecessary and no harm would result if measures for its control were discontinued.

In 1897 another foreign pest, namely, the brown-tail moth of Europe, was discovered in Somerville, Mass., and the effort to bring this insect under control added to the State's financial burdens. The caterpillars of this moth are provided with hairs which cause severe itching and urtication when coming in contact with the human skin, producing an eruption which is known by those who have experienced the trouble as the "brown-tail rash." Thus, while the gipsy-moth caterpillars were a nuisance on account of their large size and disagreeable appearance, the presence of caterpillars of the brown-tail moth in large numbers was actually unbearable on account of the poisoning which resulted to the residents.

Enough pressure was brought to bear, however, in the fall of 1899 to cause the discontinuance of State appropriations for the control of these insects. The residents soon found that this policy did not work as anticipated, for both insects increased at an alarming rate, and in the course of three or four years the infestation had become so bad that many citizens were forced to attempt control measures. The work which was done was not carried on in a systematic manner, and while a few exerted every effort to protect their property from the depredations of these insects and to keep their trees free from the caterpillars, many totally neglected to attend to the work, and the result was a general clamor for a systematic and thorough effort to abate the nuisance. During this period many acres of woodland became infested seriously and in the years which followed thousands of acres

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were defoliated during the early summer. Matters became so serious in 1905 that work was resumed by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, but the law was framed in such a way that not only the State but the towns and cities and the owners of property were required to give financial support to the undertaking.

During the period when no work was being carried on by the State of Massachusetts the insects spread to Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Maine, making the problem far more serious than before. In 1906 funds were appropriated by Congress to prevent the spread of these insects, and since that time Federal work for this purpose has been continued. It is true that both insects have spread over a much larger area since this work began, but that was to be expected, owing to the necessity of properly organizing the work and developing new and better methods for handling the problem on a scale unprecedented for insect control.

The gipsy moth and the brown-tail moth occur in greater or less numbers in all the New England States. The dispersion of the brown-tail moth covers a larger area than that of the gipsy moth, because both sexes of the brown-tail fly freely and, this being the case, it is very difficult to prevent their spread. These white moths are attracted to strong light, particularly electric arc lights, and about the 10th of July of each year they can usually be found in badly infested regions on poles, trees, or buildings near these lights. The extent to which they spread at this time depends largely on the temperature and the direction and velocity of the wind. These moths have been taken on the Nantucket Shoals lightship, which is 42 nautical miles from Nantucket. the nearest land, and as the infestation of that island by this insect is very slight it is probable that the moths came from a much greater distance. Frequent reports have been received from captains of sailing vessels that swarms of these moths have been encountered from 75 to 100 miles out at sea, although there is a possibility that there may have been a mistake in identifying the insect. These facts indicate that the possibility of rapid spread, so far as this insect is concerned, is very great, provided high temperature and favorable winds occur when the moths are flying. Fortunately, the prevailing winds in New England during early July are from a southerly or southwesterly direction, which tends to bring about a general spread of the insect toward the seacoast instead of inland.

The female moths deposit egg masses on the underside of the leaves of apple, pear, oak, cherry, rose, and numerous other trees and plants. The caterpillars hatch about the middle of August and feed for about a month. The eggs are usually laid on the leaves on the terminal twigs and the small caterpillars draw a number of these together to form a web, in which they remain during the winter. In the spring, as soon as the buds begin to expand, the caterpillars emerge from the webs and feed on the buds and developing leaves. They become full grown about the middle of June and spin cocoons either singly or in masses, from which the moths emerge during the first part of July. The large caterpillars, which are provided with many long hairs, are particularly poisonous.

The male and female gipsy moths differ in color, the former being chocolate brown, while the latter is light cream color, having wings marked with black. This insect is in the moth stage during early July, but, fortunately, the female moths are unable to fly on account of the size and weight of their bodies, so that their natural spread is not as rapid as is that of the brown-tail moth. Clusters containing 400 or more eggs are deposited by the females on trees or, in fact, on any material which furnishes a somewhat sheltered location. These clusters are about an inch long, oval in form, and are covered with vellowish hair from the body of the female. As the eggs do not hatch until the following spring, there is ample opportunity for the insect to be spread in the egg stage during the fall and winter if lumber, plant products, or other material upon which they are deposited is shipped to outside points. The caterpillars hatch late in April or early in May, depending on the season, and feed on the leaves which are beginning to expand. They continue to feed and develop until about the first of July, when pupation takes place, the moths emerging a week or more later.

During the first work which was done for the purpose of controlling the gipsy moth, a study was made of the manner in which this insect was spread. It was determined that while the female did not cause spread, since it was impossible for her to fly, egg clusters were frequently transported

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from place to place on shipments of lumber and other material and that in cases where heavy infestations occurred the caterpillars might be carried a considerable distance on vehicles. It is a common habit of the larvæ, if they are disturbed, to spin silken threads which are attached to the trees and in this way lower themselves to the ground. Since the gipsy-moth campaign first began. an unprecedented development in means of rapid transportation has taken place. At first and for several years motor vehicles were practically unknown, but for the last few years the increase in this mode of transportation has been enormous. It has been found. however, as a result of much work and many experiments. that if the roadways are kept clear from heavy infestation the number of caterpillars distributed by motor vehicles is very small. A number of years ago the results of the scouting work, which consists of examining roadways, orchards, and wooded areas for infestation, indicated that many colonies were present the occurrence of which could not be explained by any known means of spread. Woodland infestations were found in places that were infrequently visited by men or animals. This led to a thorough study and a long series of experiments which proved conclusively that the small caterpillars, immediately after hatching, may be blown long distances by the wind. It has been proved that spread often occurs for a distance of from 12 to 20 miles in this way. These facts would seem to make the prevention of spread of the insect hopeless, if not impossible. But the same factors, namely, temperature and wind direction, which have brought about the greatest drift of infestation by the brown-tail moth toward the seacoast, are equally effective in connection with the spread of small gipsy-moth caterpillars. During the period when these minute larvæ can be blown by the wind it is necessary for the temperature to range from 60° F. upward, the higher temperature increasing the activity of the insect. This comparatively high temperature must be accompanied by strong winds if spread for any great distance is to result, and when the combination of high temperature and strong wind occurs in New England in the month of May the wind usually blows from the south or southwest. Variations in this general rule occur, depending on how far the locality is removed from the sea-

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board, and these facts are taken into consideration in carrying on field work against this insect.

The task which has fallen to the Bureau of Entomology in connection with gipsy-moth control has been to use every effort possible to prevent the spread of the insect and to reduce the damage resulting therefrom. It has been necessary to carry through many extensive experiments in order to secure information for use in the field operations. and the experimental work has formed the basis and groundwork for the application of field methods. Prior to 1905 no effort was made to introduce the parasites and natural enemies of the gipsy moth or the brown-tail moth. A popular theory exists that in its native home every insect is held within reasonable bounds by parasites or natural enemies. and that each insect has some one species of parasite or natural enemy which is responsible for its control. When this natural check fails. either on account of attack by its own enemies or for other reasons, the original host will, for a time, become noxious. The problem of utilizing the natural enemies of the gipsy moth and the brown-tail moth appeared somewhat complicated, but the difficulties were not realized until after the work was well under way. It soon became apparent that neither of these pests was controlled by a single species of parasite in its native home. Through the efforts of Dr. L. O. Howard, Chief of the Bureau of Entomology, acting in cooperation with the State of Massachusetts and many foreign entomologists, as well as numerous agents employed by the bureau, a large number, approximately 30 species, of parasites and natural enemies of the gipsy moth and browntail moth have been collected and shipped to the Gipsy Moth Laboratory at Melrose Highlands, Mass. Shipments of this sort have been received from most of the countries of Europe and from Japan. The result has been that 7 or 8 species have become established in the infested area and are helping to solve the problem.

It has developed, however, that in Europe, at any rate, the ravages of the gipsy moth are partially controlled by several factors in addition to the work of the parasites. A wilt disease which attacks the caterpillars and causes heavy mortality among them is present not only there but

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in this country, and is a powerful agent in curtailing the increase of the species. The character of the food plants is also of great importance. The tree growth of the infested region has been classified according to its adaptability as food for the gipsy moth. It has been found that practically all coniferous growth, if grown in solid stands, fails to support this insect; that ash is not subject to attack, and that maple and hickory are seldom injured to any great extent.

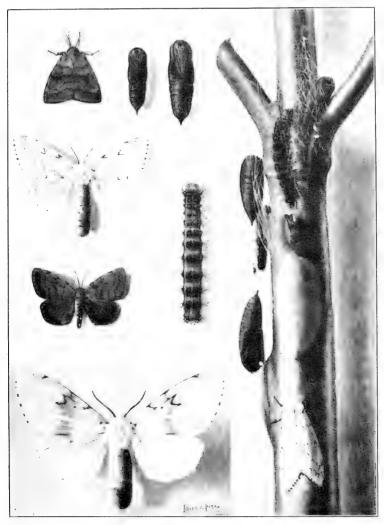
An effort is being made to encourage the growth in woodlands of the tree species just mentioned, and to discourage the growth and planting of oak, willow, and poplar, which are favored foods. Unfortunately the greater part of the infested area abounds in oak growth which, for the most part, is of poor quality and has a very low merchantable value. This fact discourages greatly the elimination of favored food plants in the infested area. Nevertheless some progress has been made in eliminating favored food plants in the heavily infested areas. Thinning work is being carried on by the Bureau of Entomology in the isolated colonies near the borders of infestation also, but in addition it has been necessary to treat the egg clusters found in these areas and to reduce the caterpillars by the application of sticky bands to the trees and by thorough spraving in order promptly to prevent further spread. The importation and colonization of natural enemies has served to reduce the infestation in the many localities in the worst infested sections. These factors are bringing about a gradual reduction in the main supply of the insect which, in case they were not employed, would serve as a stock for further distribution of the pest. Every effort is being made to prevent long-distance spread of both insects by carriage on products shipped to points outside the infested area. The territory infested is under quarantine by the Federal Horticultural Board and all products likely to carry the insect out of the infested area are inspected before they are allowed to be moved. The border territory is thoroughly inspected and the gross infestation in this region is being gradually reduced. It is inevitable that new colonies will be found from time to time outside the region now known to be infested, but substantial progress is being made in preventing any widespread dispersion of the insect.

Each State has its own organization which is attempting to reduce the infestation within its borders, and much effective work has been accomplished as a result. The work of the Bureau of Entomology is so ordered as to avoid duplication and prevent conflict with that carried on by the State authorities, and as these matters have been arranged in advance, little difficulty in this respect has been experienced.

The work which is being carried on in New England to prevent the spread of these insects is of the utmost importance to other States. It has been well said that "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," and this can be no better demonstrated than in the experience which Massachusetts has had with the gipsy moth. During the time when an attempt was made by the State to exterminate the insects in the nineties, the largest amount of money expended by the State in any one year was \$200,000, and there is good reason to suppose that if this work had been continued the annual expenditure at the present time would have been materially decreased. The year after the work was resumed and thoroughly organized, an expenditure of nearly onehalf million dollars was necessary, and the amount expended annually during most of the years since that time has been even greater. This was paid by State appropriation and by contributions required by law from infested towns and cities and from the owners of infested property. While recently the expenditure has been reduced somewhat, over a half million dollars is the yearly expenditure in Massachusetts at the present time, the money being raised by the same method.

The New England States are carrying the greater part of the burden of moth infestation because from them come mainly the funds for control work and they are suffering from the injury caused by the insects, but the money appropriated by the Federal Government, while assisting these States in some measure, is also providing insurance to the uninfested States, and that at a very low rate.

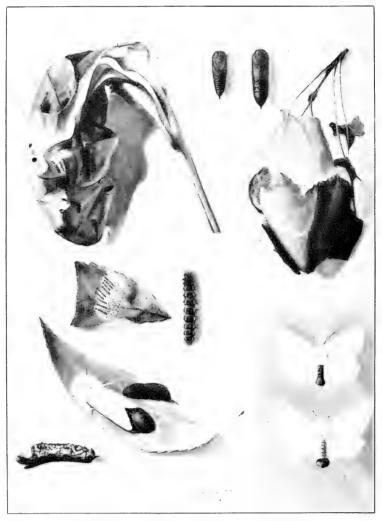
To illustrate the necessary expenditure by towns and cities in the infested area in order properly to control the gipsy moth, a few examples are cited. These are all taken from towns and cities in Massachusetts, where the infestation has been rather heavy during the last few years. The information in regard to population is based on the United



THE GIPSY MOTH (PORTHETRIA DISPAR).

Upper left, male moth with wings folded; just below this, female moth with wings spread; just below this, male moth with wings spread; lower left, female moth, enlarged; top center, male pupa at left, female pupa at right; center, larva; on branch, at top, newly formed pupa; on branch, just below this, larva ready to pupate; on branch, left side, pupa; on branch, center, egg cluster; on branch, at bottom, female moth depositing egg cluster. All slightly reduced except figure at lower left. (From Howard and Fiske.)

PLATE XLVL



THE BROWN-TAIL MOTH (EUPROCTIS CHRYSORRHOEA).

Upper left, hibernating web; just below this, small larvæ feeding at left, larger larva at right; just below this, female moth depositing eggs at left, egg mass at right; lower left, egg mass with eggs exposed; top center, male pupa at left, female pupa at right; upper right, cocoon inca set in lerves; lower right, male moth above, female moth below. All slightly reduced. (From Howard and Fiske.)

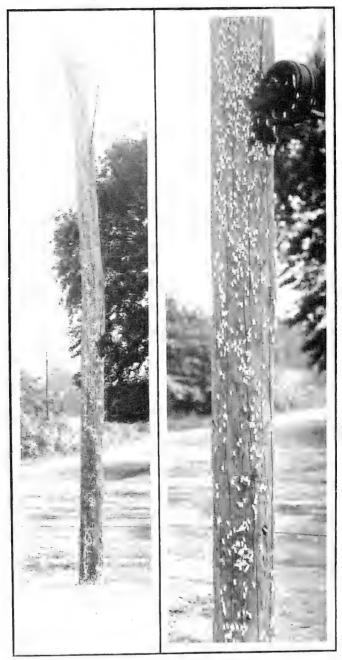


FIG. I.-WOODLAND COMPLETELY DEFOLIATED BY GIPSY-MOTH CATERPILLARS.



FIG. 2.- APPLE ORCHARD COMPLETELY DEFOLIATED BY BROWN-TAIL MOTH CATERPILLARS.

PLATE XLVIII.



BROWN-TAIL MOTHS ON ELECTRIC ARC-LIGHT POLES.



FIG. 1.-MIXED DECIDUOUS AND CONIFEROUS WOODLAND BEFORE THINNING.

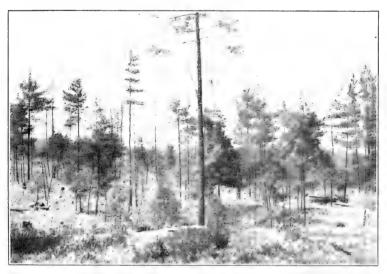
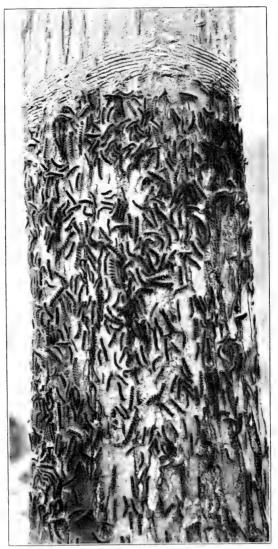


FIG. 2.—SAME WOODLAND AFTER FAVORED FOOD PLANTS HAD BEEN REMOVED.

PLATE L.



GIPSY-MOTH CATERPILLARS ON TREE TRUNK BENEATH STICKY BAND.



FIG. I.-MOTOR TRUCK SPRAYER IN OPERATION.



FIG. 2.- PAVING BLOCKS INFESTED WITH GIPSY-MOTH EGG CLUSTERS.

States census of 1910, while that on valuation is the record of the local authorities for the year 1915.

A town having an area of 16 square miles, a population of 559, and an assessed valuation of \$465,513, is badly infested with the gipsy moth. In 1915 the expenditures made by the town, together with those made by property owners, amounted to \$312.84, which was at the rate of 67 cents per \$1,000 valuation, or 52 cents per capita. In addition to this expenditure, State aid to the amount of \$1,322.80 was received.

A town having an area of 19 square miles, a population of 829, a valuation of \$736,945, and about as heavily infested as the preceding, made similar expenditures of \$968.31, which was at the rate of \$1.31 per \$1,000 valuation, or \$1.17 per capita. In addition to this, State aid was received to the amount of \$2,207.90.

In a third town, having an area of 7 square miles, a population of 7,090, and a valuation of \$6,067,430, there was expended \$3,898.83, which amounted to 64 cents per \$1,000 valuation, or 55 cents per capita. In addition to this, \$1,081.32 was received from the State. This town is a manufacturing community, rather thickly settled, with only a small area of woodland, and not as heavily infested as those previously mentioned.

A fourth town, containing 26 square miles, having a population of 6,681 and a valuation of \$9,318,055, expended \$4,447.14 on moth work, which was at the rate of 47 cents per \$1,000 valuation, or 67 cents per capita. In addition to this, \$407.08 was received from the State. This town is residential and has many large estates and some excellent farms, and was generally infested by the gipsy moth.

A city of 32 square miles, having a population of 145,986 and a valuation of \$179,198,586, expended \$17,190.77, which was at the rate of 9 cents per \$1,000 valuation. or 12 centsper capita; \$726.93 was received from the State. This city was not as badly infested by the gipsy moth as the towns which have been mentioned previously, but the brown-tail moth infestation was more severe.

For convenience in making comparisons, a summary of the foregoing information covering four towns and one city is given in the following table:

^{54159°-}твк 1916-15

Assessed valuation.	Area in square miles.	Popula- tion.	Town and owners' expendi- tures, 1915.			
			Amount.	Per \$1,000 valua- tion.	Per capita.	Additional State aid.
\$465,513	16	559	\$312.84	\$0,67	\$0.52	\$1,322.80
736,945	19	829	968.31	1.31	1.17	2,207.90
6,067,430	7	7,090	3, 898. 83	. 64	. 55	1,081.32
9,318,055	26	6,681	4,447.14	. 47	.67	407.08
179, 198, 586	32	145,986	17, 190. 77	. 09	.12	726.93

Expenditures for the control of the gipsy moth and brown-tail moth in certain towns and cities in Massachusetts.

The foregoing figures indicate in a general way the expenditures that are likely to be necessary in towns and cities in uninfested States, in case the gipsy moth becomes established. It shows conclusively the amount of protection which other sections of the country are receiving as a result of the gipsy-moth work which is being done in New England. A large part of the funds expended by towns and cities has been used for the protection of shade and ornamental trees, it having been found impossible to carry on extensive work in woodlands, owing to the extreme cost of these operations.

The beauty and attractiveness of most cities and residential sections depend on the trees. These not only make the region attractive and a desirable place to live, but also add money value to the property. American cities are coming more and more to realize the importance and value of shade trees, and any step that can be taken for their protection or to prevent injury from insects is most desirable.

To prevent the introduction of serious pests into a region where they are unknown is far more important than to expend large sums of money in an attempt to bring about their control after they have been introduced and have successfully established themselves. This is precisely the work which is being attempted in New England on the gipsymoth problem, and a record of expenditures from a few localities which may be considered as average samples indicates the benefit that other parts of the United States are deriving from this important work.

PROGRESS IN HANDLING THE WOOL CLIP: DEVELOPMENT IN THE WEST.

By F. R. MARSHALL,

Animal Husbandry Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

THE sheep industry of the Western States the past two seasons has been marked by high prices which have stimulated progress in breeding for both wool and mutton and by the introduction of more businesslike methods of handling the wool clip. For 30 years prior to the season of 1915 woolgrowers had not undertaken to grade their wools before shipment. During 1916, however, about 7,000,000 pounds of wool was graded and baled at the time of shearing. This amount included 81 clips, representing approximately 870,000 sheep. The work was done mainly in sheds constructed or remodeled in 1915 or 1916. Although these changes in methods of handling and selling wool have been confined to three far Western States, the innovations are applicable over the range-sheep territory.

Woolgrowers of Carbon and Sweetwater Counties, Wyo., have been particularly active. A new shearing shed modeled after the Australian plan, with a capacity for 3,000 sheep daily, was erected in 1915 in Sweetwater County. Another was remodeled to include the main features of Australian sheds. In 1916 two new sheds were erected in Carbon County and one in Sweetwater County and two others were remodeled. Special facilities were provided in all of these sheds to permit systematic handling of fleeces. The clips were graded and shipped in bales, ready for final sale without the usual further handling undergone by most clips in the dealers' warehouses before sale to manufacturers is attempted. One clip had been graded and baled in Montana in 1914. Other clips were prepared in this way in that State and in Nevada in 1915 and 1916.

THE NEW SHEARING SHEDS.

Concerning the best methods and amount of labor which should be expended upon the fleeces in preparing them for shipment from the ranch, there has been discussion and uncertainty. The advantages of the new sheds, however, have been recognized by all sheepmen visiting them, and the only

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hindrance to the erection of sheds in large numbers lies in their cost. This is especially a hindrance in cases, very common in the woolgrowing territory, in which the sheep owner is without assurance as to the length of time he can retain the range he is using.

The new sheds furnish more commodious pens for holding a supply of sheep ready for the shearers. They are elevated from 4 to 6 feet above the ground to allow discharging the shorn sheep back underneath the holding pen, thus removing the necessity of their crossing the board upon which the shearing is done. This results in fewer steps being taken by the shearers and less interference by sheep and shearers with the men or boys passing up and down the board in carrying the fleeces to the wool room. The arrangement to permit discharging the shorn sheep at the same side of the board as it entered is the first essential of a well-planned shed. It is secured by setting the shed on posts from 4 to 6 feet long. The sheep enter at an incline at one end of the holding pens.

After shearing, the sheep is put down the inclined chute as shown in figure 7 which leads to the ground below the holding pens. The pens from which the shearer catches his sheep are single, 8 feet by 5 feet 6 inches in size. This removes the opportunity for choice of sheep that exists when there are two shearers to a pen. The shafting that drives the shearing machines is arranged for attachment of gears each 5 feet 6 inches, thus requiring shearers to work at that distance from each other.

Double doors, each with double springs, render it easy for the shearer to get his sheep from the pen to the shearing floor. After shearing, the sheep are passed down the incline, the opening of which is in the same wall and at one side of the door to the pen. They then pass to the separate counting-out pens outside the shed, where each shearer's work can be examined and tallies correctly kept.

The holding pens, alley, and eatch pens shown in the plan will hold at one time 30 sheep for each shearer. This allows the sheep to remain inside for a sufficient length of time to cause the amount of sweating that is needed to make the wool cut easily. This entire space is floored with 2 by 3 inch boards laid on edge, with $\frac{5}{2}$ -inch space between, which insures complete cleanliness even for sheep that may lie down. The space below the floor in the plan will hold 500 sheep and is used either to keep a supply of dry unshorn sheep or for sheltering newly shorn sheep during storms or cold weather. Dry shelter for the first night after shearing has

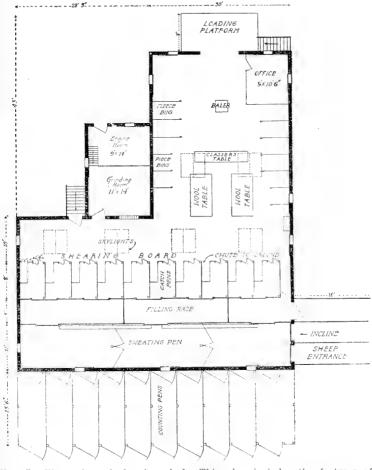


FIG. 7.—Floor plan of shearing shed. This plan includes the features of Australian sheds.

prevented many losses that otherwise would have occurred when shearing was done early in the season.

The arrangement of these sheds reduces the handling of the sheep to the minimum, thereby preventing injury and loss, particularly in ewes shorn before lambing. The im-

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proved working conditions render it more practicable to secure good shearing and humane treatment of the sheep by the shearers and penners.

PREPARING THE WOOL.

The improved facilities do not necessitate any change in the methods of handling the wool after shearing. In all of the new or remodeled sheds the plan of grading the wool and shipping in bales has been followed. Clips amounting to 5,000,000 pounds were prepared according to a plan favored by the National Wool Warehouse and Storage Company, a cooperative concern located in Chicago and controlled by western woolgrowers, the business of which is restricted to selling on commission the wools shipped by stockholders. In the sheds where this plan was followed in 1916 the fleeces were carried from the shearing floor and thrown upon tables in a way to cause them to lie fully spread out. The tops of these tables were made of rollers 13 inches in diameter, with sufficient space between to allow loose, heavy pieces or dirt to reach the floor. The dung tags were removed, each fleece was rolled up separately, and passed to a competent grader, who placed it in some one of a set of bins near by, these being of sufficient number to keep separate all the grades made. The latter were those commonly in use in the American wool trade, as follows:

Fine and Fine Medium Staple. Fine and Fine Medium Clothing. Half Blood Staple. Half Blood Clothing. § Blood. § Blood. Low Quarter Blood. Braid. Tags.

The belly wool remained with the fleeces in these sheds. The bales were marked to show the grade, weight, and name or brand of the growers of the wool.

In four other sheds 118,800 sheep were shorn, yielding 983,700 pounds of wool. In these cases the plan of handling the wool was that followed in Australia and advocated by persons who have since formed an association incorporated as the "American Wool Improvement Association." According to this plan the belly wool was separated from the fleece by the shearer and all bellies from the same kind of sheep baled together. The fleeces were thrown spread out upon the wool tables, and before being rolled up were "skirted." This consisted in removing some of the wool from the edges of the fleece as it came to the table without the belly wool. In crossbred sheep and in some Merino sheep the britch or lower thigh wool is materially coarser than the body of the fleece, and when left in appears as a different quality and may serve to lower the value of the better wool. Skirting is practiced in Australia partly because of burrs in the lower parts of the fleece.

Instead of using the American system of grading in these sheds, the fleeces were classed according to the terms used in the Australian trade. These were: AA Combing, A Combing, AA Comeback, A Comeback, AA Halfbred, A Halfbred, AA 3/4 bred, A 3/4 bred, A Clothing, B Clothing, 1st pieces, 2d pieces, Bellies, Locks, Black, Stained pieces, and Tags. The finest wool was classed as combing or clothing, the other main classes ordinarily comprising fleeces from sheep carrying part of other than Merino blood. The 3/4-bred class corresponds to the American 1/4-blood. The 1st, 2d, and stained pieces were from the parts skirted off, and the locks largely from underneath the wool tables.

In both American and Australian practice a fleece is assigned to some one grade on the basis of what it is, regardless of the blood lines of the sheep producing it. The first-cross progeny of a Lincoln and a Merino might be supposed to produce a fleece which in fineness would be "half blood" or "half bred" in Australian terms. As a matter of fact not more than half the fleeces from sheep so bred will fall into either of those grades. The terms that have come into use in both countries stand for well-understood qualities, and the fact that they are really largely misnomers, if correspondence with the breeding of the sheep is considered, is of no practical importance. There seems to be no real advantage to be obtained from the introduction of a new set of terms in ranch grading of wools.

The AA and A divisions of each class were made on the basis of difference in shrinkage and character of wools of the same length and fineness. This subdivision is a logical one and is practicable with large clips or with good facilities for selling in small lots. Such facilities do not exist at present in United States wool markets. However, the cooperative warehouse company previously mentioned follows the plan of combining smaller lots of similar wools from a number of consigned clips, and after their sale makes the returns to each owner on the basis of the price for the combined lot. This practice also is followed by some concerns doing a part commission business, and in resale of mixed clips bought for speculation.

In neither set of sheds were fleeces tied before baling. When opened in the East the wools had lost nothing by baling and made a good appearance.

ADVANTAGES OF GRADING AT THE RANCH.

All of the woolgrowers who had their clips graded at home in 1915 did so again in 1916. Although some of them had in other years received reports of the warehouse grading of their clips, the lesson was by no means so valuable as that learned from seeing the work done at shearing time. Many growers realized for the first time the great amount of clothing wool they were producing and realized as well the variety of grades of wool that came from sheep supposedly of uniform character but in the breeding of which they had not adhered to a distinct standard of fleece in the selection of rams. The amount and value of wool from flocks bred on consistent systematic lines appeared in sharp contrast to the returns from the other and more numerous flocks representing no studied plan or system of breeding.

Those growers who are qualified to appraise their own wools fairly on the basis of examination and correct reading of market reports derive a selling advantage from grading at home. When the fleeces are sacked as they run the proportion of each grade of wool can be estimated only. No opportunity is offered to examine a pile of fleeces of one grade, and the attempt to place a fair value upon the clip results largely in guesswork. Too often the reported selling price of other wools of supposedly similar type is taken as a basis of determining value. The new plan makes it possible for the flockmaster who studies his wool to appraise his clip closely for guidance when considering offers received at home as against consignment for sale at eastern points.

PLATE LU.



FIG. 1.- TYPE OF SHELTER FREQUENTLY USED FOR SHEARING SHEEP ON WESTERN RANGES.



FIG. 2.—THE "PIONEER" AUSTRALIAN STYLE SHEARING SHED NEAR BITTER CREEK, WYO.

PLATE LIII.



FIG. 1.-SHEEP ENTERING SWEATING PENS OF A REMODELED SHEARING SHED AT BITTER CREEK, WYO.



FIG. 2.-LOADING BALED WOOL AT THE "PIONEER" SHEARING SHED, BITTER CREEK, WYO.

PLATE LIV.



FIG. I.-WOOL BUYERS INSPECTING CLIP OFFERED FOR SALE ON THE "SEALED BID" PLAN.



FIG. 2.-BALED WOOL AT WAMSUTTER, WYO., READY FOR LOADING ON CARS.

PLATE LV.



FIG. I.

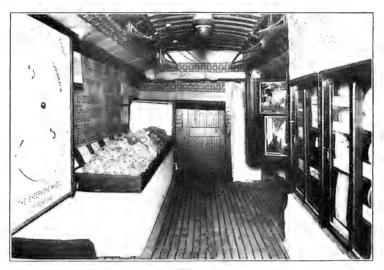


FIG. 2.

INTERIOR VIEWS OF EDUCATIONAL WOOL CAR RUN THROUGH WESTERN STATES, 1916, BY THE BUREAU OF ANIMAL INDUSTRY IN COOPERATION WITH AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES.

Progress in Handling the Wool Clip.

The new plan of preparing clips for market involves material expense, however, although this is in part offset by the lower freight rate on baled wools. Where the tags only are removed from the fleeces the rolling, grading, and baling require 5 more hands for a shed shearing 2,000 sheep daily than are needed for sacking the fleeces directly from the shearing board. Some sheep raisers assert that this expenditure is fully offset by the information gained as to the lines upon which their flocks should be bred and handled to secure wool of the maximum value.

SELLING RANCH-GRADED WOOL.

In 1915 a part of the home-graded wools was offered for sale at the sheds on the sealed-bid plan. Of the several buyers in attendance one or two represented eastern mills and the others represented concerns that buy wools for speculation. No sales resulted. Some entire clips of graded wools were sold privately at one price for the entire weight. The majority were consigned to eastern houses and sold at various times through the remainder of the year.

In 1916 the graded wools were mainly consigned to Chicago, Boston, and Philadelphia houses. Sales were made by the "interlotting" plan of combining lots of similar grade and value from various clips so as to make an offering of sufficient size to sell advantageously.

In neither season could it be said that a line was obtained upon the manufacturers' financial appreciation of the new system. To do this it would be necessary to sell publicly, in a single day and on an active market, fully similar wools prepared on the old and new lines.

Some manufacturers have expressed themselves as well pleased with the condition and preparation of the wools, but are very conservative in committing themselves as to any extra price. From the manufacturers' standpoint the new plan does not differ materially in effect from the old system under which he buys large lines graded from several clips in the dealer's warehouse. The selling agents reported strong objections to "overclassing," that is, the making of a larger number of grades than required by the principal commercial differences of the types of wool which the clip contains.

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Aside from the material advantages of knowing the actual grading of his clip and seeing the work done, the woolgrower can expect added returns to equal or overbalance his extra expense only by securing wider competition for his clip. This can not reasonably be expected under the plan of selling the clip at home and as a whole. It can be secured by consignment to concerns receiving large amounts of wools similarly prepared. This allows them to interlot satisfactorily and insures mill buyers of a large and steady supply of such wools. Only by the more general use of such a system can growers secure wider competition for the purchase of their wools.

The consignment plan does not eliminate the middleman, but gets the wool from the range to the mill on the basis of commission charges rather than of intermediate speculation. Such commission selling houses need financial arrangements for making advances to consignors pending the sale of their clips. Mills can never absorb the country's clip in a few months. Commission agents, like dealers, must therefore offer their stocks as the market justifies, and consignors must trust the judgment of their agents in this regard.

Such selling arrangements might be established in cities in the producing States. Growers might be more willing to consign to home concerns, but considerable difficulty would arise in attempting to establish free and steady selling so far from the points of consumption. If growers do not care to deal with commission concerns at eastern points, or will not cooperate in the establishment and patronage of houses of their own, they can not expect wider competition for their wools.

No wool-handling warehouses as yet have taken advantage of the provisions of the new warehouse act. The negotiability of receipts issued by Government-licensed warehouses will facilitate the financing of such enterprises, and the fact of Government supervision may be expected to secure the confidence of prospective patrons.

ADAPTARILITY OF THE WYOMING PLAN TO OTHER STATES.

Improved methods of preparing wools for market have been adopted first in Wyoming, as a result of the progressiveness of the woolgrowers. In the particular counties prominent in the movement greater security as to tenure of range has resulted from cooperative lease and purchase of railroad lands unsuitable for settlement. The individual ownership of sheep is large. Thus it has been feasible to make a greater outlay in shed construction than is likely to be made in other sections. The essential features of these sheds, however, can be embodied in smaller structures, and where feed and water conditions permit, two or more owners might cooperate in the erection of a suitable shed and employment of necessary hands and graders.

The first season's operations present some difficulty in the training of boys to carry and roll the fleeces. An experienced man who understands this part of the work and who knows how to direct the labor available can have it working smoothly in a few days. Greater difficulty is likely to be experienced in securing competent graders. The men who do this work at the warehouses are competent for this work but need supervision. In the months in which the shearing is done it is generally possible to engage some of these men. but it is necessary to offer them the grading of a number of clips to compensate for the expense of travel and time lost in going from one shed to another or through the shearing being interfered with by bad weather. This consideration suggests the cooperation of a number of owners in the employment of graders and in the arrangement of shearing dates.

OTHER FORWARD STEPS.

During 1916 the counties of Otsego and Essex in New York State, through their farm bureaus, marketed their wools on the pooling basis. In Otsego County the plan had been introduced in 1915 and 20,000 pounds were handled that year. The sale was made at an advance of 4½ cents per pound over the prices offered at the same time by the local dealers, who commonly buy at a uniform rate for resale to larger operators. In these cases no extra advantage in price was received by those who brought in the highest quality of wool. However, no really inferior wools were received. As larger quantities are received it will become practicable to do the grading needed to secure justice to all members. In Louisiana 300,000 pounds of wool were pooled and sold in 1916 as a result of the efforts of the representative of the United States Office of Markets and Rural Organization and the extension service of the agricultural college.

During the first four months of 1916 the Animal Husbandry Division of the Bureau of Animal Industry cooperated with four western agricultural colleges in educational work concerning the growing and handling of wools. A car was fitted with material to explain the relation of shrink, grade, character, etc., to the value of wool. Fleeces of each of the common grades were shown, along with live sheep carrying the same grade of fleece. The exhibit attracted a great deal of attention and was visited by over 6,000 sheepmen and other interested persons in Wyoming, Utah, Montana, and Idaho.

BUSINESS ESSENTIALS FOR COOPERATIVE FRUIT AND VEGETABLE CANNERIES.

By W. H. KERR,

Investigator in Market Business Practice, Office of Markets and Rural Organization.

PRODUCERS in many sections of the United States have dreamed of wealth secured from a cooperative cannery which would make use of their surplus products unmarketable in the fresh state, and they have thrown away thousands of dollars in the organization and operation of plants which never should have been started. The canning of fruit and vegetables on a large scale is a manufacturing business that requires special skill and experience, and into which many elements enter that are not present in other types of cooperative enterprise in agriculture. Many canneries have been promoted for the purpose of selling machinerv, creating salaried positions, or booming real estate, and still others for the purpose of unloading upon the farmers an enterprise which has been a failure as a private business. In most cases, cooperation in the canning of agricultural products on a commercial scale in the United States has been a failure. That cooperative canneries really handle a very small portion of the total business is shown by the fact that of approximately \$158,000,000 worth of canned and dried fruits and vegetables marketed in 1914, they sold only \$3,500,000 worth.

Nevertheless, a few successful cooperative fruit and vegetable cannerics stand above the large number of failures as evidence that this business, if properly founded and conducted, can be made a success, and that it has a legitimate place in an efficient scheme of marketing perishable products. Practically all of the cooperative canneries in the United States are found in the Pacific Northwest and California, the annual business of these organizations ranging from as low as \$50,000 to as high as \$1,500,000 for a single cannery.¹

¹ In cooperation with the Oregon Agricultural College, the Office of Markets and Rural. Organization made a survey of the canning industry of the Pacific Northwest. In addition, the office investigated cooperative canning plants in California and other sections of the United States. From these studies the business essentials for success and the reasons for failure in the cooperative canning industry in the United States were ascertained.

NOT A BY-PRODUCTS BUSINESS.

It should be borne in mind that the canning business is by no means a by-product enterprise and that an institution built up primarily for the handling of culls and lower-grade fruit and vegetable products is not likely to be successful. Experience demonstrates that higher grades bring the better prices and are more profitable, and that large quantities of the first grades are essential in moving lower grades. Many canneries have failed because they were organized wholly to utilize that portion of the fruit crop that could not be sold on the market in its fresh state on account of its deteriorated condition or low grade. The use of such fruit results in an inferior quality of canned goods which is not readily salable and may be liable to seizure under the Federal and various State pure-food laws.

IMPORTANCE OF A SUITABLE LOCATION.

The places at which canneries can succeed are relatively Therefore, one of the first steps in considering the few. advisability of organizing a canning business should be a complete survey of the field to ascertain whether the conditions warrant the inauguration of the enterprise. A sufficient quantity of a suitable number of products is essential. for to be successful financially a cannery should be operated as continuously throughout the year as possible, thus avoiding loss in having idle machinery and in "steaming up" for a small pack. There are exceptions, however, as in the case of specialty canneries, where a single product, like beans, peas, corn, tomatoes, or certain other fruits and vegetables. is handled extensively. In such cases a large volume of business is done and the canneries are kept running at full capacity during the season in which the product is harvested. In the case of some fruit canneries, from one to two weeks may elapse between products, during which time high-salaried help and machinery are idle.

The most successful cooperative canneries now in operation put up or pack a wide variety of products over a long period, some starting with strawberries in May and continuing until December with late vegetables. By utilizing the various products as they mature, the operating period may be extended to about six and one-half months. While

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some products handled will barely pay the expense of canning and a fair return to the producer, it is economical to use them to keep the plant in operation throughout the season.

The cannery should be located as near as possible to the production center of the commodities which are to be used. This is essential, as in most cases the product must be delivered to the cannery with little delay after it is harvested. Canned goods, especially small fruits and vegetables, should be of superior quality, since inferior grades usually are a drug on the market. In addition to growing fruits and vegetables of superior quality, the quantity must be sufficient to allow such a volume of business that the overhead expenses will represent *u* small unit cost per case. Some canneries are successful when only 300,000 pounds of raw material are handled annually, but a cannery which puts up a variety of fruit and vegetable products usually can not receive a price that will allow a fair return to the grower if the output is less than this.

Since labor is an important item and in some instances is difficult to secure, it should have serious consideration at the outset. Canneries generally should be located near some center of population where it is possible to secure at a reasonable price the necessary pickers and cannery help to supplement those drawn from the community itself.

In many farmers' cooperative canneries the skilled help used in the manufacturing departments is made up of the sons and daughters of the farmer owners. Such a practice assists in the accumulation of "spending money" for the members of the farmer's family and gives to the cannery reliable and skilled help year after year. In some of the cannery sections berry-picking time is looked upon as vacation time, and many families in the Pacific Northwest and California look forward to it with delight. Families from the near-by cities, especially the women and children, move into the berry fields and spend from two to six weeks working as pickers. They derive a fair compensation and have an excellent outing. One cannery employs as many as 15,000 pickers in a season, and in these berry fields excellent accommodations and camping facilities are provided. The various forms of amusements, such as "merry-gorounds" and "cane racks," which are located near the center of the fields, turn the evenings into a continual festival.

The sanitary conditions surrounding the cannery should be the best; the plant should be located so that there are good drainage and circulation of air, and no contaminating surroundings, such as slaughterhouses, garbage plants, and dumps. A plentiful supply of good water is necessary, and in order to be sure of the quality a chemical analysis should be made.

The roads should be good enough to provide transportation for products from the fields to the cannery with as little difficulty and jarring as possible. Spring wagons should be used for carrying highly perishable products, and the hauling should be done in the early morning or late evening in order to avoid the heat of the day.

Proximity to markets is frequently an important factor in deciding the location of a cannery, as freight charges play a large part in determining the final net price received by the cannery for its products. Wherever possible, a location should be chosen which affords ready access to local shipping facilities, bearing in mind always, however, the question of rates to marketing centers.

FINANCING CANNERY OPERATIONS.

Managers of several cooperative canneries give as their greatest handicap the lack of sufficient capital. Since the canning business is a manufacturing enterprise, it requires a much larger capital than the average cooperative undertaking. A few organizations have started with as little as \$5,000 or \$6,000 paid-in capital, when only few products were handled and business was being done on a small scale. To be successful, the association should have sufficient paid-in capital to make the plant and equipment practically free of debt at the time the first canning season opens.

Considerable money is necessary to meet operating expenses before the final returns from canned goods are received, which is often as long as 18 months, or more in some cases, after the raw material has been delivered. This delay necessitates a liberal fund for making advances to the grower at the time of the delivery of the raw material. Such advances range from 35 to 65 per cent of the estimated

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value of the produce. If the plant is free from debt, usually sufficient money can be secured from banks to finance the early season's operations, while during the latter part of the season additional money can be secured on warehouse receipts on the canned goods. Some of the larger canneries have as much as \$200,000 worth of canned goods in their warehouses at one time, necessitating a proportionately large surplus fund and good credit to finance the business during the canning season. As an instance of good credit, a western farmers' cannery recently purchased a trainload of sugar for the year's operation, securing from one bank a loan of \$85,000 to finance the deal. Such operations show clearly that farmers' organizations can secure credit and can be run on a strictly business basis if properly managed and supported.

Too often a member of a cooperative association feels that the organization is a thing apart from himself. Where possible, it is desirable that he be connected with the institution financially, either by membership fee or through the purchase of stock. The issuance of memberships under \$25 should be discouraged. The member who has sufficient produce to make him interested in the cannery should be willing to invest at least \$100 in a membership or take stock in the organization to this amount. If financially interested in the business, he can ill afford to allow the undertaking to fail.

PURCHASING THE PLANT AND EQUIPMENT.

In several instances farmers' organizations have purchased at a bargain the canning plant and equipment of private enterprises which have failed, and they have made a success of the business. On the other hand, a number of plants not suitable for farmers' canneries have been sold to cooperative companies, and time, money, and energy have been wasted in their operation. On this account the advice of some one well qualified to pass on the worth and suitability of the buildings and equipments should be secured when the purchase of an equipped plant is being considered.

When constructing a new plant provision should be made for adding to it from time to time. By using the unit plan of construction, additions can be made without necessitating an entire overhauling of the old unit, or the impairing of the

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operating efficiency. The cannery business has reached a stage which makes possible definite standards for plant efficiency.

Before constructing a cannery, plans should be secured from experienced engineers or cannery men. The floor plans and the machinery required will vary according to products handled. The mistake often is made of building a large plant and equipping it with unnecessary machinery. The best machines on the market should be purchased, but only as they are needed. Improvement is being made yearly in canning processes and machinery, and therefore advice from expert cannery men and processors should be secured before equipping the plant. The statements made by those desiring to sell machines or by others personally interested in promoting the enterprise should not be relied upon exclusively.

THE MANAGER.

Of all cooperative agricultural enterprises few require conservative, sound, keen business judgment to a greater extent than a cooperative cannery. Without a manager of the right kind, failure is almost inevitable. In many of the successful canneries the manager will be found to be some leader who is willing to make certain sacrifices, and to contribute his energy and ability to the organization at a comparatively small salary. The success of cooperative organizations often is due to the efforts of one individual, or a few individuals, who, being public spirited and having the interests of the community sufficiently at heart, contribute their efforts and make sacrifices, if necessary, for the purpose of advancing and improving the enterprise.

Dependence should not be placed wholly on local talent, however, in securing a manager. It probably will be necessary to pay an experienced man a salary which may seem high. If the association is not willing to pay for experience, the farmers frequently must gain this experience for themselves by several years of deficits, and frequently at a proportionately higher cost than that required in obtaining expert services. The danger in the learning-by-experience plan is that in the majority of cases, before the necessary knowledge is gained, the cannery has become but an unpleasant memory.

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The manager should be familiar with manufacturing processes and organization and should have a knowledge of the methods of cost accounting as applied to a manufacturing He also should be an efficient salesman, as the husiness. sales end of the business is of great importance. Each year competition becomes keener. and ability in salesmanship becomes as necessary to success as quality of product. the size of the organization warrants. it may be advisable to have a separate sales manager, who is familiar with the problems of the trade and is able economically and efficiently to market the output of the factory. The general manager also should be capable of handling men. and be one in whom the farmers will have confidence. As in any other cooperative enterprise, if there is not complete unity and confidence in the management a farmers' cannerv lacks the necessarv stability and cohesion for success.

In the small cannery, the general manager should be the processor also, while in the larger canneries the general manager should have a processor as his assistant. The mistake often is made of depending at first on local, inexperienced talent for processing. The processor should have had practical experience in the particular line of canning business in which he is to be engaged. Superficially considered, a good salary for a processor may seem an excessive expenditure, but the spoiling of the pack of one or two days because it is improperly put up would probably cover the cost of the best processor obtainable. Processing is an exacting business and not every one knows how properly to prepare the raw material for the can, or how to handle it after it is in the can, so that it will reach the consumer's table in proper condition.

SUPPORT REQUIRED OF THE GROWERS.

The nature of the farmer's business makes him an individualist, and the same difficulties are encountered in the operation of the cooperative cannery as in other lines of cooperative enterprise. The cooperative cannery must be conducted along sound business lines; sentiment and "gentlemen's agreements" have bankrupted many farmers' organizations. An equitable yet binding contract should be made between the grower and his organization. A regular supply of the right varieties and kinds of produce is necessary in order that a sufficient volume of business be had to operate the cannery. Therefore, the contract, if possible, should run for a period of years, and should specify the products and the varieties to be grown. In some of the successful canneries a few big growers have formed the nucleus of the enterprise, furnishing sufficient capital and produce to insure the necessary volume of business each year, regardless of the support given by the community generally.

Wherever the business is large enough to justify the expense, a field man should be secured to work among the farmer members, helping them to solve their difficulties, hearing their grievances, and explaining the principles and advantages of the association. Such work should include instruction as to varieties to be planted, care of the growing crops, and harvesting methods. Personal contact between the management and the grower members will help to keep the members loyal, since they will be in close touch with the business and, therefore, will take a keener interest in its affairs.

NEED OF A LIBERAL BUDGET.

Estimates for each year's expenditures should be made up in budget form as accurately and in as much detail as possible. The estimate of the amount of produce to be received and the possible returns from these goods in the canned state should be very conservative. Many failures have resulted because expenditures were made on an estimate which was far in excess of the actual business transacted.

For the first year's operation, the costs of putting up the different packs, the overhead expenses, etc., should be secured from similar canneries operating under like circumstances and should be used as a basis in making estimates. The season's run never can be foretold definitely, and it is not easy to retrench after the season has been well begun. The actual overhead expenses should be cut to the lowest possible point consistent with successful conduct. The overhead and direct expenses should be estimated in the budget and apportioned on a unit basis. During the operating season the budget should be checked up frequently and such changes made as are shown to be necessary.

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Early in the season price quotations must be prepared, based on the unit-cost estimate. The latter, therefore, should be as accurate as possible. A large part of the output of most of the canneries is contracted for early in the season and sometimes long before any of the produce is delivered to the cannery. The basis of these contracts varies with different commodities and sections of the country. Peas, for example, may be paid for on the vine, by the pound or by the ton, either shelled or in the pod. Quotations at the cannery for different varieties of produce, therefore, are not comparable one section with another unless similar bases of payment are used. This explains in large measure the seemingly wide diversity in prices paid for like products in different localities.

METHODS OF KEEPING ACCOUNTS.

The cannery must maintain a modern system of cost records, so that all items of expense shall be charged properly to each case of finished goods. A separate account should be kept for each commodity packed in the different-sized cans, showing the various grades, and in the case of sirup goods the various degrees.

Accurate, itemized, direct-labor costs for work done on a piece basis should be kept. Most of the farmers' canneries pay for the preparing, stemming, and washing of raw material at so much per crate or box, and the filling of cans at so much per dozen. Much help is used which must be paid by the hour, such as machine operators, engineers, truckers, etc. Time records should be kept of this work and the cost of each activity properly apportioned to the day's pack.

The superintendent should make out daily reports showing the number of cans packed, quantities of fruits or vegetables used in the pack, material used, direct labor chargeable to the pack, and other operations. In the office a cost ledger and stock record can be used to assemble the different items and the cost of the finished goods, together with the number of cases carried to a finished-goods account for each commodity.

In addition to such a tabulated statement of the cost and quantity of each grade of commodity packed in the different-

sized cans, a complete record of sales and sales costs should be kept up to date. There is thus available at all times a perpetual inventory of "spot stock" (canned goods) on hand, the cost of making and selling each kind of finished product, and the prices realized for each grade or class. Such information is imperative to the proper operation of a cannery.¹

SIDE LINES.

Some canneries which handle large quantities of berries conduct a fresh-fruit shipping department in connection with their other business. When the fresh-goods market is profitable all berries of shipping quality are sold fresh. The sound fruit is sent to distant markets, ripe fruit to near-by markets, and fruit ready for immediate use goes into the cannery. At times when markets are not favorable all the fruit is canned and held until it can be sold at fair prices. Where the berries in the locality are of a superior quality, such an arrangement forms an ideal combination. One cooperative cannery association has shipped as many as 21 refrigerator cars of fresh red raspberries in one express train, at the same time operating two large canneries.

Several of the cooperative canneries in the Pacific Northwest also operate evaporators in which prunes, loganberries, apples, and a few raspberries are evaporated. Other canneries have vinegar plants, some of which have failed because of lack of knowledge or because of carelessness on the part of the managers. The use of green, dirty, or rotten stock, instead of carefully selected, high-quality, sound fruit is not uncommon, and in such cases good vinegar can not be manufactured. Many cider-vinegar plants have failed because of their inability to compete in the markets with graindistilled vinegar. However, there is generally a good market in the surrounding territory for small quantities of a good grade of cider vinegar. Such enterprises as these, however, have started on a small scale and have been developed gradually, each advance being based on past experience.

¹ The Office of Markets and Rural Organization of the U.S. Department of Agriculture has a uniform system of accounts for fruit and vegetable canneries which is available on request from canneries or persons contemplating the organization of a cannery.

MEETING MARKET DEMANDS.

It is necessary for the manager to keep in close touch with market demands, marketing conditions, trade preferences, and improvements in the canning business in order that he may be able to market the products of the cannery to the best possible advantage. There are various preferences in the different canned-goods markets, which should be studied carefully before the markets are entered. The trade demands that certain products be put up in certain degrees of sirup, cans of various sizes, etc., and the successful cannery must conform to these demands.

The cost of produce, cans, packing, and freight is as great on a water-packed product as on the best sirup grade, the only additional cost of the latter being that of the sugar which enters into the process. Since goods of the higher grades usually bring far better average returns to the producer than those of the lower grades, farmers' canneries always should strive to increase their production of the best grades.

A few of the canneries successfully put up jellies, preserves, and high-grade products in glass. Others prepare berries for soda-fountain use by what is known as the coldprocess method, and make sirups and other necessary fruit supplies for the fountain trade. Such business, if properly handled by an expert processor who can prepare the products in the best form possible, is a paying feature. In many cases fruit juices are placed in cans during the canning season and made up into jellies and jams, soda-fountain sirups, and similar products during the winter. This practice provides almost continuous employment for some of the skilled labor.

During the packing rigid inspection should be maintained in order that a product of uniform grade may be put up, and samples should be taken of each day's pack. Each shipment should be sampled before being sent out, and the sample tested in order to avoid any loss from inferior or spoiled goods which could not be detected from the outside, but which could be ascertained by opening the container. At all times the ultimate consumer should be kept in mind, as no cannery business can endure which does not please the final purchaser of its products. The cannery must be in a position to furnish the trade regularly with the same products year after year. It is not possible to keep proper connections and retain the business which it has taken some time to build up if but a short supply is available one year and a comparatively large pack is put up the next. The best business that a cannery can cater to is that which will purchase certain quantities and kinds of different products year after year.

A large portion of the pack must be sold for future delivery, and, as jobbers insist that the goods be forthcoming, it is evident that great care must be exercised in estimating the pack in order to prevent an oversale. It is not unlikely that a number of cars will be sold as early as April for September or October delivery. Sales of mixed cars may be made, which it will take from June to November to get together if the order contains early products, such as strawberries, and fall products, such as squash or pears. Such sales necessitate large warehouse facilities.

FINDING A MARKET.

It is usual to market the products of the cannery through the regular organized and recognized trade channels for canned goods. The home trade or near-by trade should be canvassed thoroughly, as this business is much more profitable and satisfactory than that handled in more distant markets. Several canneries have attempted a special feature in marketing by putting up a miscellaneous assortment of canned goods to be sold directly to the consumer, but this has not met with any degree of success. In one State a large number of the cooperative canneries have formed an association and appointed a joint agent, who is a canned-goods broker, to handle their output. There is great need for greater cooperation among farmers' canneries in the standardization of packs, as well as in the formation of a uniform sales policy or central sales agency as far as the law permits.

The buyer or broker should be furnished with plenty of samples of everything packed and kept well acquainted with the varieties, grades, and quality of all products. Samples which are used for this purpose should be put up in the best possible form and should represent accurately the quality of the goods manufactured, both for the purpose of making sales and for the protection of the cannery in matters of rejections and adjustments.

Printed price catalogues should be prepared by the manager of the cannery and furnished to all jobbers, brokers, and others who are in the market for canned goods. All of the various factors entering into the determination of quotations should be considered very carefully—the actual cost of production, prevailing wholesale prices, condition of the market, probable output in other localities, and such other local factors as may be of influence. As conditions change throughout the season, quotations should be revised accord-The retail prices at which the goods probably will ingly. be sold also should be kept in mind in making quotations and fixing upon the grades which will be pushed. Specialization on the higher grades and higher-priced products will probably result in a greater return and larger profit to the cannery. since it is the general experience that high grades bring the best net returns to the producer.

By taking advantage of the experiences of others through many failures and by following closely the methods of successful organizations, farmers should succeed in the business of cooperative canning and find a ready market for their products.



THE EFFECT OF HOME DEMONSTRATION WORK ON THE COMMUNITY AND THE COUNTY IN THE SOUTH.

By BRADFORD KNAPP, Chief, and Miss MARY E. CRESWELL, Assistant in Charge of Home Demonstration Work, Office of Extension Work in the South, States Relations Service.

THE home demonstration work for women and girls, which is the complement of the farm demonstration work conducted by the men county agents, is now being carried on extensively throughout the South. This work began in 1910 with the girls' canning clubs, and led by gradual and logical steps into the present very broad and comprehensive work with both individuals and groups. In the fall of 1916 home demonstration work was in progress in 420 counties in the Southern States. The principal feature of the work is the lessons being taught by actual demonstrations in and around the home by the women and girls under the instruction of the women county agents.

One of the objects of the work is to develop a skill that shall result in economic independence of girls and women in the country. Their home has many functions not performed by the city home. It is a producing as well as a consuming center. Its contribution to the income of the farmer, especially in saving the waste and expense of conducting farming operations, often measures the difference between profitable farming and unprofitable farming. The skill and business ability of farm housewives and children are a notable contribution to the economic resources of the farm. In many cases incomes must be increased before standards of living can be raised or progressive community enterprises fostered. Proceeding upon this basis, the work in the South has added materially to the wealth, health, and happiness of country people.

HARRISON COUNTY, MISS.

Nine miles east of Wiggins, in Harrison County, Miss., the woman county agent has organized a home demonstration club. This club of country women, with the counsel and advice of the agent, decided to conduct their work by departments, such as canning, poultry, health, food, and home conveniences. Each department has a chairwoman, and the members are enrolled in the department in which they wish to work. Meetings are held semimonthly, each meeting being conducted by one department. Programs are so outlined that the topics will be beneficial and seasonable. For example, canning and preserving was taken up in summer: poultry raising was discussed actively during the fall and winter; while preparation of foods was studied in utilizing canning and poultry products. Home conveniences were so popular that they were made at all times of the year. The poultry department has its manager, who grades, tests, and ships the eggs brought in by club members each week and handles the business of selling and remitting to the members for the products sold. All of the work is carried out through practical demonstration in the homes. The success of the work under this plan of organization has proved so satisfactory that it has been extended to other communities and clubs in Harrison County.

These community clubs comprised both women and girls and have taken as one of their principal lines of work the equipment of home-science rooms in country schools. They have gone before the board of trustees and secured the building of additional rooms for the schoolhouses, while the equipment has been furnished by contributions from the skilled workmen of the community, both men and women, and by merchants of the towns. Thus these schools have been made real centers of community interest.

SAMPSON COUNTY, N. C.

A community in Sampson County, N. C., furnishes an excellent object lesson on the manner in which this work begins and progresses. In 1914 nine girls organized a canning club and were instructed by the home demonstration agent. A little later a women's club was organized among the mothers of the canning-club members to cooperate with them in canning for home and market. The success of this undertaking aroused a great deal of interest, and soon there was talk of a community organization. A picnic was held in the

late summer, and a community club of both men and women was organized with a definite program along six lines, namely, social activity, education, agriculture, morality, sanitation, and home life. In these enterprises the community had the assistance of many public forces in the State interested in community development, such as the State extension service, through which the State department of agriculture. State agricultural college, and the United States Department of Agriculture were cooperating in the employment of county men and women agents, the State board of health. State department of education, farmers' unions, and other forces. The community organization made it easy to secure the services of these agencies. The State board of health made a complete survey of the sanitary conditions of the community. Diseases were eradicated in a number of cases, and sanitary conveniences were installed in every one of the 115 homes. During the school term following this service not a single case of contagious or preventable disease occurred. A special campaign was conducted against flies by screening homes and destroying breeding places.

In December this same community held a fair in Sampson County, the exhibits including farm and garden products, live stock, poultry, household products, and school work. During a "community service week" a sand and clay road was built from the village to the schoolhouse, which is the center of the community. Work in other sections of Sampson County has been taken up along the same lines, with the assistance of both the county agent and the home demonstration agent.

BRYAN COUNTY, OKLA.

In Bryan County, Okla., 65 women, under the guidance of the home demonstration agent, have entered the work in home dairying and poultry raising. They have purchased thermometers, square butter molds, and barrel churns, have made iceless refrigerators or cooling devices to keep butter and cream at the proper temperature, and in some instances have purchased separators. In every case the quality of the butter sold has been so improved under the instruction that a higher price has been obtained. Those who have been rais-

ing poultry have cooperated in the rearing of pure-bred fowls and in selling infertile eggs on the market. They have realized prices in advance of the ordinary market prices.

WALTON COUNTY, FLA.

Through the marketing of some samples of preserved figs from Florida, the State agent received a request to place an order for 5,000 jars of preserved figs uniformly packed and of high quality. The order was turned over to the canningclub girls of Walton County. The home demonstration agent of that county assisted in selecting the girls who had shown sufficient skill to undertake the work. Two girls in one community who had been at work for 3 years agreed to supply a thousand jars each. Another girl, assisted by her mother, undertook to produce another thousand, and two women of the neighborhood who had been working under the instruction of the home demonstration agent agreed to can the remaining 2,000 jars. Jars were purchased cooperatively, saving in cost and freight. To start the work the agent demonstrated the proper making and packing of these preserves at each of the homes selected. Each contributing member purchased a saccharimeter in order to produce sirup of uniform density, and painstaking care was exercised in gathering figs that were in good condition and in selecting those of uniform size. The result was a cooperative venture involving skill and organization in the community, and giving good returns to those engaged.

ETOWAH COUNTY, ALA.

Ruth Anderson, of Etowah County, Ala., in her second year of club work, had an excellent plat of one-tenth of an acre of beans and tomatoes. She is the second girl in a family of 11, and takes a great interest in her club work. The family home was small, dark, and crowded, and somewhat unattractive. One day a carpenter friend of her father saw her one-tenth acre and said he wished he had time to plant a garden. She told him she would furnish vegetables in exchange for some of his time. Thinking she was joking, he began to figure how many beans it would take to build a house, but Ruth told him about her canner, and he saw then

that she was in earnest. After a while a bargain was made by which the carpenter agreed to begin work on the remodeling of the house if Ruth would furnish him with fresh and canned vegetables for the season. The other members of the family were soon interested in this undertaking and worked willingly to contribute their share to its success. When the house was partly finished Ruth won a canningclub prize given by a hardware merchant in Gadsden, the county seat. Silverware was offered her, but, intent upon completing the new house, she asked the merchant how much a front door of glass would cost, and learned that she could get the door, side lights, and windows for the price of the silverware. In this way Ruth brought light and joy to her family with her windows and door. To-day they live in a pretty bungalow that she helped to build with her gardening and canning work. At the age of 14, in the second year of her work. Ruth put up 700 cans of tomatoes and 750 cans of beans.

During the last 4 years the girls in the clubs in Etowah County put up 172,555 cans, the approximate value of which is \$29,400. They have secured the cooperation of the Gadsden Chamber of Commerce and all the products not needed for home use have been marketed. The county has produced more than twice this amount of canned products as a direct result of the information disseminated through these girls. At the close of the summer season of 1916 every club girl in this county planted a winter garden, insuring a continuance of her earnings and contribution to the family diet during the winter.

HAMILTON COUNTY, TENN.

Hamilton County, Tenn., is the county in which Chattanooga is located. Chattanooga is a large manufacturing and railroad center. This county had a population of 89,267 in 1910. The last census shows that there are only 1,623 farms in the county, averaging 75 acres per farm, of which 41 acres per farm is classified as improved land. Values are somewhat above the average for the State. Only 47 per cent of the land of the county is in farms; 55 per cent of the land in farms is scheduled as improved land.

This county has had a woman engaged as home demonstration agent for the last four years. A prominent business man in Chattanooga, who has watched the progress of this work very closely since its beginning, states that before it was undertaken practically nothing had been done to arouse the interest of the young people in country life or home improvement. No community leadership existed, nor were there any organizations for girls and women in the rural districts. In April, 1912, an agent was employed. At first, interest was very slight. Practically no demand for the work came from rural people.

Canning clubs were organized at the four typical rural centers of the county. Very few seemed to be interested in completing the work the first year, but a canning demonstration at the University of Chattanooga at the close of the summer school did much to stimulate the interest in club work. A number of leading educators of the county and State gave talks at this time to the club members and teachers. indorsing the work and its objects. Six of the most skillful girls were taken to the State fair and entered a canning contest. They won distinction by packing and processing 80 three-pound cans of tomatoes in less than an hour. They also won a number of prizes.

In 1913 the county home demonstration agent was employed again and she was hired for the full 12 months. She devoted the summer to giving instruction and supervising demonstrations in gardening and canning carried on by the girls in practically every community in the county. Many varieties of fruits and vegetables besides tomatoes were put up. That year for the first time the parents began to appreciate the advantages, both educational and economic, of having their girls and boys trained in club work.

It was found that many rural housekeepers in the county used preservatives in canning. In fact, every case of glass jars sold by merchants in the county at that time generally had inclosed a package of "canning powders." The girls in the canning club were taught, in the presence of their mothers, to follow implicitly the instructions regarding sterilizing and processing and not to use preservatives. This was done as much for the mothers as for the girls. The re-

PLATE LVI.



A helpful gathering in Hamilton County, Tenn.



Before improvement.



After improvement.

YELLOW CANNAS AND OTHER PLANTS USED BY CANNING CLUB GIRL TO BEAUTIFY UNSIGHTLY FENCE.

Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE LVIII.



FIG. I.-RUTH'S HOME BEFORE IMPROVEMENT.



FIG. 2.-RUTH'S HOME AFTER IMPROVEMENT.

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sult proved to the mothers that chemical preservatives were not necessary for successful canning.

The social side of the club activities attracted much attention. Many of the girls had read of clubs but never thought they would be able to join. To the girls, vacation time had always been dreaded as a time full of work with no play and no companionship. The club meetings during vacation furnished a much-needed opportunity for social intercourse. In the beginning it was noticed that the few girls attending demonstrations for instruction brought their lunches and retired singly to eat them. Now, there is always a bountiful dinner spread, temptingly prepared and arranged, of which everyone is invited to partake. These all-day "picnics" or "canning parties" are very popular during the summer.

A little later poultry-club work was taken up. In this the girls were taught the proper feeding, raising, and handling of poultry, and the proper care and marketing of eggs.

In 1916 the entire county was organized, with an enrollment of over 200 girls in canning clubs and 280 members in the poultry clubs. The gardening season was a very disastrous one. The club girls, however, were among the few who were able to produce fresh vegetables, and they sold all they produced at advanced prices, on account of the condition of the market. While canning was done for home use very little commercial canning was carried on because of the 1 rice of fresh products. The reports of the girls show that they produced 104,639 pounds of tomatoes and canned 15,800 containers of fruits and vegetables. The total value of these products is estimated at \$6,070.97.

All of these girls are regularly organized into clubs holding meetings at stated intervals throughout the year. In each of the rural schools of the county one teacher is in charge of the clubs and assists at meetings as local leader. In addition to canning they have carried on work in sewing, breadmaking, use of fireless cookers, and the like. The mothers of the girls have been active cooperators and assist in all of the meetings. In 1916 uniform caps and aprons for use in public demonstrations were made by 100 girls and uniform dresses by 15 advanced members.

In this work close cooperation has been received from many sources. During January, 1916, four short courses were

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held at the rural high schools of the county and the results of these short courses could be traced in remote districts. Another commendable instance of cooperation is that given by the summer school at the University of Chattanooga, where the Annual Canning Club Day is an established event, the last one having been attended by more than 200 girls. The program for this day includes reports from every club president in the county, singing club songs, and talks by some of the leading educators, and the girls give public demonstrations of their skill in the work. The day also has many social features.

The Chattanooga Clearing House Association, through the influence of prominent women of the city, presented an automobile for the use of the woman home demonstration agent in the county. Not only does this car solve the problem of transportation, thereby making for greater efficiency on the part of the agent, but it also enables the girls and women in various parts of the county to accompany the county agent to club meetings and other gatherings.

Through the girls' work just outlined the way was paved for the rapid development of demonstration work for women. The first approach to the work for women was made by visits to the homes for the instruction of the daughters. The first instruction to the women was mainly incidental to the girls' work, but much of this incidental work was of very great importance. The earliest demonstrations made by the women in their homes under the instructions of the home demonstration agent were in practical everyday cookery, stress being laid upon varied diet. The use of homemade fireless cookers was taught, and assistance was given in making simple sanitary improvements in the home and in selecting proper wearing apparel and household furnishings.

Ten rural women's clubs have been organized, each holding meetings every two weeks. Women who formerly seldom left their homes now attend these meetings regularly. A keener interest is manifested among them in the affairs of the home and community, and the pleasure and benefit derived from intercourse with others is evident. Six of these ten rural women's clubs are affiliated with a county organization, giving helpful intercourse between the women of the rural districts and the women of the city. The county agent meets

regularly in turn with all these clubs. A uniform constitution and by-laws is used, but very little stress is laid on parliamentary law. The programs vary according to the plans and desires of the local members, but those sent out by the extension division of the University of Tennessee. representing that institution and the Department of Agriculture, are followed as closely as possible. The meetings are held in the country school buildings and at some of the homes. The materials for demonstrations usually are provided by the women themselves, who have an opportunity to express their preference as to the foods prepared. Lessons in serving and in the use of household conveniences are always in demand. A program which is always welcome includes the study of wearing apparel. To illustrate a lesson in wearing apparel the county agent borrows from some of the leading department stores of the city articles of wearing apparel for women. girls, and young children. By this means good taste, appropriateness, and the value of durability in the selection of garments are taught.

At some of the meetings members have been called upon to give demonstrations of the things they do best. There are 100 farm women members of the 10 clubs. Under the guidance of the county agent 35 of these women have made, in their own homes, all of the demonstrations outlined, including bread making, meat cookery, vegetable cookery, and canning, and have adopted these as a part of their daily and yearly tasks. The number of labor-saving and sanitary improvements in the home which have been made and installed include 40 fireless cookers, 4 iceless refrigerators, 150 fly traps, 40 homes screened against flies and mosquitoes. 15 porches screened, 15 more convenient ironing boards, 6 wheel travs for the saving of steps from the kitchen to the dining room, 3 homemade shower baths, 4 kitchen cabinets, 10 water systems, 3 dumb waiters, and a number of stools and other devices in the kitchen to enable the women to sit while they work. In addition to these homemade devices the following were purchased: Ten fireless cookers, 4 kitchen cabinets, 40 kerosene stoves, 25 gasoline irons, 15 canning outfits, 15 incubators, 10 brooders, and a number of home lighting devices.

Annually the East Tennessee Farmers' Conference is held at Knoxville at the College of Agriculture, which is very largely attended. In recent years it has had a woman's section. During the first year of the work for women in Hamilton County it was difficult to persuade any of the women and girls to attend this meeting. The last convention had a 50 per cent increase in the attendance of women, many of whom represented their clubs as delegates. while others provided their own expenses.

Perhaps one of the most commendable achievements is the operation of the market booth in the market house at Chattanooga. The influence of the county home demonstration agent materially aided in the establishment of the central market house by the city commissioners. On account of this fact and through the influence of many prominent women, the city commissioners gave a stall for the canning-club girls and their mothers. Recently a larger booth was provided, a canning outfit installed, and a gas stove fitted up for use in filling orders for baked fowl, jellies, fruit butters, etc. The club women of Chattanooga have given excellent cooperation in this venture. At present this exchange is running very smoothly, with a club girl in charge. Her percentage collected on sales in one week recently amounted to \$18.40. The women are charged 15 per cent and the girls 10 per cent for the handling of their products. This percentage goes to those who spend their time in operating the booth. The sign above the stall is very attractive, and the girl in charge wears a simple white waist and the uniform cap and apron with the symbol of the club embroidered on it. Two girls are occupied in the work on Satur-Homemade articles of food are sold exclusivelv. days. These include bread, beaten biscuit, candy, cakes, and 4-H brand canned products. Before the establishment of this booth the disposal of canned goods was a problem. Now. no matter what the crop may be, the canned goods are sold locally at advanced prices. Many girls with unusual skill have customers who come in and purchase only articles made by these girls. During the holiday season holly wreaths and hand-crocheted articles are sold. Orders are also taken for handmade rugs, woven, braided, or crocheted.

The Girls' Canning Club Exchange has remarkable cooperation from other stall keepers in the market house, and the market master himself acts as sponsor for the club stall and renders every assistance in his power. The home demonstration agent visits the booth from time to time and gives suggestions and help in the successful management of the venture.

The effect of this work upon the women and girls of Hamilton County and upon the rural life itself is greater than this brief outline can indicate. The home demonstration work has become a permanent part of the educational activities of the county and has the cooperation of the city school system, county superintendent, rural-school teachers, federation of women's clubs, county and city public officials, and the men, women, and children who make up the farming population of the county.

ANSON COUNTY, N. C.

Anson County lies along the Yadkin River, on the southern boundary of North Carolina, in the Piedmont section, east and south of Charlotte. The last census showed that there were 3,332 farms, of which one-half were operated by white farmers. The average size of farms is 87 acres, of which 34.9 acres is improved land. Eighty-one per cent of the area of the county is in farms. The county may be considered one of the better counties of North Carolina. The percentage of farms operated by tenants is 63.6 per cent.

In 1913 a woman agent was employed for the first time, and a small canning club of 26 rural girls was organized. Fifteen of these girls are still at work as leaders in their communities. At four rural centers the girls gave "parties" to raise the money for the purchase of their canning-club outfits. The canning outfits purchased were used cooperatively either at the homes or at the schools. An excellent spirit of cooperation was manifested in the early stages of the work by such examples as follow: At one place one of the girls had no way of bringing her tomatoes to the place chosen for the canning demonstration. The other girls took turns in going after them, and one of the neighboring farmers did all of her plowing free of cost. On a number of

occasions when club members were ill and unable to attend meetings the other members did the work for the disabled ones and canned their vegetables for them.

During the early history of the work it was difficult to get sufficient cans to supply the girls. The county superintendent of schoools worked actively with the home demonstration agent, and the second year the club members purchased all their cans cooperatively, resulting in an order for a carload containing 35,000 cans. In 1916 the business men entered into this cooperation and 70,000 cans were ordered for use in the county.

In 1916 in the girls' work there was an enrollment of 154 girls in the various clubs. Accurate reports were obtained from 130 of these, showing the production of 40,036 pounds of tomatoes, 31,794 pounds of beans, and 800 pounds of peppers. These girls put up 42,069 containers of products from their gardens and nearly 6,000 additional containers from the products of the farm and orchard, usually allowed to go to waste. They learned sewing and dressmaking by making their caps and aprons, and a few of them made uniform dresses.

The work has assisted in bringing about a spirit of mutual helpfulness that has had a good influence on the homes and the communities. It has broken down barriers existing between families because of differences in education, social standing, and wealth. It has caused the girls and mothers who have had better chances to reach out and help their less fortunate neighbors.

In the fall of 1915 a meeting was held on the front porch of one of the homes in Rocky River community. The home demonstration agent called the meeting by writing to her canning-club members, requesting them to ask their mothers and neighbors to come to the meeting and bring a few jars of products canned during the summer. There were 38 women present. The products brought furnished an introductory topic. The home demonstration agent. talked to them about canning and preserving, and led from that to a talk about what might be done for the general improvement of their school building and grounds, and also regarding the development of pride of the people of their community.

Those present were urged to hold a general meeting for this purpose. They said that such a meeting had never been held in their school, and they were afraid that it would not amount to anything. However, two weeks later they held a meeting which resulted in the raising of \$56. From this small beginning grew the movement which added a new room to the building, painted it inside and out, got additional funds for a library, and seeded the lawn in grass. Now they have an excellent two-teacher school. In the summer of 1916 they planted an acre in cotton and a border of flowers around the school building. They have a community club, holding regular meetings, and an excellent community fair.

Anson County now has 11 community clubs, in some of which both men and women are members. They have given special thought to the improvement of school buildings and grounds, better roads, campaigns against flies and other insects, study of foods, and social life for old and young. Such an organized community can better command the services of the county agent, the home demonstration agent, and the specialists of the extension division, as well as the officers of the State department of education and the Public Health Service.

In many of these clubs dairy work has been taken up, especially by getting the assistance of the dairy specialists from the extension division at Raleigh, who give illustrated lectures and special lessons in butter making, equipment used, etc. These lessons are given in the homes, resulting in great improvement in the home butter making. One woman reports that two years ago she used to send her butter to town in a tin bucket and received 15 cents per pound for it; now she sells all she can make for 30 cents per pound, put up in 1-pound prints.

Canning for market and home use appeals very strongly to these country women, and the proceeds of their sales have assisted them in the improvement of their homes. Poultry raising is also very popular, and there are 150 poultry-club members in the county. A recent report from four women shows that the income from poultry, eggs, and butter amounted in one year to \$119, \$160, \$183, and \$227, respectively.

The frequent holding of meetings and demonstrations in the homes has had a beneficial influence upon the home life itself. Better utensils for cooking have been purchased, and there has been a marked improvement in labor-saving devices and in the general quality of work done.

This county has one cooperative butter-selling association. During the winter turkeys and chickens are sold cooperatively at 2 cents per pound above the market price. Eggs are sold on the local market, because the price is excellent.

Such standards of quality and uniformity have been established in the home canning as to insure the sale of all the products put up by the women and girls.

This again is but a brief outline of some of the things accomplished in a single county. The people of Anson County are living under better conditions and the farm women realize the need and importance of more conveniences, especially labor-saving devices for the home. The skill and experience acquired by the women and girls have qualified them to earn more money on the farm and to contribute materially to the farm income. The relation of food to better health and more efficient work is more clearly understood. The sentiment for better education of the children has been greatly stimulated and better social conditions exist. The women feel that each contributes to the success and pleasure of the monthly meetings, annual picnics, and community fairs. The farm women of Anson County are developing into a community of interest and a high type of rural life.

DARLINGTON COUNTY, S. C.

Darlington County is located in the northeastern part of South Carolina. In 1910 it had a population of 36,027, and there were 4,207 farms in the county, according to the last census, 27.5 per cent of which are managed by the owners and 72 per cent by tenants. Among the white farmers about half are owners and half tenants. The large majority of the negro farmers are tenants. This is distinctly one of the better counties of the State, having a large production of very excellent cotton.

A home demonstration agent has been employed in the county for four years. As is usual in the counties of the

South, the work began with the girls in gardening and canning, gradually extending and broadening its influence and service to the mothers. Excellent results were obtained among the girls in gardening, canning, poultry work, and bread making. While the women were much interested, active demonstrations with them were not begun until the spring of 1915.

At present, however, 19 rural women's clubs hold regular meetings and have a total enrollment of 457 members, which is practically equal to one-half of the white owner farmers of the county. These women have carried out, under the instruction of the home demonstration agent, in their homes. during the past year, 190 demonstrations in bread making, 140 special demonstrations in meat cooking, 225 demonstrations in jelly making, 175 demonstrations in the cooking of vegetables, and 250 demonstrations in canning: 87 fireless cookers, 145 iceless refrigerators, and 160 flytraps have been made or installed: 70 houses have been screened against flies and mosquitoes, 11 wheel trays built, 12 convenient ironing boards constructed, and 3 waterworks systems installed. In addition to these things, the following have been purchased: Six barrel churns, 8 washing machines, 13 bread mixers, and 3 wheel travs.

Through the girls' work the interest in gardening in the county has increased rapidly. Winter gardens now contain cabbages, turnips, lettuce, onions, beets, carrots, kale, spinach, and collards. Formerly not only were winter gardens rarely to be found, but as a rule they contained only collards. During the winter of 1916–17, 101 winter-garden demonstrations were conducted by the girls and women under the advice of the home demonstration agent. Many hotbeds have been built at schoolhouses under the supervision of the agent. The plants from these are sold and the proceeds used in improving the schools, as by painting the schoolhouses, buying sanitary drinking fountains, building septic tanks, etc. A number of the women and girls are raising winter vegetables for sale in the near-by towns.

The raising of pure-bred poultry for market, better methods of cooking and serving food, home conveniences, school lunches, proper diet for the family, care of milk, making

butter and cottage cheese, etc., have been lines that have attracted much attention and have increased the quantity and quality of these products used in the homes. The women also have been interested in the curing of hams and bacon for home use, and good methods have been introduced. In improvement of home grounds and the planting of flowers, trees, shrubs, and vines considerable work has been done.

Here again the social side of country life has been deeply touched, manifesting itself in many social gatherings and community fairs. In fact, Darlington County now enjoys one of the largest organizations for the work in any county in the South. Demonstration work has developed so rapidly and demands have been so insistent that, through the activities of the county people themselves, funds have been supplied for the employment of an assistant to the county home demonstration agent, both women being employed for 12 months in the year.

COMMENT.

It is difficult to present the results of a work which comes into such intimate contact with the home life. An attempt has been made to describe what is being done rather than to lay down any principles or policies to be pursued in the work. The activities described are typical of the home demonstration work now being conducted in the 15 Southern States, and is fairly comparable with that more recently started in the 33 Northern and Western States.

The State colleges of agriculture and the United States Department of Agriculture are cooperating in the work both in the North and in the South. Of the budget for home economics extension work for all of the 48 States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1917, amounting to \$778,177, \$574,584 are being expended by the Southern States through the extension divisions of the colleges. In each of these States there are many commendable results of individual, community, and county effort, from which these few examples have been selected for presentation.

COOPERATIVE WORK FOR ERADICATING CITRUS CANKER.

By KARL F. KELLERMAN, Associate Chief, Bureau of Plant Industry.

INTRODUCTION OF THE DISEASE.

F OR a little more than two years the Federal Government and the Gulf States have been engaged in a joint campaign for the purpose of eradicating from the United States the disease of citrus fruit and trees called citrus canker. This undertaking is unique in character in that it is the first instance of the use of Federal funds appropriated specifically for the eradication of a plant disease. It is of overwhelming importance to the citrus industry, because citrus canker has been recognized as the most contagious of all known plant diseases and the most destructive of commercial values.

The origin of the disease is obscure. It appears probable that it is native in Chosen (Korea) or in south China and that from China it has been carried to Japan during rather recent years, but there appears to be no doubt that it has been introduced into this country direct from Japan. The first observation regarding a plant disease which presumably was citrus canker is with reference to nursery stock introduced into Texas in 1911. It is not improbable that earlier shipments of nursery stock were infected, and it is certain that many later shipments of *Citrus trifoliata* orange seedlings from Japan, both into Texas and into other Gulf States, were infected.

DISEASE CHARACTERISTICS AND EARLY CONTROL EFFORTS.

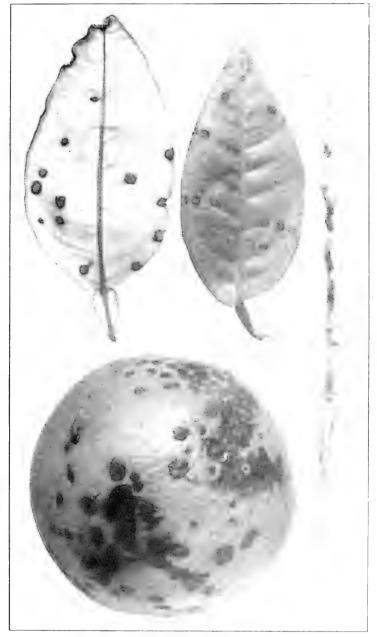
Citrus canker is primarily a leaf-spot and fruit-spot, although it also affects twigs and even old bark and wood. In its early stages, however, it resembles the sour-scab of citrus trees, a troublesome but not an especially serious disease that is widely prevalent in the South. Until late in the year 1913 plant pathologists and nurserymen did not clearly distinguish between these two diseases, and, therefore, prior to its recognition and the determination of its serious character, the shipment of infected nursery stock was probably taking place throughout the southern areas where citrus culture was being extended.

During the seasons of 1913 and 1914 special efforts were made by State nursery inspectors, by nurserymen, and by citrus growers to check the spread of the disease by complete defoliation of infected stock followed by immediate and thorough spraving with strong Bordeaux mixture and by painting visible infections with Bordeaux paste. These treatments were ineffectual, however, and citrus growers in southeastern Florida became so concerned over the rapid and destructive spread of citrus canker and the failure of the methods usually employed for controlling plant diseases that they originated the plan of spraving infected trees with burning oil, thus completely destroying them. Eradication work of this character was undertaken immediately and financed almost entirely by private subscriptions, but the disease appeared to be gaining upon the forces attempting to control it. Recognizing that a severe epidemic menaced the citrus industry and that neither the citrus industry nor the States concerned were prepared to deal promptly and adequately with this emergency, on December 4, 1915, the Secretary of Agriculture suggested for consideration by the Congress the desirability of the immediate appropriation of sufficient funds to cooperate during the winter and spring with State officials, organizations of growers, and individuals to continue the eradication campaign under way in Florida and to organize similar inspection and eradication campaigns in the other States believed to harbor citrus canker.¹ As a further protection, under date of December 10, 1914, the Secretary of Agriculture promulgated a quarantine, effective January 1, 1915, that prevents the introduction into the United States from all foreign countries of citrus nursery stock, including buds, scions, and seeds.

An immediate and rapid inspection of the Gulf region by an agent of the Federal Horticultural Board of the Department of Agriculture, supplemented by reports from State officials, indicated the occurrence of infected citrus trees in more or less widely separated and sharply defined localities from southeastern Florida to southern Texas.

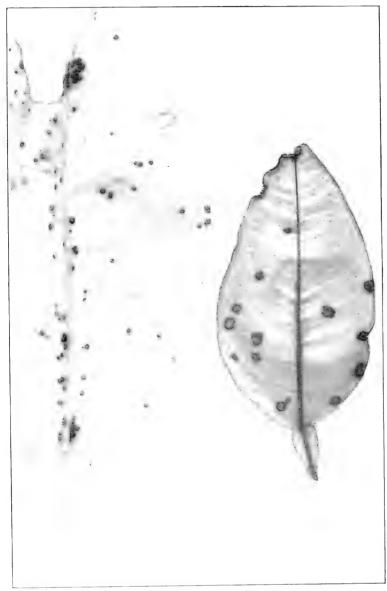
The cooperative work of inspecting citrus groves and nurseries and destroying infected trees was begun in Florida immediately upon the approval of the urgent deficiency act

⁴ The urgent deficiency act approved Jan. 25, 1915, provided \$35,000 for this purpose.

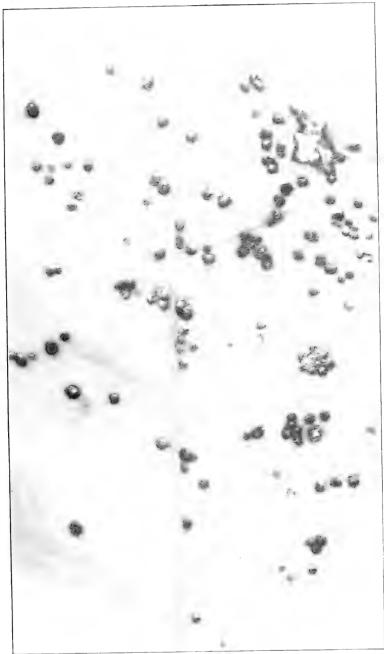


CITRUS-CANKER INFECTIONS ON THE LEAVES, YOUNG WOOD, AND FRUIT OF GRAPEFRUIT.

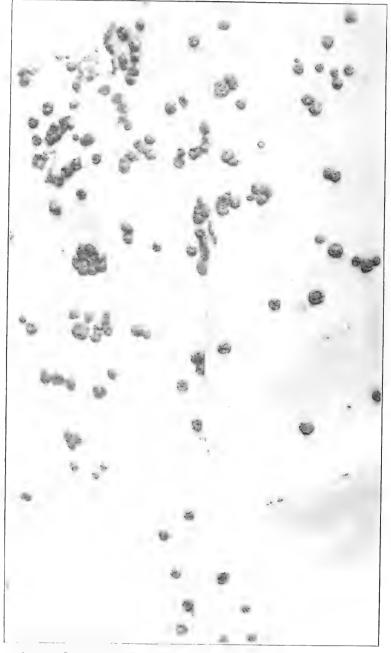
PLATE LX.



CITRUS-CANKER INFECTIONS OF THE LIGHT-BROWN, SPONGY, RAISED CHARACTER FOUND CHIEFLY IN WARM MOIST WEATHER, SHOWING THE MORE FLATTENED DARK SPOTS FREQUENTLY FOUND DURING THE WINTER OR COOL, DRY WEATHER.



UPPER SURFACE OF PORTION OF GRAPEFRUIT LEAF ENLARGED 213 DIAMETERS TO SHOW PROJECTING CHARACTER OF CITRUS-CANKER INFECTIONS.



LOWER SURFACE OF PORTION OF GRAPEFRUIT LEAF ENLARGED 215 DIAMETERS TO SHOW CHARACTER OF CITRUS-CANKER INFECTIONS.

of January 25, 1915, and shortly afterwards cooperative agreements for similar work were made with Alabama, Texas, Louisiana, and Mississippi.

Meantime the disease has been critically studied both in the laboratories of the Department of Agriculture and the State experiment stations, and its cause, though twice erroneously reported to be a fungus, has been definitely proved to be a bacillus new to science, which is apparently unable to infect plants other than the species of the genus Citrus or its close relatives. This new bacillus has been named Pseudomonas citri. The spots, or cankers, occurring on leaves, twigs, or fruit are not especially difficult to recognize. As shown in Plates LIX and LX, the cankers may vary from less than one-eighth to about one-fourth of an inch in diameter, and they may occur on green fruit (especially of lemon, grapefruit, and orange), on the bark (especially of young twigs), and upon leaves. By far the greater number of cases are found at first affecting only the leaves. The spots are reddish brown, raised slightly above the level of the healthy surface, and frequently are surrounded by a rather indistinct narrow vellowish zone. Leaves are especially characteristic, for, as shown in Plates LXI and LXII, the spots go clear through the leaf and are almost equally prominent on the upper and lower surfaces. They may be slightly mottled, and usually the older spots at least have broken through the thin outer laver or epidermis of the leaf. Before breaking through the leaf surface the cankers are smooth and almost waxy, but they afterwards have a corky appearance.

DRASTIC CONTROL MEASURES NECESSARY.

If spots or cankers fitting this description are found in any citrus grove, the owner of the property should at once take all possible precautions to avoid spreading the disease, lest it prove to be citrus canker. He should prohibit all visiting to that or adjacent groves, stop all cultivating or other work, and should send for a State specialist¹ to definitely determine the disease. If this is not possible, a few infected leaves may be picked off, wrapped in paper, sealed

¹ Aid may be requested from Wilmon Newell, Plant Commissioner, Gainesville, Fla.; G. C. Starcher, State Horticulturist, Auburn, Ala.; R. W. Harnea, State Entomologist, Agricultural College, Miss.; E. Lee Worsham, State Entomologist, Atlanta, Ga.; J. B. Barrett, State Entomologist, Agricultural Experiment Station, Baton Rouge, La.; Ed. L. Ayers, Chief Nursery Inspector, Houston, Tex.

in a heavy envelope, and forwarded to State authorities or to the United States Department of Agriculture. After picking these infected leaves, the owner should thoroughly wash his hands in a disinfecting solution.

If a tree is found to be actually infected with citrus canker the wisest course to pursue is to burn it at once. Although this treatment is extremely severe, it is the only one which has been found practicable and effective in checking the spread of the disease. This method of eradication, first used in Florida in the autumn of 1914, has been adopted throughout the entire region where citrus canker has been found, and additional safeguards not at first recognized as necessary are now employed.

THOROUGH DISINFECTION PRACTICED.

Inspectors for citrus canker are required to wear suits similar to the overalls worn by thrashing crews or by garage mechanics, completely covering their usual clothes. Leggins and canvas hats are also required. These must be completely and thoroughly disinfected in a 1 to 1.000 solution of bichlorid of mercury before entering citrus properties and upon leaving citrus properties, and at the same time the inspectors must thoroughly disinfect their shoes, hands, and faces. The inspectors are instructed to avoid touching any citrus trees when inspecting them, though if it becomes necessary to move a limb in order to thoroughly inspect a tree, this can be done with especial precautions to avoid as far as possible the chances of spreading contagion from diseased spots as yet not visible to the naked eye. All apparatus taken into citrus groves, such as oil cans and special pumps for spraying oil or formalin, etc., must be thoroughly sprayed with disinfectants before being taken from the orchard. Upon finding infected trees, the ground under the tree should be spraved thoroughly with a 5 per cent solution of formalin, and especially in properties where grove trees are of considerable size the spraving with a 1 per cent formalin solution of all apparently healthy trees adjacent to infected trees which are to be destroyed is advised.

These precautions are more extreme than have been found necessary in fighting any other plant disease, yet they are necessary on account of the extreme infectiousness or contagiousness of citrus canker; and partly because of this the success of the campaign for the eradication of citrus canker may be expected to establish a new era in preventive and control work in dealing with plant diseases.

THE SPREAD OF THE DISEASE.

There have been periods during which it has been impossible to continue work in all States because of occasional lack of funds.¹ As a whole, however, the campaign has been practically continuous up to the present time, and the distribution of the disease is not greatly different from what an experienced pathologist should have been able to predict from the circumstantial evidence more than a year ago. Knowing that infected nursery stock had been shipped into Texas in 1911, that suspected stock from Japan had at subsequent periods been shipped into other States, and that citrus stock exposed to infection in nurseries in each of the States concerned had been distributed, it is obvious that the disease must have been widely spread throughout the citrus-growing territory. As might have been expected. therefore, the more and more thorough inspections of the southern citrus territory showed that citrus canker was more widely distributed than the preliminary observations had indicated. Severe tropical storms during the two past seasons, in addition to the usual means of spreading the contagion, considerably increased the number of properties infected. Even at the worst, however, but a very small fraction of the citrus properties of the South have been infected, and those in California have escaped completely. Furthermore, the infected properties usually can be cleansed of the disease before many trees are lost.

The grapefruit, the orange, the lime, and the lemon are so readily infected with citrus canker that it does not appear probable that any method except that of complete destruction of all infected trees will serve to check the disease in any locality. With other varieties of citrus, and especially Satsuma oranges, it appears probable that the burning off of diseased leaves and branches, immediately followed by thorough spraying with strong disinfecting solutions, may arrest the spread of the disease, and careful

¹ Since the autumn of 1914 three Federal appropriations have been made for cooperative work for the eradication of citrus canker: \$35,000 in the urgent deficiency act of Jan. 25, 1915; \$300,000 in the urgent deficiency act of Feb. 28, 1916; and \$250,000 in the agricultural appropriation act of Aug. 11, 1916. The State contributions, being often personal and local in their nature, are not in all cases completely recorded, but they are estimated to be \$3,500 from Alabama, \$300,000 from Florida, \$2,000 from Georgia, \$30,000 from Louisiana, and \$11,000 from Texas; a grand total, from all sources, of \$931,500.

and extensive tests of this modified plan are now under way. Even with Satsuma oranges it appears that the disease is almost uncontrollable if infected orange, grapefruit, or trifoliate orange plants are near by. Satsuma trees, on the other hand, frequently show the disease so slightly at first that the injuries are almost indistinguishable. Because of these facts, it is becoming obvious that in regions where citrus canker is appearing the attempt to grow these different varieties of citrus plants on the same property or even in the same general locality seriously jeopardizes the success of either variety.

ERADICATION CONTINGENT UPON CONTINUED EFFICIENT WORK.

The progress of the inspection and eradication work has been sufficiently encouraging during the past two seasons to give rise to the confident expectation of completely eradicating citrus canker from this country, provided effective work may be maintained constantly for a period of at least two or three years longer. All or practically all of the infected and suspected areas are known, and though it is impossible to find at once all dormant or undeveloped cases of canker, even in groves or nurseries where occasional diseased trees are found and burned, the number of infected trees appearing from month to month is decreasing, and the total number of infected trees during the past season was smaller than during the season before, especially in the commercially important orange and grapefruit regions.

The cost of conducting work of this character is very heavy; but, in view of the magnitude of the industry involved, the total sums expended to the present time represent but a small fraction of 1 per cent of the capitalized values that are threatened, and the continuation of the work appears to be both essential and well justified.

There remains always the hope that some less drastic method of combating citrus canker may be discovered, and therefore experiments are under way in different portions of the South carefully to test different methods of spraying and other treatments; it should at least be possible to develop spraying as an auxiliary method to a point where losses of trees from secondary infections may be negligible instead of forming as they now do a very considerable part of the loss caused by the spread of citrus canker.

THE PRACTICAL USE OF THE INSECT ENEMIES OF INJURIOUS INSECTS.

By L. O. HOWARD,

Entomologist and Chief, Bureau of Entomology.

INTRODUCTORY.

A MONG the many things which the Department of Agriculture has done for agriculture and horticulture in the United States, very few have been as spectacular and as immediately beneficial as the introduction of the Australian ladybird, or lady-beetle, from Australia in the eighties to destroy the white, fluted, or cottony-cushion scale, which at that time threatened the absolute extinction of the orange and lemon growing industry in California. The immediate and extraordinary success of this experiment attracted attention all over the civilized world, and, although it was followed by very many impractical and unsuccessful experiments of a similar nature, remains as the initial success in much beneficial work which since then has been carried on both in this country and in others.

The whole story of this work, and of later efforts of the same kind, has been told at length in Bulletin 91 of the Bureau of Entomology, published in 1911, but a competent résumé has never appeared in the Yearbook, and the retelling of it in more summary form will possibly prove of general interest.

THE AUSTRALIAN LADYBIRD AND THE FLUTED SCALE.

In the early seventies of the past century there appeared upon certain acacia trees at Menlo Park, Cal., a scale insect, which rapidly increased and spread from tree to tree, attacking apples, figs, quinces, pomegranates, roses, and many other trees and plants, but seeming to prefer orange and lemon trees. This insect, which came to be known as the white scale, or fluted scale, or the Icerya (from its scientific name), was an insignificant creature in itself, resembling a small bit of fluted white wax a little more than a fourth of

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an inch in length. But when the scales had once taken possession of a tree they swarmed over it until the bark was hidden; they sucked its sap through their minute beaks until the plant became so feeble that the leaves and young fruit dropped off, a black smut fungus crept over the young twigs, and the weakened tree gradually died.

THREATENED EXTINCTION OF THE CALIFORNIA CITRUS INDUSTRY.

In this way orchard after orchard of oranges, worth a thousand dollars or more an acre, was utterly destroyed, the best fruit-growing sections of the State were invaded, and ruin stared the fruit growers in the face. This spread was rather gradual, extending through a series of years, and it was not until 1886 that it was so serious as to attract national attention.

In this year (1886) an investigation was begun by the Department of Agriculture. Two agents of the Division of Entomology, Messrs. D. W. Coquillett and Albert Koebele, were sent to California to study the problem of remedies. In the course of a year the complete life history of the insect had been worked out and a number of washes had been discovered that, applied to the trees in the form of a sprav. would kill a large proportion of the pests at comparatively slight expense (say from one-half to one-third of a cent per gallon). It was soon found, however, that the average fruit grower would not take the trouble to spray his trees, largely from the fact that he had experimented for some years with inferior washes and quack mixtures and from his lack of success had become disgusted with the idea of using liquid compounds: something easier, something more radical, was necessary in his disheartened condition.

IMPORTATION OF THE AUSTRALIAN LADYBIRD AND ITS SPECTACU-LAR SUCCESS.

Meantime, after much sifting of evidence and much correspondence with naturalists in many parts of the world, it was decided by Prof. C. V. Riley, at that time Chief of the Division of Entomology of the Department of Agriculture, that the white scale was a native of Australia and had been brought over to California accidentally upon Australian plants. In the same way it was found to have reached South Africa and New Zealand, in both of which countries it had gradually increased and had become almost as great a pest as in California. In Australia, however, it did not seem to be abundant and was not known as a pest, which was assumed to be evidence of the fact that Australia was the native home of the species, and that there must exist there some natural check to its increase. It therefore became important to send a trained man to Australia to investigate this promising feature.

It happened at that time that the appropriation bill for the Department of Agriculture prohibited foreign travel. but it also happened that some appropriations had been made to the Department of State to provide for an exhibit from the United States which was to be held at an international exposition at Melbourne. So by arrangements with the Department of State and the United States commissioner to the Melbourne Exposition, Mr. Frank McCoppin of San Francisco, it was planned to send an expert assistant from the Division of Entomology to Australia to study the conditions of the fluted scale in regard to parasites and other natural enemies, his expenses being paid from exposition funds. Mr. Albert Koebele was chosen for this work. In order to justify this expenditure from exposition funds, the Department of Agriculture sent another agent, the late Prof. F. M. Webster, to prepare a report for the commission on the agricultural features of the international exposition.

Koebele proved to be an excellent choice. He was a skilled collector and the best man who could have been selected for this work. He at once found that Prof. Riley's supposition was correct—there existed in Australia small flies which laid their eggs in the fluted scales, and these eggs hatched into grubs which devoured the pests. He also found a remarkable little ladybird, a small, reddish-brown, convex beetle which breeds with marvelous rapidity and which, with voracious appetite and at the same time with discriminating taste, devours scale after scale, but eats fluted scales only and does not destroy other insects. This beneficial creature, now known as the Australian ladybird, or the Vedalia (fig. 8), was at once collected in large numbers, together with several other insects found doing the

same work. Many hundreds of living specimens, with plenty of food, were packed in tin boxes and placed on ice in the ice box of the steamer at Sydney. They were carried carefully to California, where they were liberated upon orange trees already inclosed in gauze by Mr. Coquillett at Los Angeles.

The results more than justified the most sanguine expectations. The ladybirds reached Los Angeles alive, and, with appetites sharpened by the long ocean voyage, immediately fell upon the scales and devoured them one after another

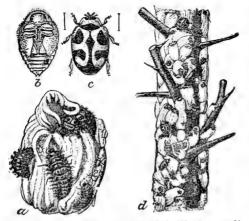


FIG. 8.—The Australian ladybird (Novius cardinalis), an imported enemy of the fluted scale: a, Ladybird larvæ feeding on adult female scale and its egg sac; b, pupa of ladybird; c, adult ladybird; d, orange twig, showing scales and ladybirds. a-c, Enlarged; d, natural size. (Marlatt.)

without rest. Their hunger temporarily satisfied, they began to lay eggs. These eggs hatched in a few days into active grublike creaturesthe larvæ of the beetles - and these grubs proved as voracious as their parents: they devoured the scales right and left, and in less than a month transformed into beetles. And so the work of extermination went Each female on.

beetle laid on an average 300 eggs, and each of these eggs hatched into a hungry larva. Suppose that one-half of these larvæ produced female beetles, a simple calculation will show that in 5 months a single ladybird became the ancestor of 75 billions of other ladybirds, each capable of destroying very many scale insects.

Is it any wonder, then, that the fluted scale soon began to disappear? Is it any wonder that orchard after orchard was entirely freed from the pest, until in the course of less than 5 years hardly an Icerya was to be found in California? In fact, in less than a year from the time when the first of these hungry Australians was liberated from its box in Los Angeles the orange trees were once more in bloom and were resuming their old-time verdure. The Icerya had practically become a thing of the past.

The general effect of this extraordinary California success on the horticultural world at large was striking, but not wholly beneficial. Many enthusiasts, headed by certain Californians, concluded that it was no longer necessary to use insecticidal mixtures and that all that was necessary in order to eradicate any insect pest of horticulture or of agriculture was to send to Australia for its natural enemy. In fact, it is safe to say in a general way that, by blinding people to other and immediate measures of control, this success retarded the general warfare against injurious insects in the State of California.

The fact that the Vedalia prevs only upon the fluted scale. and perhaps upon some very closely allied forms, was disregarded, and it was supposed by many fruit growers that it would destroy any scale insect. Therefore the people in Florida, whose orange groves were suffering from the long scale and the purple scale, sent to California for specimens of the Vedalia to rid their trees of these other scale pests. Their correspondents in California sent them specimens of the beetle in a box with a supply of the fluted scale for food. When they arrived in Florida the entire contents of the box were placed in an orange grove. The result was that the beneficial insects died and the fluted scale gained a foothold in Florida, a State in which it had never before been seen. It bred rapidly and spread to a considerable extent for some vears and did an appreciable amount of damage before it was finally subdued.

On the other hand, the work of this predatory beetle in other parts of the world has been of the same successful character as that in California, wherever it has been introduced for the purpose of destroying the fluted scale or another species of the same genus. It was introduced into New Zealand, into South Africa, into Portugal, into the Hawaiian Islands, Italy, Syria, Egypt, and recently into the south of France, everywhere reducing the fluted scale from alarming numbers to practically none. In no case does it appear absolutely to have exterminated the fluted scale;

always a few are left, which sometimes multiply so as to necessitate a reintroduction of the Vedalia.

WHY THE AUSTRALIAN LADYBIRD WAS SUCCESSFUL.

It thus appears that in this ladybird beetle we have an almost perfect remedy against the fluted scale. There have been no failures in its introduction to any one of the different countries to which it has been carried. Its success has been more perfect than that of any other beneficial insect which has so far been tried in this international work, that which comes nearest to it being the introduction of the parasites of the cane leafhoppers into Hawaii, which will be referred to later. There are good reasons for this—rea-

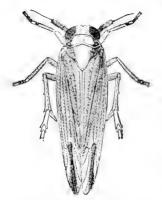


FIG. 9.—The sugar-cane leafhopper (*Perkinsiella saccharicida*): Adult female. Much enlarged. (Kirkaldy.) sons which do not hold in the relations of many other beneficial insects to their hosts. In the first place, the Vedalia is active, crawls rapidly about in the larval state, and flies rapidly as an adult beetle. whereas the fluted scale is fixed to the plant, does not fly, and crawls very slowly when first hatched and later not at all. In the second place. the Vedalia is a rapid breeder and has at least two generations during the time in which a single generation of the scale insect is being developed. In the third place, it feeds upon the eggs of the scale insect;

and in the fourth place, it seems to have no enemies of its own; and this is a very strange fact, since other ladybird beetles are destroyed by several species of parasites.

IMPORTATION OF BENEFICIAL PARASITIC INSECTS INTO HAWAII.

PARASITES OF THE SUGAR-CANE LEAFHOPPER.

We have just referred to the Hawaiian work in the introduction of parasites. About 1902 a leafhopper (fig. 9) was found upon the sugar cane in Hawaii. It appears to have been introduced with seed from Australia about 1898. It spread rapidly, and in 1903 damaged the crop to the extent

Use of Insect Enemies of Injurious Insects. 279

of \$3,000,000. An expert was sent that year to the United States to look for parasites. The next year this expert and another went to Australia, collected more than 100 species of parasites of leafhoppers, and, though failing with their first consignment, sent in cold storage, were successful with later shipments. The parasites reached Honolulu alive, were reared in confinement, and liberated in the cane fields. The year 1905 showed enormous loss from the leafhopper on many plantations. In 1906 certain of the parasites (see fig. 10) began to multiply very rapidly.

In 1907 one very large plantation, whose crop had dropped from 10,954 tons in 1904 to 1,620 tons in 1905 and to 826 tons

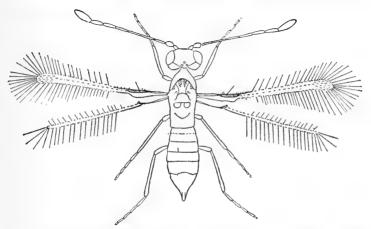


FIG. 10.—*Paranagrus optabilis*, a parasite of the sugar-cane leafhopper : Adult, highly magnified. (Perkins.)

in 1906, made the next year 11,630 tons, almost entirely as the result of the parasite introduction. In August, 1915, the writer visited Hawaii and found that the situation with regard to the sugar-cane leafhopper was almost perfect. The canes were not damaged in any respect so far as could be seen. The leafhoppers were still present, but in insignificant numbers. Where they had laid their eggs, these were almost invariably parasitized by one of the introduced parasites. There is, it is true, an occasional reappearance of the leafhoppers in numbers, following the destruction of the parasites by trash-burning, and, at the time of this visit, on one

large plantation on the island of Hawaii 10,000 acres were so badly infested that a yield of only one-half a normal crop was expected. But such recrudescences as this are, and probably will be, fugitive.

A PARASITE OF THE SUGAR-CANE WEEVIL BORER.

Other results almost as valuable have been accomplished in Hawaii by the introduction of a fly which is a parasite of the sugar-cane weevil borer (fig. 11), an insect which tun-

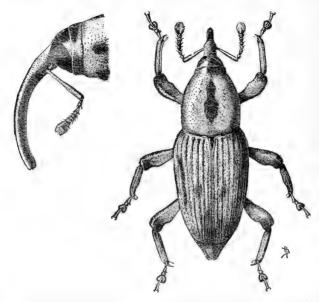


FIG. 11.—The sugar-cane weevil borer (*Rhabdocnemis obscurus*): Adult weevil, from above; profile view of head and beak at left. Much enlarged. (Original.)

nels the canes and greatly reduces the crop. This parasitic fly was found in British New Guinea by Mr. F. Muir, an expert of the Sugar Planters' Association, and after much hardship and one failure it was successfully established in Hawaii with extraordinarily beneficial results.

This Hawaiian experience was described by Representative Mann in a speech made before Congress April 22, 1916, with the introductory remark, "I am going to narrate, very briefly, a fairy story"; but it was a true fairy story. Use of Insect Enemies of Injurious Insects. 281

REASONS FOR THE SUCCESS OF THE HAWAIIAN WORK.

Here, again, there were good reasons for the striking success The remote position of Hawaii and the simplicity of its native fauna-practically all of its pests having been introduced by commerce without their regular natural enemies and multiplying enormously on account of the very few native parasitic or predatory insects-account in part for the success, since in just the same way when natural enemies of imported pests are introduced they meet not only an absence of insects such as secondary parasites or native predatory species, but also find themselves in an equable climate permitting continuous breeding all the year round. As has been pointed out, the keen struggle for existence between the different native forms of insect life which is seen in continental lands is absent in these islands, and with introduced species the extreme simplicity of environment which they find is enormously favorable to their multiplication.

CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH THE PROBLEM IS SIMPLE AND EASY.

It follows, then, that with certain accidentally imported insects, nonfliers and attached to the same spot through practically their whole life, the introduction of active and more rapidly developing predators or parasites may reasonably be expected to be effective.

It follows, also, that injurious insects accidentally imported into such isolated islands as Hawaii in the north Tropics, which from their isolation have a very simple fauna, may be kept in check with some degree of certainty and with some degree of rapidity by the introduction, from their original home, of the parasites and natural enemies which there may have kept them in check.

WHY THE PROBLEM IS USUALLY COMPLEX AND DIFFICULT.

But with other kinds of injurious insects which have what is called a complete metamorphosis, and which may exist in the egg stage, in a crawling larval stage, in a quiescent pupal stage, and as a flying adult, and which in their native

homes are parasitized by whole series of species of parasites, some attacking them in one stage and some in another, and still others in a third, it is not such a simple thing to introduce and acclimatize the parasites necessary to reconstitute the normal environment.

Moreover, in a great continental country like the United States, with its very old assemblage of insect forms of infinite variety, with its remarkable variations in climate, in altitude, in rainfall, we again have a much more complicated problem.

The original claim of the Californians, that you have only to send abroad for *the* parasite of any injurious insect to bring about its subjugation, is thus obviously erroneous. No trained entomologist would for a moment consider such a problem a simple one, except under conditions such as those described.

Hence it follows that with almost every accidentally introduced insect pest the problem of bringing in its natural enemies from its native home possesses very many factors which must be considered, and these factors differ with almost each kind of insect concerned. It is unwise and most unpromising to attempt heterogeneous and miscellaneous importations of parasites without careful study of the host insect on its home ground and in its natural environment throughout the whole range of its existence and a similar biological study of its parasites and natural enemies under such conditions.

IMPORTATION OF PARASITES OF THE GIPSY MOTH AND THE BROWN-TAIL MOTH.

Take the case of the gipsy moth and the brown-tail moth in New England, for example. Here we had two pests well known in Europe (the gipsy moth also being known in Japan) which had become accidentally established in New England and which multiplied and spread alarmingly. In their native homes entomologists had studied these insects in a way for many years. Many of their native parasites and other natural enemies had been recorded. It was well known that in ordinary years in their native homes 90 per cent of all that hatched were destroyed by these parasites and natural enemies. Hence, after the first effort to exterminate these insects before their spread had covered very many square miles had failed, owing to the stopping of appropriations by the State of Massachusetts, and the insects had again multiplied and spread over an area of nearly 4,000 square miles, it was considered to be a most promising operation to bring over from Europe and from Japan as many larvæ and pupæ of these insects as possible, with the certainty that a large percentage of them would contain parasites which, liberated upon American soil, would attack the gipsy-moth and brown-tail-moth larvæ and pupæ devastating the orchards and forests of New England. This was done, and by the wholesale, but with the distinct understanding that immediate beneficial results upon a noticeably gratifying scale could not be expected.

In varying numbers and with varying methods, the European and Japanese parasites of these two insects were imported every year from 1905 to 1913, further actual importation work being then interrupted by the great war. More than 30 species were imported during this time, and a number of the most important ones have been acclimatized and are rapidly spreading, and are at the present writing doing excellent work and in many localities destroying more than 50 per cent of the injurious insects. More than 18,000,000 individuals of the parasites have been colonized in parts of the infested area.

But this great experiment, extending over 11 years, has necessarily comprehended the methodical experimental study of all of the factors which affect the attempted acclimatization of species in a new environment, many of the characteristics of which are opposed to such naturalization. It has been, in the freely translated words of Dr. Paul Marchal, the eminent French biologist, "a gigantic biological analysis and synthesis bearing upon all the elements which constitute the harmonic groupings of plant-feeding insects, their predators, parasites, and hyperparasites—the taking apart piece by piece of the whole system, and its partial reconstruction in a new environment, forcing it to give the greatest possible stress to the elements most favorable to man and reducing to the minimum those which oppose their action."

DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED IN THE WORK.

To indicate in a faint way some of the difficulties encountered and some of the fluctuations of hope and the contrary which came about from time to time, it will be only necessary to cite the experience with two of the imported species.

There exists in Japan an egg parasite of the gipsy moth, now known as the Schedius (fig. 12). The first specimens of this insect were reared from Japanese gipsy-moth eggs sent to this country in 1908, and others issued in April, 1909. They bred rapidly, laying their eggs in American gipsy-moth eggs (see fig. 13) brought into the laboratory,

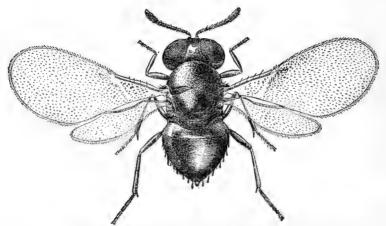


FIG. 12.—Schedius kuvanae, an egg parasite of the gipsy moth introduced from Japan: Adult female. Greatly enlarged. (Author's illustration.)

and on through the summer at the rate of one generation a month. By the first of the following year 1,000,000 individuals were present in the rearing cages in the field laboratory, and the following March the parasitized eggs were divided into 100 lots, each of which contained approximately 10,000 parasites, and were put out in colonies, while a large quantity of parasitized eggs remained and were placed in cold storage awaiting the appearance of fresh eggs of the gipsy moth in the latter part of the summer. This hope was vain, however, and when the eggs were taken from cold storage not a single living specimen remained. By the end

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of 1910 hopes of the survival of the species in the field were almost abandoned, but in spite of this the insect has finally accommodated itself to New England conditions and is breeding rapidly and spreading slowly from points where it succeeded in maintaining itself, and now exists by millions in regions infested with the gipsy moth.

Quite different was the experience with one of the European parasites, the *Parexorista cheloniae* (fig. 14), a species which exists also in America but which here does not seem to parasitize the brown-tail moth larva because it is apparently without defense against the poisonous barbed hairs of this caterpillar. On the other hand, in Europe this para-

site is represented by a race, apparently identical with the American race, but which has become adapted to the brown-tail moth physiologically and there parasitizes it with impunity. Attempts were made, therefore, to introduce the European form. It was brought over and colonized by the thousands. In the following year numerous brown-tail moth caterpillars were found to have been parasitized by it, and great hopes were aroused. The year after. however, the condition of affairs was completely changed; the caterpillars were absolutely free from attack. Then the curious discovery

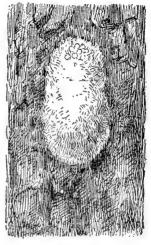


FIG. 13.—Egg masses of the gipsy moth. Enlarged. (Kirkland.)

was made that the imported European race and its first generation of descendants had hybridized with the American race and that the offspring had lost the immunization against the brown-tail moth poison. It therefore appeared that all efforts to acclimatize the European race would be useless, since, however great the number of individuals imported, the race would be absorbed by the American form. Possibly the American race may eventually acquire immunity, but, with the abundance of other food, this would be an enormously slow process.

GENERAL RESULTS ACHIEVED.

On the whole, the work has been very successful, and has helped in bringing about infinitely better conditions in New England so far as these pests are concerned, and, while it is practically certain that both gipsy moth and brown-tail moth will gradually spread westward, it is equally sure that the imported natural enemies will go with them, and that none of the long-continued disastrous outbreaks which we saw in Massachusetts in the years prior to 1905 will occur farther west.

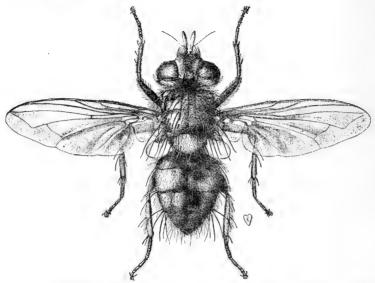


FIG. 14.—Parexorista cheloniae, a parasite of the brown-tail moth. Greatly enlarged. (Original.)

From all this it will appear that the practical handling of the natural enemies of injurious insects on the whole is by no means a simple rule-of-thumb operation. With a few species it can be done easily and with very perfect results; with other imported species it is a very complicated operation and will produce results which are palliative to a large degree, but by no means overwhelming in their effect.

INTRODUCTION OF THE PARASITE OF THE MULBERRY SCALE INTO ITALY.

Since the initial success with the Australian ladybird, literally hundreds of similar attempts have been made in

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different parts of the world. Some have met with a certain amount of success; others have been absolute failures. One of the most successful ones which may be mentioned incidentally is the importation from America and Japan into Italy of a minute parasite of the Diaspis scale insect which threatened the entire extinction of the mulberry trees and consequently of the silk industry in Italy. This little parasite (fig. 15), imported by Prof. Antonio Berlese, of Florence. and carefully reared and distributed, has brought about the approximate extinction of the scale insect throughout a large part of Italy. Here again, however, we had a fixed scale

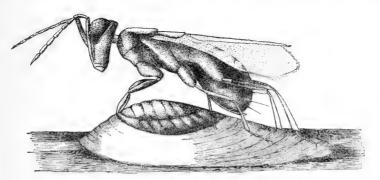


FIG. 15.—The parasite *Prospattclla berlesei* laying its eggs in a mulberry scale. Highly magnified. (Redrawn from Berlese.)

absolutely at the mercy of its imported natural enemy, which. at the same time, breeds naturally with greater rapidity than the scale insect.

OUTLOOK FOR THE BIOLOGICAL METHOD OF FIGHTING INSECTS.

There will be a very considerable development of this method of warfare against injurious insects in the future. It should be termed "the biological method of fighting insects," and, looking at the problem in a broad way, so far as this country is concerned, when we consider that more than one-half of our principal crop pests have been accidentally imported from other countries, there seems no reason why a systematic study of a very large number of parasitic and predatory insects native to the countries from which these pests were accidentally imported should not be made with a view of ultimate importation of all of them

into the United States. In fact, since there exist all over the world beneficial insects, many of which can undoubtedly be acclimatized here, and some of which will undoubtedly prove of value to American agriculture, carefully planned work should be begun looking to the ultimate increase of our insect population by the addition of as many of these beneficial forms as possible.

Of course this would mean a very great amount of careful biological study in the countries of origin by men specially trained in this sort of work, if results of value are to be obtained. Strikingly beneficial results could not be expected speedily and, in fact, we might not be able for many years to estimate the benefits derived from such a service; but it seems clear that we should have in this country as many of these surely beneficial forms as can be acclimatized.

STALLION LEGISLATION AND THE HORSE-BREEDING INDUSTRY.

By CHARLES C. GLENN,

Animal Husbandry Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

PROGRESS in horse breeding has not kept pace with the progress made in many other agricultural lines. One of the principal causes of this condition has been the too general use of stallions lacking in quality and breeding and the failure on the part of owners of mares to appreciate fully the value of the sound, pure-bred sire of desirable conformation. The most successful horse breeders use such sires only, and they also give particular attention to the selection of mares, as unsound mares of poor conformation and breeding, as well as inferior stallions, are a hindrance to progress in horse breeding.

It is a deplorable fact that hundreds of farmers and mare owners have patronized the inferior stallion. They have failed to appreciate that a higher fee paid for the service of the sound, pure-bred stallion will be more than offset by the higher price received when the resulting colt is sold. Nor have they considered the fact that it costs as much to raise a mongrel as it does a high-grade or pure-bred.

Many States have aided the farmers by enacting legislation regulating the public service of stallions and jacks, with the prospect that there will be an ultimate improvement in the horses in the entire country. Farmers and mare owners can benefit themselves and add greatly to the efficiency of these laws by insisting on breeding their mares only to such stallions as will improve, rather than degrade, their stock.

REQUIREMENTS OF STALLION LEGISLATION.

In the State of Wisconsin a law regulating the public service of stallions and jacks became effective on January 1, 1906. Since that time 20 additional States have enacted

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legislation of a similar character. These States are: California, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Utah, and Washington.

Wisconsin and a number of other States have amended their original laws, the object being to make them more effective and to give clearer classifications regarding licenses. Under the provisions of these laws certain standards and conditions must be met before a stallion or jack is permitted to stand for public service. These conditions vary somewhat. In some States certain diseases and unsoundnesses disqualify a stallion or jack for public service; in others, the stallion or jack is permitted to stand, but any unsoundness must be mentioned on the license certificate as well as on all posters, circulars, etc., used by the owner for advertising purposes.

The laws in most of the States require every stallion or jack claimed by the owner to be purebred to be registered in a studbook published by a society recognized by the State as authentic and reliable. Before a license is issued the certificate of registration and pedigree issued by one of these recognized societies, with an application for license and an affidavit certifying to the condition as regards soundness, must be presented to the State board or commission. All stallions and jacks for which such a certificate of registration from one of the recognized societies can not be produced are, if other conditions have been met, licensed as grade, crossbred, nonstandard-bred, mongrel, etc., and sound or unsound, according to the provisions of the law in the particular State.

Detailed information regarding these laws may be secured by addressing the officials in charge, whose names and addresses appear at the end of this article.

The figures shown in the several tables were compiled from reports furnished by the secretaries of the various stallion registration boards. These reports are not issued all at the same time of year, and the information given is taken from the last reports received.

Stallion]	Legislation	and	the	Horse-l	breeding	Industry.	291
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											Ø	Stallions	DS.										Ja	Jacks.		•S3
								Pu	p-p	Pure-bred stallions	llior	IS.								·				*S2		losi bi
State.	$\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{f}}$	Date.	Belgian draft.	Clydesdale.	French draft.	Percheron.	.9йd2	Suffolk.	Cleveland Bay.	French Coach. German Coach.	Насклеу.	Morgan.	.9IbbaB	.bərd-brabnat2	Thoroughbred.	Shetland pony.	Welsh pony.	Total pure-bred stallions.	Grade stallions.	Crossbred stallion	Mongrel stallions	.enoillets letoT	Registered Jacks.	Unregistered jack	Total jacks.	us anoillets letoT
California	July	31, 1915	101	18	35	336	50	ۍ :	:	-1	27	3	3	9 10	911	:	:	712	272	01	350 1,	336	114	181	295	1, 631
Idaho	Nov.	15, 1915	50	11	18	204	53	5	:	5	4		2	21	17	1	:	357	432	:	:	789	4	50	54	843
llinois	July	1, 1915	397	173	267	2,855	454 1	10	~	31 11	Ξ	37 6		974	4 9	55	ŝ	5, 503	3, 185	67	00	069	:	:	-	8, 690
ndiana	Dec.	31, 1915	611	75	105	1, 272	101	1	pret		48	9 1	1 9	9 444	4	19	:	2,707	1, 276	5	976 4,	964	628	536	1, 164	6, 128
OW8.	do		944	332	516	3, 185	523	6	2	-	54		55 28	624	46	53	:	6, 367	2,686	:	6	9,053	233	589	822	9, 875
Kansas	Oct.	1, 1915	201	38	291	2,038	88	5	9	18	37			416	9	10	:	3, 224	1,360	:	1, 151 5,	5, 735		:		5,735
Michigan	Sept.	1, 1915	196	69	36	664	46	3	:	1	12		8	. 17	5	:	;	1, 213	398	:	275 1,	1,886		:		1,886
3	Apr.	15, 1916	326	93	126	1, 214	52	41	:		21			2 142	2	4	:	2, 053	1, 898	:	3	951				3,951
Montana		31, 1915	75	24	51	488	61	:	:	00	9	;	44	30	39 3	:	:	767	423	:		1, 190	6	2	11	1, 201
Nebraska	July	1, 1914	339	82	270	1,586	273	12	;	9	31	474	4	6 233	3	1	:	2,852	2, 213	:	5.	5,065	96 1	,061	1, 157	6, 222
New Jersey		1915	~~1	80		21.			;	:	ŝ	3		. 31	114	-	;	84	79	1	****	164	61	9	00	172
North Dakota	Dec.	31, 1915	207	117	84	1,037	161	2	;	:	14	3	3		:	-	:	1,602	608	:	757 2,	2967	14	58	72	3, 039
Oregon	Nov.	1, 1915	92	52	21	312	55	9	2	~	31	2	10	4	72 5	en	:	670	284	61	232 1	1, 188	24	100	124	1,312
Pennsylvania	Dec.	31, 1915	124	20	31	518	30	:	-	00	33	22 1	10 10	0 211	1 14	5	:	1,037	1, 153	:	67	2, 190	9	62	68	2,2
South Dakota	July	1,1915	187	59	97	752	54	3	:	-	-00	1	1.4	2 4	3 2	-	:	1,217	300	;	461 1	1,978	13	64	22	2,055
		1915	31	14	8	104	33	33	:	4	2	:		3 1	17 9	:	:	219	63		* * * *	282	2	-	-1	289
Washington	July	1, 1914	100	13	31	318	94	3	:	9	16	3			:	:	:	584	534	:	1	118	18	83	101	1, 219
Wisconsin	July	1, 1915	166	74	64	1,052	46	1 4	:	17	19	-9	53	2 276	9	5	-	1, 755	902	ŝ	345 3,	200	16	19	35	3,042
Total.			4.152	1.272	2.0551	055 17.986	2.164	19	101	142 4	477 1	134 24	249 167	7 3.914	4 8	158		6 32, 923 18,	8.066 17		4, 547 55	55.553 1	1.184	2.811	3.995	59, 548

Number of stallions, by breeds and classes, in 18 States.

The table on the preceding page shows the number of purebred stallions by breeds and the grades, crossbreds, and mongrels, as well as the registered and unregistered jacks, for those States from which these data were obtainable, the exceptions being Colorado, New York, and Oklahoma. No figures were received from Oklahoma, and those from Colorado give only the total number of licenses issued. Reference to these is made below. The law in New York became effective January 1, 1917. In some States a separate license is issued for nonstandard-bred stallions, and all these have been shown with the grades. This table shows the great popularity of the draft breeds, among which the Percheron

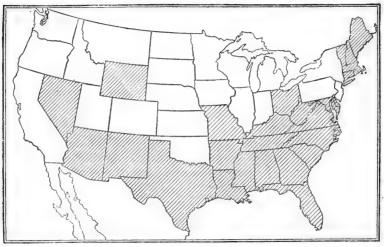


FIG. 16.—States in white have laws regulating the public service of stallions and jacks.

stands far in the lead, followed by the Belgian, Shire, French Draft, Clydesdale, and Suffolk in the order named. Of the light breeds the standard-bred stands practically alone.

In the two following tables, showing comparisons and percentages, only stallions have been considered. From the latest data received, 55,553 stallions are found to have been licensed for public service in all States having stallion license laws, excepting Colorado, New York, and Oklahoma. Of this number, 32,923, or 59 per cent, are pure-bred; 18,066, or 33 per cent, are grade; and 4,564, or 8 per cent, are cross-

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bred and mongrel. Colorado reports only the total number of licenses issued, which was 1,430, jacks being included. Allowing a reasonable estimate for the number of jacks in this State, 56,000 stallions, in round numbers, are licensed for public service in all of these States, not including Oklahoma and New York. The distribution of the 55,553 stallions is given in the annexed table, with the percentage each class bears to the total number of stallions licensed.

State.	Pure-	bred.	Gra	ade.		red and grel.	Total
Diale.	Number.	Per cent of total.	Number.	Per cent of total.	Number.	Per cent of total.	stallions.
California	712	53	272	21	352	26	1,336
Idaho	357	45	432	55			789
Illinois	5,503	63	3,185	37	2		8,690
Indiana	2,707	54	1,276	$2\tilde{6}$	981	20	4,964
Iowa	6,367	70	2,686	30			9,053
Kansas	3,224	56	1,360	24	1,151	20	5,735
Michigan	1,213	64	398	21	275	15	1,886
Minnesota	2,053	52	1,898	48			3,951
Montana	767	64	423	36			1,190
Nebraska	2,852	56	2,213	44			5,065
New Jersey	84	51	79	49	1		164
North Dakota	1,602	54	608	20	757	26	2,967
Oregon	670	56	284	24	234	20	1,188
Pennsylvania	1,037	47	1,153	53			2,190
South Dakota	1,217	62	300	15	461	23	1,978
Utah	219	78	63	22			282
Washington	584	52	534	48			1,118
Wisconsin	1,755	58	902	30	350	12	3,007
Total	32,923	59	18,066	33	4,564	8	55,553

Distribution of classes of stallions by States.

ELIMINATION OF THE INFERIOR STALLION.

As has been indicated, prior to the enactment of these laws, stallions with every kind of breeding and affected with various diseases and unsoundnesses were standing for public service. The result was the production of a class of horses for which there was no demand.

It is well known that stallions of impure breeding lack the prepotency of the pure-bred and fail to stamp their offspring with breed characteristics and often even individual merit.

While it happens frequently that the size of the service fee, instead of the quality of the stallion, is the governing factor in deciding to what stallion a mare shall be bred, a lack of consideration, or knowledge, in the matters of soundness, breeding, and registration has been the cause for much of the patronage secured by the inferior stallion. Again, through misrepresentation on the part of some stallion owners many farmers have been deceived as to the true condition and breeding of a stallion. It is an almost invariable principle that like begets like, and breeders should not countenance the use of, nor support, sires lacking in those essentials necessary for the production of high-class horses.

It is not to be expected, however, that the unsound, inferior stallion will be eliminated quickly from breeding operations in this country. While it is generally agreed that their use should be stopped, the process of elimination must necessarily be gradual. There is, however, sufficient evidence that the demand for sound, pure-bred, registered sires is becoming more active. Among reasons for this may be mentioned the enactment of stallion legislation, which has caused all public service stallions to stand under their true colors as to breeding and soundness; the opportunity these laws give the farmer and mare owner to know exactly what a stallion is before either purchasing or breeding his mares; the publication of bulletins by the State agricultural colleges and experiment stations dealing with the problems of breeding. selection of sires, etc., and the assistance given by the officials in charge of the enforcement of the stallion license laws. Some of these State boards conduct bureaus of information. through which breeders may learn where desirable stallions of the various breeds may be safely purchased.

THE EFFECT OF STALLION LEGISLATION.

Perhaps the first and most important result of these laws is that they have made it possible for every farmer and mare owner to know exactly what a stallion is before breeding his mares, because stallion owners are compelled to represent their animals for just what they are.

They afford protection against false pedigrees and altered or forged certificates of registration, and benefit the owners of sound, pure-bred sires because they discourage the use of unsound, grade, and mongrel stallions.

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The State authorities have found that hundreds of stallions that had been sold at high prices were either recorded in some unrecognized association or had been sold on altered certificates issued originally by reputable societies, the animals for which they had been issued having either died or been castrated, and thus there was created a practice of substitution that reached extensive proportions. These stallion laws now prevent a continuance of this practice when they are properly enforced.

The reports from the various State boards show that greater interest is being taken by farmers and mare owners in raising the standard of horses in their communities. A few instances will serve to show the beneficial effect resulting from this legislation.

In Idaho it has been found that many stallions brought into the State have been rejected and then shipped out to be sold elsewhere, that dealers are becoming more careful in their selection of stallions to be disposed of, and large numbers of breeders are buying pure-bred mares.

• The report of the Illinois Stallion Registration Board for 1915 states that since the previous report 70 licensed stallions have been castrated and 146 sold to other States.

In Indiana the first year the law was in force 180 cases were found where certificates had been issued by societies not recognized by the law. Fortunately, however, in a number of instances the animals were found eligible to registration in recognized societies and pure-bred licenses eventually granted.

In 1909, prior to the enactment of the law, in the State of Kansas, over 2,000 grade and scrub stallions were advertised as pure-bred, while in 1915 not one such animal was so advertised.

In North Dakota the number of pure-bred stallions licensed has increased almost 50 per cent during the last 5 years, regardless of the fact that in the same period 242 stallions of pure breeding were refused licenses on account of unsoundness.

During the year 1915 in the State of Pennsylvania licenses were issued to 2,190 stallions, of which only 53 were reported as unsound.

In Wisconsin it is stated that horses are gradually improving in breeding, soundness, and quality. In 1906 the percent-

age of grade and scrub stallions licensed represented 60 per cent and the pure-breds 40 per cent, while in 1915 the grades and scrubs represented 42 per cent and the pure-breds had increased to 58 per cent.

A comparison with the year 1907, however, shows that from that time until 1915 the grades and scrubs have decreased from 65 per cent to 42 per cent, while the pure-breds have increased from 35 per cent to 58 per cent. These latter figures are considered more accurate in showing the results of the law, for the reason that all owners did not enroll their horses the first year.

Per	cent	of	stallions	in	the	several	classes	at	dates	of	earliest	and
					l	atest reg	ports.					

State and date.	Per cent pure- bred.	Per cent grade.	Per cent cross- bred and mon- grel.	State and date.	Per cent pure- bred.	Per cent grade.	Per cent cross- bred and mon- grel.
California:				New Jersey:			
July 30, 1912	42	18	40	Nov. 1, 1909	47	53	
July 31, 1915	53	21	26	1915	51	49	
Idaho: Dec. 1, 1910 Nov. 15, 1915	40 45	60 55		North Dakota: Dec. 31, 1910	43	57	
Illinois:	40	00		1915	54	20	26
Oct. 1, 1910	55	45		Oregon:			
July 1, 1915	63	37		May 20, 1912	58	25	17
Indiana:				Nov. 1, 1915	56	24	20
1914	53	27	20	Pennsylvania:			
1915	54	26	20	1908	33	67	
Iowa:				Dec. 31, 1915	47	53	
Jan. 1, 1913	70	30			- 14		
1915	70	30		South Dakota:			
Kansas:				Sept. 1, 1910	52	16	3:
Oct. 1, 1910	41	59		July 1, 1915	62	15	23
1915	56	24	20	Utah:			
Minnesota:				June 30, 1909	73	27	
Apr. 1, 1908	39	61		1915	78	22	
Apr. 15, 1916	52	48		Washington:			
Montana:		ł		July 1, 1912	58	42	
Nov. 1, 1910	61	39		1914	52	48	
Dec. 31, 1915	64	36			02	40	
Nebraska:				Wisconsin:			
July 1, 1912				Nov. 1, 1906	40	60	
1914	56	44		July 1, 1915	58	30	1

The figures given in the table above show the percentage of increase or decrease in pure-breds and grades and mon-



FIG. I.—AN UNSOUND MONGREL STALLION. One patronized because of the cheap service fee. Now retired from service.



FIG. 2.-- A GRADE TROTTING-BREED STALLION UNFIT FOR BREEDING PURPOSES.

Courtesy of Wisconsin Experiment Station.

Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE LXIV.

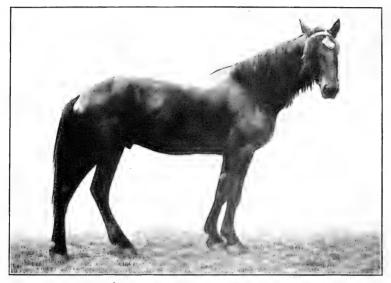


FIG. I.—ANOTHER' ILLUSTRATION OF AN UNSOUND GRADE STALLION. Lack of patronage finally caused him to be retired from service. Courtesy of Wisconsin Experiment Station.



FIG. 2. A GRADE PERCHERON STALLION THAT SERVED 80 MARES IN ONE SEASON.

His colts were raised at practically the same cost as pure-bred colts could have been reared. Courtesy of Wisconsin Experiment Station.

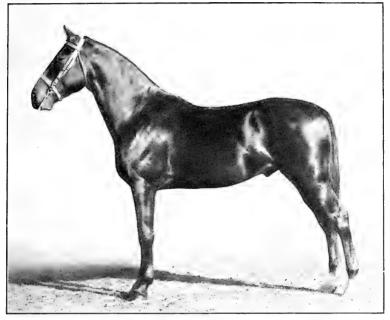


FIG. I.—GOOD TYPE OF TROTTING-BRED STALLION. A sound horse and a safe sire for farmers desiring to breed horses of general purpose type.

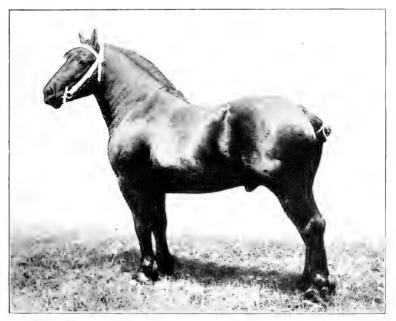
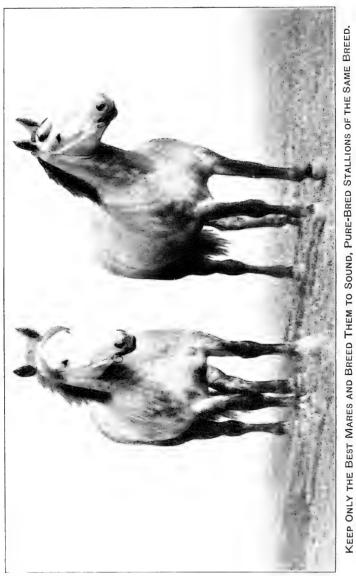


FIG. 2.-CHARACTER, SOUNDNESS, AND GOOD CONFORMATION.



Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE LXVI.

Stallion Legislation and the Horse-breeding Industry. 297

grels, the first report received from each State being compared with the last report received, with the exception of Iowa. The original law in this State became effective March 30, 1907, but as owners of grade stallions were not required to secure certificates of soundness until 1912 the figures for the latter year have been used for the purpose of comparison. In 1908 there were 4.491 pure-bred licenses issued. Therefore, the increase in the number of pure-breds in 1915 over 1908 is 42 per cent. In connection with this table it is explained that in some States the original laws did not provide for mongrel licenses. while the amended laws include this classification. It is proper, therefore, to assume that many stallions were licensed as grades under the original acts, although in reality nothing more than scrubs. Thus the percentage of grades and mongrels licensed in those States, as shown by the last reports, should be added together in order that a proper comparison may be made with the first reports, which did not call for mongrel licenses.

In Oregon, in 1915, while the figures show a slight decrease in the percentage of pure-breds and an increase in the percentage of grades and mongrels, the report shows 54 more pure-bred licenses issued than in 1914, and 22 less mongrels, there being a change of but one in the number of grades. This indicates that breeders are becoming better acquainted with the purpose of the law and that pure-bred stallions are taking their rightful place as the sires of Oregon's horses.

In Washington the number of pure-bred stallions licensed in 1914 increased 154, or 36 per cent, over the number in 1912, while the grades increased 227, or about 74 per cent. This seems to indicate that when the law became effective not all owners of grade stallions applied for licenses, and the further probability that leniency was shown in enforcing the law the first year.

However, the general increase in pure-breds and decrease in grades and mongrels is an indication that there is a gradual but continued improvement in the quality of stallions being used in these States. It indicates also that breeders are becoming more particular and better informed in the matters of soundness, breeding, and registration, and that owners of stallions who at first were, in some instances, inclined to oppose, are now aiding in the enforcement of the provisions of the laws.

It would be interesting to know just what is becoming of the unsound, grade, and mongrel stallions. It is indicated in the reports from the various States that as the patronage of these inferior sires decreases they are either castrated or shipped out, in most cases undoubtedly into States which have no law compelling them to stand under their true condition as to soundness and breeding, and where it is possible for them to continue their destructive influence upon the horse industry.

It is in these States that breeders should exercise the greatest caution before deciding to which stallion they will breed their mares. They should demand of the stallion owner that they be permitted to examine the certificate of registration and pedigree in order to learn whether the animal is properly registered in a reliable studbook, also whether the age, color, and description agree with the stallion whose service is being considered and whether the certificate has been altered or tampered with in any way. Tf the certificate has been changed or does not agree with the stallion, it is evident that something is wrong, and it will be much wiser to refuse the service of the stallion than to accept it, pay the fee, and run the risk of getting a nondescript foal, expensive to raise and for which there will be a poor market. It is imperative, therefore, that the breeders in these States should be protected. With no legislation governing the sale or public service of stallions, such States undoubtedly will receive unsound, grade, and nondescript horseflesh driven out of States that have properly and wisely safeguarded the interests of their horse breeders and farmers by enacting stallion legislation.

If a breeder is not familiar with pedigrees and registration societies, he should consult the State stallion registration board or his State agricultural college, giving all facts regarding the stallion whose service is being considered. In this way much information may be secured that will be of value in the future when the question of breeding comes up.

For the convenience and information of those interested, a list of the various State stallion registration boards or commissions follows, with the names and addresses of the

Stallion Legislation and the Horse-breeding Industry. 299

officials in charge, to whom all inquiries regarding the various State laws should be addressed:

- California, Charles W. Paine, secretary, Stallion Registration Board, Sacramento.
- Colorado, E. McCrillis, secretary, State Board of Stock Inspection Commissioners, Denver.
- Idaho, H. G. Bodle, State veterinarian, Live Stock Sanitary Board, Boise.
- Illinois, B. M. Davison, secretary, Stallion Registration Board, Springfield.
- Indiana, H. E. McCartney, secretary, Stallion Enrollment Board, La Fayette.
- Iowa, A. R. Corey, secretary, Stallion Registration Division, Department of Agriculture, Des Moines.
- Kansas, C. W. McCampbell, secretary, State Live Stock Registry Board, Manhattan.
- Michigan, Judson Black, secretary, State Veterinary Board, Richmond.
- Minnesota, J. S. Montgomery, assistant secretary, Stallion Registration Board, University Farm, St. Paul.
- Montana, C. N. Arnett, secretary, Stallion Registration Board, Bozeman.
- Nebraska, J. S. Anderson, secretary, Live Stock Sanitary Board, Lincoln.
- New Jersey, F. C. Minkler, secretary, Live Stock Commission, New Brunswick.
- New York, commissioner of agriculture, Albany.
- North Dakota, E. J. Thompson, secretary, Stallion Registration Board, Agricultural College.
- Oklahoma, W. L. Fowler, secretary, Oklahoma Live Stock Registry Board, Stillwater.
- Oregon, Carl N. Kennedy, secretary, Stallion Registration Board, Corvallis.
- Pennsylvania, Live Stock Sanitary Board, Harrisburg.
- South Dakota, A. E. Beaumont, secretary, Live Stock Sanitary Board, Pierre.
- Utah, W. E. Carroll, secretary, State Board of Horse Commissioners, Logan.
- Washington, H. T. Graves, acting commissioner of agriculture, Olympia.
- Wisconsin, A. S. Alexander, Department of Horse Breeding, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

A national association has been formed which is composed of representatives of the foregoing boards. The name of this organization is the National Association of Stallion Registration Boards, of which Prof. J. S. Montgomery is the secretary, with office at University Farm, St. Paul, Minn.



IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPING OUR NATURAL RESOURCES OF POTASH.

By FREDERICK W. BROWN,

Assistant in Charge Investigation of Fertilizer Resources, Bureau of Soils.

G ERMANY'S monopoly of the potash trade in time of peace and the abrupt cessation of all shipments with the beginning of hostilities in Europe emphasize the urgency of immediate development of American sources of one of the most valuable of chemical fertilizers. Within the last 70 years there has been a rapid development in the use of chemicals-nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium-for inducing increased crop yields. Before the war there were 100 companies mining potash in Germany. More than 90 per cent of their enormous product was used for agricultural purposes. German producers of potash are combined in a syndicate under supervision of the Government. The Government fixes the minimum price for which it may be sold and limits the quantity that may be exported. In recent years the United States has taken one-fifth of the entire output of the German mines and one-half of all allowed to be exported. In 1913 this country bought about 1,000,000 tons, nearly all of which was used for fertilizer purposes. In common with the rest of the world, the United States has been dependent upon Germany; to what extent is shown by the fact that in December, 1913, muriate of potash sold here for \$39 a ton and was quoted at \$500 in December, 1915, with only small lots available.

Before the development of the German mines in the early seventies of the last century potash was derived largely from seaweed and by leaching wood ashes, and the supply, necessarily limited, was principally consumed in the arts. With the development of the German supply, however, the use of potash as a fertilizer ingredient has increased steadily.

There is no question of the general value of commercial fertilizers in farm practice. The farmer who wisely and systematically applies commercial fertilizer to his fields will

raise larger and better crops than his neighbor who, with similar conditions of soil, climate, and rotations, and equal industry applied to cultivation, does not use fertilizers. This statement applies with the same force to the rich soils of the Mississippi Valley as to the soils of the eastern cotton States or of New England. Moreover, an analysis of the fertilizer investigations carried on by experiment stations in this country and abroad brings out the significant fact that, generally speaking, the use of a complete fertilizer—that is, one containing all three elements—gives larger returns than the use of one containing either one or two of the fertilizer ingredients.

An ample supply of potash has therefore in the last half century become an agricultural necessity. This is particularly true of certain large sections of this country where the soils are of such a character that profitable crops can be raised only when liberal applications of fertilizing ingredients are added, or where special crops are grown under a system of intensive agriculture. Throughout the cotton States, the tobacco-growing regions, the trucking sections of the Atlantic States, and in citrus-fruit and potato-growing regions the heavy application of commercial fertilizers, including potash, is now a recognized agricultural practice. With these conditions existing, it becomes evident that an adequate and reliable supply of potash has become necessary if American agriculture is to advance to meet the growing needs of increasing population.

Up to the stoppage of all shipments the German supply of potash has been adequate, but these mines are not inexhaustible, and a time will come when Germany will see the need of conserving her diminishing supply of this agricultural necessity for the use of her own farmers. When this time comes, either another source must have been found or American agriculture must suffer.

In recent years a number of possible sources of American potash have been brought to public attention. For convenience of treatment here they may be grouped into three classes—trade wastes, natural deposits, and kelp.

There are a number of industries in this country handling materials from which potash may be recovered as a byproduct. Until recently little effort has been made to effect such recovery, and large amounts of potash have been allowed to escape into the air or to run off with waste waters.

CEMENT MANUFACTURE.

One of the more important sources of potash from such trade wastes occurs in connection with the cement industry. Throughout the country exist deposits of feldspar and other silicates containing potash. This potash, however, is in an insoluble form, and the containing rock must undergo treatment before the potash is liberated in a form to be taken up by the soil water and used by plants.

It seems unlikely that any process will be developed which will make it commercially profitable to treat the rock for the potash alone and discard the residue. The Bureau of Soils pointed out, however, some years ago, that the potash-containing silicates might be used in the cement industry and the potash saved as a by-product. It has been demonstrated in recent years that this procedure is entirely practicable through the installation of electrical precipitators in the flues of cement mills. One company has had this installation in operation for several years, and several other large mills are installing apparatus for the same purpose. In this process the combined insoluble potash contained in the clay used in cement manufacture is released and rendered soluble under the high temperature of the cement kiln and passes off with the dust in the stack, where it is caught and thrown down by electric precipitators. A large percentage of the potash contained in the raw mix is recovered in this way; and while the initial installation of the precipitators is somewhat expensive, the cost of operation is very small. If, therefore, the raw mix going into the cement kilns contains a sufficient percentage of potash, the process, even under normal conditions in the potash market, will pay an excellent return on the investment.

It may be of interest to state that the process was perfected with the object of abating the nuisance caused by the escape of fumes and dust from a cement mill and the consequent injury to citrus groves at Riverside, Cal. Cement mills so situated that the fumes and dust from their stacks constitute a nuisance to surrounding property may find it advisable to install the apparatus, even though the returns from the potash collected would not of themselves justify the expenditure.

Since 85,914,907 barrels of cement were produced in this country in 1915, this appears at present a very promising source of a domestic supply of potash.

BLAST FURNACES.

Similarly there is the possibility of a large supply of potash as a by-product of blast-furnace operations. Blastfurnace gas contains varying percentages of potash. In ordinary practice this gas is cleaned by passing it through dust catchers and washers and is then available for use in the stoves for heating the air used in the blast and under steam boilers. Recent practice has found a further use for the gas in operating gas engines, but for this purpose it must be further cleaned by passing it through secondary washers.

At present a small proportion of the potash which escapes from blast furnaces is collected in the stoves and boilers, but the greater part is lost in the wash waters or escapes from the flues. Moreover, the presence of potash fumes remaining in the gas as it comes from the primary washers is probably responsible for the condition so troublesome to furnace operators known as "smoky gas."

An experiment recently conducted by one of the largest steel mills of the country has shown that this necessary operation of cleaning the gas can be accomplished more satisfactorily and probably more economically by means of electrical precipitation than by the methods now used. In addition to furnishing a more effective cleaning of the gas, such an installation would recover practically all the potash.

This appears to be an important potential source of potash, as the aggregate amount now volatilized and lost in the blast furnaces of the country is very large. Efforts are now being made by the Bureau of Soils to determine this amount with some degree of accuracy.

WOOL WASTES.

Among the impurities contained in wool as it comes from the sheep, which must be removed before the wool can be used by the spinner, is a material called "suint." This really Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE LXVII.

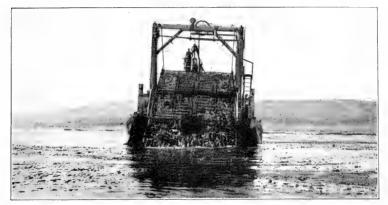


FIG. 1. - FRONT VIEW OF HARVESTER CUTTING KELP, SHOWING CONVEYER.

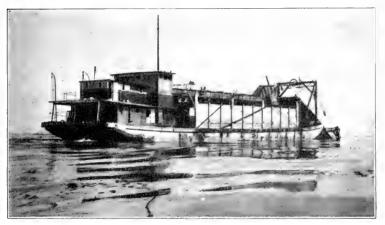


FIG. 2. -KELP HARVESTER, SHOWING GENERAL CONSTRUCTION.



FIG. 3.-BARGE OF HARVESTED KELP.

is the dried sweat of the sheep. It is soluble in water, and consists principally of potash salts. In addition to suint, crude wool also contains grease, and any process for recovering potash from wool must include the recovery of the grease also to be commercially profitable. Wool grease is used for dressing leather and for lubricating purposes, and is also the source of the very valuable lanolin compounds used in pharmaceutical preparations.

Probably the best method of wool scouring is called the "solvent process," and recovers the grease and suint separately. The wool is treated with a volatile solvent (gasoline, naphtha, or carbon disulphide) which removes the grease, and is then washed in warm water to extract the suint. The solution of wool grease then is distilled, in which operation the solvent passes off and is recovered for further use, and the grease is left as a residue. The solution of suint is evaporated and calcined for its potash.

In 1914 about 290,000,000 pounds of raw wool were produced in this country, and about 220,000,000 pounds were imported.

The potash content will average about $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the weight of the crude wool, so that approximately 11,500 tons of potash might have been recovered from the wool scoured in the United States in that year. The Bureau of Soils is investigating the problem of extracting potash from wool in the hope of demonstrating its commercial feasibility.

WOOD WASTES.

The wood-using industries of the country produce a large amount of sawdust annually, and much of this is used as fuel in the furnaces of the plants. It is probable that much of the wood ashes so produced is now used for fertilizer purposes and to this extent serves as a source of potash. So much as is not so used should be, or should be leached for the recovery of potash salts. Wood ashes vary widely in their potash content, this variation being dependent on the species and on the part of the tree from which the wood is taken. It is impracticable, therefore, to estimate the amount of potash which might be derived from this source, but that it would come to several thousand tons is certain.

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Many farmers use wood for fuel, and anyone so situated has at hand a source of potash which should be carefully saved. While the amount so secured by an individual necessarily will be small, in the aggregate a considerable saving would result. If home mixing of fertilizers is practiced, wood ashes should not be mixed with other ingredients, but should be applied to the soil separately, as the lime in the ashes has a tendency to liberate the nitrogen in certain other fertilizer constituents if mixed with them.

NATURAL DEPOSITS.

So far the extensive investigations of the Bureau of Soils and the Geological Survey have not disclosed any deposit of potash salts in this country comparable in extent or commercial importance with the German deposits. Such sources of potash salts as have come to light are confined to the desert basins of the West and are very small in extent. While some of these may become of local importance, the total potash which can reasonably be expected from them is too small to affect the situation beyond a limited area contiguous to the mines. It is, however, always possible that borings put down for water, oil, gas, or for any purpose may disclose the existence of such salts. This is true particularly in regions where rock-salt deposits are known to exist. Tt. is highly desirable, therefore, that persons engaged in boring operations have this possibility always in mind and carefully examine all material brought up by the drill. The Bureau of Soils of the Department of Agriculture will analyze, free of charge, any samples of this kind which may he submitted.

NEBRASKA CARBONATE LAKES.

In western Nebraska there are a number of small lakes or ponds whose waters contain considerable quantities of potassium carbonate. These lakes are now being worked, and carbonate of potash containing about 28 per cent K_2O is being marketed. The public statement was recently made by the American representative of the German syndicate that these Nebraska lakes were furnishing about half the potash now being produced in the country.

In working these lakes, brine is pumped to the mill, where it is evaporated down to wet salts in vacuum pans. These wet salts are then passed through rotary driers, and are ready for shipment.

While the size of these lakes precludes the possibility of their ever furnishing a large supply of potash, it is to be hoped that the operators will succeed in perfecting their processes so as to be able to continue production upon a return to normal conditions.

ALUNITE.

In the south-central part of Utah, near Marysvale, there is a large deposit of the mineral alunite, an aluminum-potassium sulphate, from which potassium sulphate and alumina may be extracted after roasting at moderate temperatures. The technical difficulties of extraction are not serious, and in time alunite should become a valuable source of potash for the country. That the mines can be worked commercially for the potash alone is doubtful, however. The deposits occur in mountainous country, necessitating the construction of expensive tramways to bring the ore to the mill, and, once extracted, the potash salts must be carried east by rail, entailing heavy freight costs. Therefore a market must be found for the alumina as well as the potash.

Under the abnormal conditions brought about by the European war two companies have entered this field, and sulphate of potash from alunite actually has been shipped. It is doubtful if these companies could continue operating on their present systems under normal conditions and with potash selling at the figures quoted before the war. That many millions of tons of potash may be derived from this source, however, when the problems now confronting the operators have been solved, seems reasonably certain.

SEARLES LAKE.

A brine deposit in the Desert Basin area probably will prove of some importance as a commercial source of potash. This is the so-called Searles Lake, in California, a body of mud and crystalline salt, some 12 square miles in area and of undetermined depth. Beneath the surface are saline muds and sands saturated with brine which contains 7 per cent of potash. Recently it was announced that the persons claiming title to the property would proceed at once to ex-

ploit it commercially. So far, however, potash from this source has not been produced in any quantity. That Searles Lake brine ultimately will prove a valuable source of soluble potash seems highly probable. It has been estimated that it will furnish at least 4,000,000 tons of potassium chloride, and probably considerably more.

GREAT SALT LAKE.

The waters of Great Salt Lake and other natural brine bodies contain potash in small proportions. No method has been devised by which the potash may be recovered at a price which will permit competition with German salts. It is possible that such a method may be discovered, however, in which event a source of potash will be opened large enough to supply this country's needs for many years.

KELP.

Along the Pacific coast of North America, from Magdalena Bay, in Lower California, to the Shumagin Islands of the Alaskan Peninsula, are found beds of giant kelp of several species. These huge sea plants, sometimes growing to a length of 100 feet, contain a surprising amount of potash salts. Dried kelp of the most important species will run from 25 to 30 per cent of potassium chloride. At present these Pacific kelps appear to be one of the most hopeful sources of an adequate supply of potash for the country's needs. The realization of this hope is, however, like most new enterprises, beset with difficulties.

The beds are located close inshore, almost all of them being, in fact, within the 3-mile limit. The kelp is harvested by cutting the upright stem from 3 to 6 feet below the surface, which secures not only that portion but also the much larger portion which floats on the surface of the water. The wet kelp contains from 85 to 93 per cent of water. This must be removed. The plants are nonfibrous and of a gummy, gelatinous nature, making it difficult, if not impossible, to extract the water by pressure.

Several methods have been suggested for treating these kelps on a commercial scale with a view to their utilization for fertilizer purposes. The simplest is to dry and grind the material and market this ground product for direct application to the soil or for mixing in commercial fertilizers. The drying can be accomplished in rotary driers such as are used for treating garbage and fish refuse, and the dried, ground kelp contains 25 per cent potassium chloride, 2 per cent nitrogen, and organic matter of value for improving the physical condition of many soils by the formation of humus. In addition, it possesses excellent mechanical properties for fertilizer-mixing purposes.

If the kelp grew on the eastern seaboard, close to the regions of large fertilizer demand, this method of treatment probably would be the most economical and satisfactory. Unfortunately, however, the kelp occurs on one side of the country and fertilizers are most extensively used on the other; and while the dried, ground kelp will have the benefit of water rates of transportation via the Panama Canal, about three-fourths of the material so transported consists of practically valueless matter, and the freight charges probably would prove too heavy an item to permit this method of utilization in the face of competition with German importations. Investigations are now being made in the hope of transplanting the Pacific kelps to the Atlantic coast. Tf this should be accomplished and the plants established in extensive beds, dried, ground kelp undoubtedly would become an important factor in the fertilizer situation.

Another process which is now being used is to burn the dried kelp and market the ash for its potash content. By this process the valuable nitrogen content is volatilized and lost, and a small part of the potash content is similarly destroyed. The heat produced in the combustion is also wasted. In addition, freight charges must be paid on worthless ash, and it is admitted by the companies now using the process that unless further economies are introduced the costs are too great for successful operation under normal conditions.

The process which seems most likely to succeed in commercial practice is to distill the dried kelp in retorts constructed on the general principle of the by-product coke oven. This results in a charred residue, containing all the potash salts, which may then be recovered by leaching and evaporation. In the process of distillation the nitrogen in the kelp is driven off and recovered in the form of ammonia; combustible gas is evolved in considerable quantities and is available for use as fuel in the retorts and under the evaporating vats, and charcoal and tarry products are recovered, which may be sold or used as fuel. Iodine and some other by-products also may be recovered.

It is probable that some such method of extraction which will conserve and use the heat units evolved in the reaction and save the by-products will prove necessary in the end to make the recovery of potash from kelp a profitable industry under normal conditions.

Since the beginning of the war and the stoppage of German potash shipments several large and responsible companies have erected plants on the southern California coast for the treatment of kelp. These companies are producing either dried, ground kelp, which at present prices for potash can be shipped East at a profit despite the long freight haul, or kelp ash, which results from burning the dried kelp. One of the companies is using a fermentation process and producing acetone for munition purposes, as well as highgrade potash salts.

However, with the development and demonstration of an economical method of extraction, an American potash industry should grow up on the Pacific coast which will furnish from these giant kelps a supply of high-grade potash salts adequate for all our needs. The Bureau of Soils is at present erecting an experimental plant at Summerland, Cal., to determine the best methods of extraction. Since most of the beds lie within the 3-mile limit. State legislation by the States of California, Oregon, and Washington, and Federal legislation as regards Alaska, is needed to provide protection against reckless and indiscriminate cutting and to furnish leasing regulations under which the private investor who desires to erect a plant for treating kelp may be assured of a supply of raw material free from encroachment by competitors. Efforts are now being made to secure action of this kind by the legislatures of the States interested and by the Federal Congress.

It will be seen from the foregoing that there are in this country a number of important sources of potash salts, and that, owing to the conditions brought on by the European war, these sources are in a way to be developed on a scale which offers hope that the American farmer and manufacturer may, in the not distant future, be made independent of foreign monopoly for supplies of potash.

COOPERATIVE BULL ASSOCIATIONS.

By Joel G. WINKJER, Dairy Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

WHAT THE COOPERATIVE BULL ASSOCIATION IS.

COOPERATIVE bull associations are formed by farmers for the joint ownership, use, and exchange of highclass, pure-bred bulls. In addition they may encourage careful selections of cows and calves, introduce better methods of feeding, help their members market dairy stock and dairy products, intelligently fight contagious diseases of cattle, and in other ways assist in lifting the dairy business to a higher level. Incidentally, the educational value of such an organization is great.

CONSERVATIVE BUT STEADY GROWTH.

Cooperative bull associations have existed in Denmark since 1874, and in 1906 the number there had grown to 1,095, with a total membership of 26,200, owning 1,369 dairy bulls. In the United States the first cooperative bull association of which record exists was organized in 1908 by the Michigan Agricultural College. On July 1, 1916, there were 32 active bull associations in this country, with a total membership of 650, owning about 120 pure-bred bulls. The following tabulation shows the gradual but constant growth of bull associations in the United States up to the present.

State.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	19151	1916
Michigan	1	4	7	6	10	15	15	14	14
Minnesota		1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3
North Dakota					1	2	1	1	1
Maryland					1	1	1	1	1
Vermont							1	1	1
Wisconsin							1	1	1
Connecticut.								1	1
Maine								1	1
Oregon									1
Oklahoma									1
Iowa									1
South Carolina									3
Massachusetts									1
North Carolina									1
Illinois				• • • • • •		• • • • • • •			1
Total	1	5	8	7	13	20	21	22	32

Statement showing growth of cooperative bull associations in the United States to July 1, 1916.

¹ In the 22 associations there were 540 members owning 3,600 cows and 90 bulls. 311

The history of the cooperative bull association shows that it is especially adapted to small herds where a valuable bull for each herd would constitute too large a percentage of the total investment. Thus the organization enables even the owners of small herds to unite in the purchase of one good bull and each to own a share in a registered sire of high quality. Though still in its infancy, the cooperative bull association movement promises eventually to become a very great factor in the improvement of our dairy cattle.

BETTER AND FEWER BULLS.

The typical cooperative bull association, as organized in this country, is composed of 15 to 30 farmers, and jointly owns 5 bulls, divides its territory into 5 "breeding blocks," and assigns 1 bull to each block. As many as 50 or 60 cows may belong to the farmers in each block, and the bull in the block should be kept on a farm conveniently situated. The blocks are numbered from 1 to 5, and to prevent inbreeding each bull is moved to the next block every 2 years. If all the bulls live, and if all are kept until each has made one complete circuit, no new bulls need be purchased for 10 years. In this way, by paying only a small part of the purchase price of one bull, each member of the association has the use of good pure-bred bulls for many years. Ordinarily the purchase price and the expense of supporting the bulls are distributed among the members of the association according to the number of cows owned by each.

A concrete example of a successful association is the Cooperative Holstein Bull Association at Roland, Iowa (fig. 17), which is composed of 16 farmers and is organized into 5 blocks. The farms are so situated that the bulls are at no great distance from the farm of any member. Before the association was formed each farmer had an average investment of \$92 in a scrub bull. These bulls were disposed of when the association was formed and 5 pure-bred bulls were bought at \$240 each, or an average of \$75 for each member. A larger membership would reduce expenses still further. As in other associations, the Roland farmers united in the use of one breed and selected good bulls of that breed.

An advanced step which has not yet been taken by any association is the purchase of an exceptionally good bull to mate with the best cows in the herds of every block. Such a plan for improvement of the better cows of the herd is applicable to pure-bred herds as well as grade herds. For the pure-bred herd the cooperative bull association undoubtedly will do as much as for the grade herd, because it

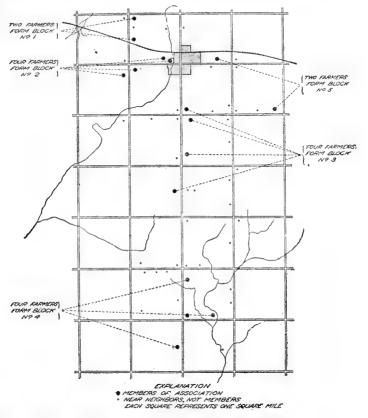


FIG. 17.—Map showing location of members of the Roland Cooperative Bull Association.

enables the breeders of any class of stock to buy better bulls than they otherwise could afford. In case the association is large and composed of well-to-do breeders of pure-bred cattle, bulls of the highest class for use with all the cows are within its reach financially.

LOW COST.

That the need of the introduction of pure-bred bulls is urgent in many parts of the country is apparent from the

facts brought out by a study made by the Department of Agriculture of 8 districts in the States of Iowa, Minnesota, and Massachusetts, in which there were no associations. In this survey information was obtained regarding 1,219 farmers, owning 817 bulls, whose average value was \$76. Had the owners of those cheap bulls been properly organized, the same investment would have purchased the necessary bulls of an average value of \$283. On those farms nearly four times as many bulls were used as would have been required under proper organization. The farmers were therefore feeding four bulls when they should have been feeding only one.

Data from one of the first associations organized under the direction of the Department of Agriculture illustrate this very well. Before the association was formed the bulls in use had an average market value of \$85. The average price paid by the association for registered bulls was \$240. Price does not always correspond to value, yet, as the bulls were carefully selected, the price in this case is doubtless a fair index of true worth. In this association each farmer's investment for a share in a good registered bull was \$10 less than his former investment in an animal of inferior breeding and doubtful merit.

Actual first-cost figures from other cooperative bull associations are even more encouraging. In fact, the figures given show the highest association cost reported. In one association having more than 100 members the original cost to each member was only \$23. The members already have had the use of good pure-bred bulls for 4 years and probably will have their use 6 years longer without other additional cost than maintenance. At an average investment of less than \$25 a member, another association with more than 50 members has had the use of good pure-bred bulls for more than 7 years, with prospects of being able to use them for 3 or 4 years more.

QUICK RETURNS ON INVESTMENT.

One hundred and fifty farmers in Maryland, Michigan, and Minnesota, when questioned regarding the value of cooperative bull associations, estimated that the use of sires belonging to the organization increased the value of the offspring in the first generation from 30 to 80 per cent, with an average of 65 per cent. Usually in business transactions in which there is a probability of great gain there is a possibility of heavy loss, but in the bull associations the chances of profit are good, with little probability of loss. It is true that some associations have disbanded, but no case in which any member has actually lost on his investment has been reported, even when the association continued in existence for only a short time. The investment is so small and the chance for herd improvement so great that the net returns greatly exceed the small original investment.

LINE BREEDING.

The association that is composed of five or six breeding blocks should keep and use all its good bulls as long as they are fit for service. Advancing the bull to the next block at the end of two years does not eliminate him, but makes it possible to avoid inbreeding. Line breeding, on the other hand, is a common and a very good practice, and the bull association offers exceptional opportunities for conducting that kind of breeding. In an association composed of breeders of pure-bred dairy cattle, carefully selected bulls produced in one block may be used in other blocks and the organization may thus continue indefinitely without purchasing bulls from outside sources, if such a plan seems most advisable. The same practice may be followed when a number of first-class registered cows are owned by members of any association. The cooperative bull association therefore offers an excellent opportunity for intelligent, long-continued line breeding. Skillful mating, when combined with careful selection of the best animals, makes very great improvement possible.

ELIMINATION OF THE SCRUB.

The value of the use of pure-bred sires and the need for elimination of the scrubs is shown in the accompanying illustrations. The cattle shown in Plate LXIX, figure 1, were owned by a farmer at the time he joined the association. He has better cattle now. Plate LXVIII shows pictures of scrub bulls. Every farmer will recognize the type, and certainly no farmer cares to breed his cows to such scrubs. A

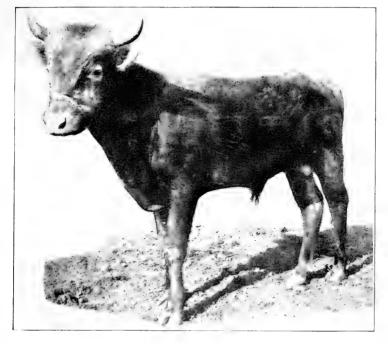
bull similar to the one shown in Plate LXIX, figure 1, was sold for \$8 when a year old. The hide alone of a good yearling bull should easily bring half as much. The bull association eliminates the scrub bull and economically substitutes such bulls as the one shown in Plate LXX, figure 2.

COMMUNITY BREEDING ENCOURAGED.

Ten years ago a farmer in northern Wisconsin began to breed Guernsevs in a Holstein district. Now he has a fine herd, and wonders why buyers never come his way. He is discovering that when buyers want Guernsevs they naturally go to a Guernsev district. As a rule the breeders of purebred cattle already have learned this lesson. The principle is as true of grades as of registered stock, but many owners of grade cattle seem to have overlooked it. All dairy breeds are sometimes found in the same neighborhood, and even on the same farm several dairy breeds and all possible combinations of them are seen. Perhaps one year a Holstein bull is used, the next year a Jersey, and occasionally a bull of no particular breeding. In a grade herd recently studied there were Holsteins, Guernsevs, Jersevs, and Shorthorns, and every possible cross and mixture of those breeds. The owner admits his cattle do not sell to advantage, and the reason is not hard to find. The bull association encourages the keeping of only one breed on the farms of its members, and the establishment of that breed in the community.

THE POWER OF HEREDITY.

In all bull-association work the power of heredity is recognized. This power is illustrated by the pictures of a highclass Guernsey bull, his dam, and his daughter. Since like tends to beget like in production as well as in appearance, there is little danger that the pure-bred bull whose ancestors for several generations were first-class individuals will inherit or transmit the qualities of some inferior remote ancestor. If he is well-formed, strong, and healthy he will almost certainly increase, in one generation, the income of the scrub or low-grade herd out of all proportion to his cost. In fact, the time may come when it will be possible to eliminate all bulls except those whose dams are in the advanced





TYPES OF SCRUB BULLS THAT FORTUNATELY ARE BECOMING LESS COMMON.

Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE LXIX.



FIG. 1.—CATTLE OWNED BY A FARMER BEFORE JOINING A COOPERATIVE BULL ASSOCIATION.



FIG. 2.- AN ASSOCIATION BULL.

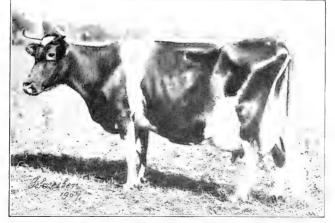


FIG. 1.—DAM OF BULL SHOWN IN FIGURE 2. Year's record: 14,633 pounds of milk; 714 pounds of butterfat.

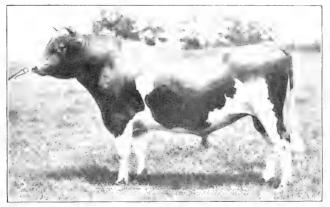


FIG. 2.- A WELL-BRED BULL.

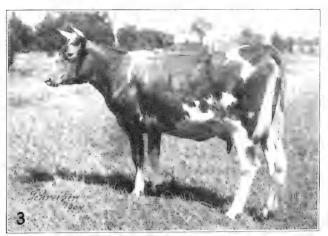


FIG. 3.—DAUGHTER OF BULL SHOWN IN FIGURE 2. Year's record: 18,458 pounds of milk; 906 pounds of butterfat.

A WELL-BRED BULL, HIS DAM, AND HIS DAUGHTER.

registry. If the best bulls in the world were used to their full capacity in pure-bred herds, and if only good pure-bred bulls were used in the ordinary dairy herds, the income from the dairy business could be vastly increased.

IMPROVEMENT DUE TO SIRE.

Few organizations have been in operation long enough for the producing daughters of an association bull to be compared with their dams. The following figures received from an association at New Windsor, Md., show the improvement due to the sire:

Average butterfat production of daughters of association bulls compared with that of their dams.

Bull No. 1 (7 producing daughters):	Pounds.
Dams	208.3
Daughters	270.5
Each daughter excelled her dam.	
Bull No. 2 (7 producing daughters):	
Dams	226.4
Daughters	281.6
Five of the daughters excelled their dams.	
Bull No. 3 (2 producing daughters) :	
Dams	254.0
Daughters	369.5
Each daughter excelled her dam.	

At the price of 30 cents a pound for butterfat the 7 daughters of bull No. 1 will earn in 4 years' time \$500 more than their dams. It is only when the lifetime-production records of all his daughters are computed and compared with those of their dams that the full value of the bull's services to one generation can be known. In addition to this, his influence on the herd will be noticeable for many generations. This illustrates the great value of a good bull. The damage done by an inferior bull may be equally great. No other argument should be necessary in urging that every association be particularly careful in selecting bulls.

Pure-bred bulls are not all equally valuable. The daughters of some are much inferior to their dams, while the daughters of others greatly excel their dams. The bull should always be superior to the best cows in the herd. Cows should be well bred and carefully selected, but asso-

ciation bulls should be even better bred than the cows and still more carefully selected. All bulls used should be from advanced-registry dams having a butterfat record of not less than 400 pounds and from high-producing ancestors.

NOT MONEY ALONE.

The educational value of a cooperative bull association doubtless exceeds the net cash returns, for, as a rule, all members of the association become greatly interested in the improvement of their dairy herds. They study live-stock pedigrees, individual conformation, and production records. They hold meetings at which dairy problems of all kinds are discussed. Even boys take an added interest in the farm. and especially in the dairy herd. At Esmond, N. Dak., the association held a cattle show in July, 1916. Cows. bulls. and young stock were exhibited. The show was held in connection with a three-day chautauqua, and it was estimated that 5,000 people visited the show and the chautauqua. Great interest centered about the boys' stockjudging contest, which was one of the features of the occa-The educational value of such work can hardly be sion. overestimated.

At Washington, Mich., the work of the bull association led to an annual five days' agricultural school in winter and an annual summer picnic. At the picnics small cash prizes are given for the best heifers exhibited. This association consists of 22 members who invested \$25 each, for which they have already had the use of good pure-bred bulls for 6 years.

NO SERIOUS WEAKNESS.

There appears to be no fundamental weakness in cooperative bull associations. Instead of spreading abortion, tuberculosis, or other communicable disease, the results so far seem to indicate the reverse. For example, the Roland, Iowa, association will not allow any one of its members to get the benefits of the association until his herd has been tested for tuberculosis and all reactors eliminated. One farmer who did not dispose of the reactors after the tuberculin test was applied was refused the use of bulls until he complied with the rules of the association. The educational work of each association makes the members alert to prevent the introduction and spread of disease of any kind. The wellmanaged bull association requires that the cattle of each member shall be tested for tuberculosis and takes every known precaution to prevent the introduction of infectious abortion.

HOW TO ORGANIZE.

When a number of neighboring farmers, interested in the same breed, desire to organize a cooperative bull association. they should have a meeting, elect a temporary chairman and secretary, enter into a free and general discussion of the entire subject. and then decide upon the advisability of forming a permanent organization. A high point of efficiency is reached when there are five breeding blocks and approximately 60 cows in each block. Some successful organizations, however, have a smaller number of blocks and as few as 35 cows to the block. The greatest care should be taken in selecting bulls, as inferior bulls will completely defeat the purpose of the organization. Some farmer, centrally located, should be selected to take care of the bull, and each farmer should pay his share of the purchase price. In addition, each farmer pays his share of all other expenses, including the support of the bull; his share of these expenses should not exceed \$10 to \$15 annually.

It is greatly to the advantage of a cooperative association that it be incorporated. This facilitates the transaction of business, equitably distributes responsibility, and gives the organization greater prestige in the community. In order to avoid mistakes in organization and operation, including selection of bulls, the association should early communicate with the local county agricultural agent, the State agricultural college, or the Dairy Division of the United States Department of Agriculture.

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FARM TENANTRY IN THE UNITED STATES.

By W. J. SPILLMAN and E. A. GOLDENWEISER Office of Farm Management.

THE problems relating to tenant farming have received comparatively little attention in this country until very recent years, because of the fact that desirable public lands were still available and the man who wanted to farm could acquire ownership for a nominal sum. Under such conditions no very large proportion of farmers were willing to become tenants. Even where tenant farming had become established the terms were generally very favorable to the tenant. In many regions where now the prevailing custom is for the tenant to give half the crop, the usual custom a generation ago was to give a third. But with the virtual exhaustion of the public domain, so far as highly desirable farm land is concerned, tenant farming began to increase and discussions of the problems connected with this type of farm operation appeared in the agricultural press in ever-increasing That a certain percentage of tenant farms should volume. exist where public lands can no longer be had practically for the taking is natural and inevitable.

Tenantry is one of the normal steps by which young men with limited capital become farm owners. In general, every farm will change ownership at least once each generation, and a very great number do so several times during the average business life of the ordinary man. The percentage of changes in farm ownership that occur through inheritance is surprisingly small, as will be shown presently. An additional small percentage of farms are purchased with capital derived from other industries. The remaining farms must in some way be more or less completely recapitalized once each generation; that is, must be made to pay for themselves, either wholly or in part.

As a rough indication of the proportion of American farms which must thus be recapitalized once in a lifetime, or, in other words, must be made to pay for themselves either partly or wholly, the following data may be cited.

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Studies made by Mr. H. H. Clark, of the Office of Farm Management, in three townships in Sedgwick County. Kans., show that 5.9 per cent of the present owners acquired their farms through inheritance: 13.7 per cent are farming land obtained under the homestead act: the remaining 80.4 per cent bought the farms they now own, three-fourths of them on deferred payments averaging 44 per cent of the total purchase price, the other fourth paving cash in full. In most of these latter cases the purchase money was obtained from the sale of other farms. A few cases represent capital taken from other industries. The conditions under which approximately 60 per cent of these farms were purchased require that, in order that full ownership may be acquired during the life of the present occupant, each of the farms must provide not only a living for the family upon it and interest on indebtedness, but an additional income that will enable the average purchaser during his occupancy to put aside 44 per cent of the purchase price.

Similar studies in five townships in a rich agricultural county in Illinois gave the following results: 15.5 per cent of the present farm owners obtained their farms by inheritance; 69 per cent of them bought on deferred payments, the average mortgage given at the time of purchase representing 63 per cent of the purchase price; the remaining 15.5 per cent paid cash in full at the time of purchase. In this case 69 per cent of the farms, in order that their present owners may during their occupancy obtain full title free from debt, must produce a living for the farm family, interest on the mortgage, and permit a saving of 63 per cent of the total purchase price.

HOW RECAPITALIZATION IS EFFECTED.

In the studies above referred to the complete history of each farm owner was obtained so far as possible. In the great majority of cases these men began either as hired men or worked on the home farm for several years after arriving at maturity. In this way they obtained sufficient capital to become tenants.¹ After a few years as tenants they were

¹ In the case of young men who stay on the home farm, the usual course is for the father, when the son marries, to establish him in business as a tenant. It is understood that in this discussion the stage of "hired man" includes young men who stay on the home farm some years after reaching maturity.

able to save enough to make a first payment on a farm, giving a mortgage for the balance. In the majority of cases these mortgages are slowly canceled, leaving the farmer, at an advanced period of his life, a full owner.

Where this process of acquiring ownership proceeds in a normal manner, it is evident that a considerable proportion of the farmers operating at any particular time must be tenants; and the presence of tenant farming under such conditions represents a normal, healthful condition of agriculture. Not only that, but there will be a considerable proportion of mortgaged farms; and in so far as existing mortgages represent progress from tenantry to ownership, they indicate a healthful condition of agricultural affairs.

Figure 18 shows the percentage of mortgaged farms, with the average amount of the mortgage per farm, for each State in the Union. With some notable exceptions, the higher percentages of mortgaged farms are found in those sections of the country where agriculture is in a flourishing condition and where the gradual process of acquiring ownership is making normal progress. The scope of this article does not permit consideration of the exceptional cases to which reference has just been made.

TENANT FARMING A STEP TOWARD OWNERSHIP.

That in a general way tenant farming represents a step toward ownership is shown clearly in figure 19. This figure, based upon census statistics, shows that 76 per cent of farmers under 25 years of age are tenants. In the next age group, representing farmers from 25 to 34 years of age, the percentage of tenantry falls to 55. In the succeeding groups the percentage falls with each 10-year advance in age to 37, 27, 21, and 15. It may be assumed that these older men represent, in the main, those who have been unable to lay by enough to acquire ownership. But these figures indicate that by far the greater proportion of the young men who start out as tenants succeed in becoming owners. Figure 19 shows that aside from some of the Western States, where settlement is still in progress, and some of the Southern States, where the situation is complicated by the census classification of "croppers" as tenants, similar conditions prevail in all sections of the country.

Figure 20 shows that for the last two census periods there has been, in general, a decrease in the percentage of tenantry among farmers of advanced years. In the North, in the last

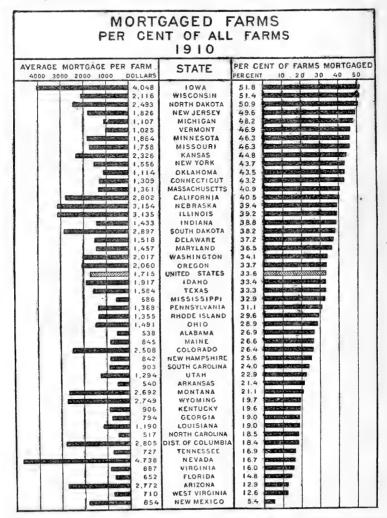


FIG. 18.—Average mortgage perfarm and percentage of farms mortgaged, by States. (Census of 1910.)

census period, there has been a decrease in percentage of tenantry for every age group except the first, the increase for the entire period being due to the number of young men under 25 years of age who have passed from the status of farm laborer to that of tenant. It is to be presumed that a large proportion of these will ultimately become owners. In

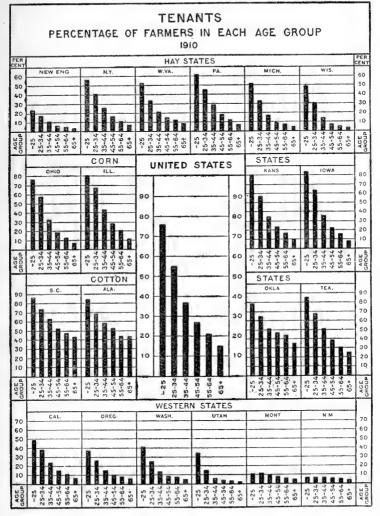


FIG. 19.—Percentage of tenants among farmers, by age groups, in the United States and in selected States. (Census of 1910.)

the South there has been a decrease of tenantry for the age groups over 45 years. In the case of men younger than this there has been an increase. In the West there was a marked decrease in the percentage of tenantry in every age group

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during the last census period. Taking the country as a whole, the only notable increase in tenantry for any age group was for the men under 25 years.

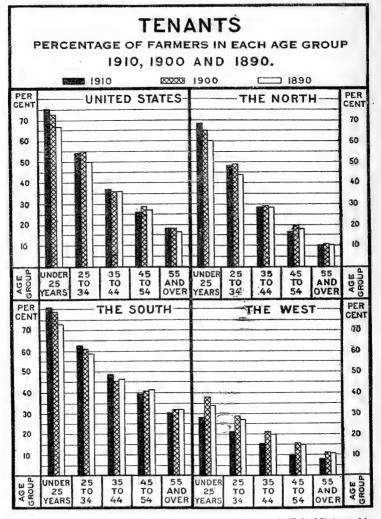


FIG. 20.—Percentage of tenants among farmers, by age groups, in the United States and in the three grand divisions for the last three census periods.

It seems to be fairly clear, therefore, that recent increase in tenant farming in this country in the main represents a healthful condition. Young men who formerly homesteaded land must now pursue a different course in acquiring a footing on the land. Increasing numbers of them are becoming tenants.

Figure 21 shows that during the period from 1890 to 1900 there was a more marked increase in the percentage of

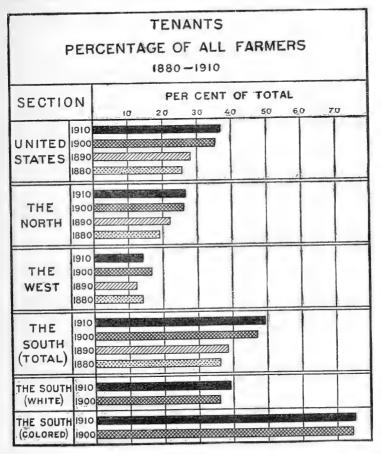


FIG. 21.—Percentage of tenant farmers in the United States and in the three grand divisions for the last four census periods, and of white and colored farmers in the South for the last two census periods.

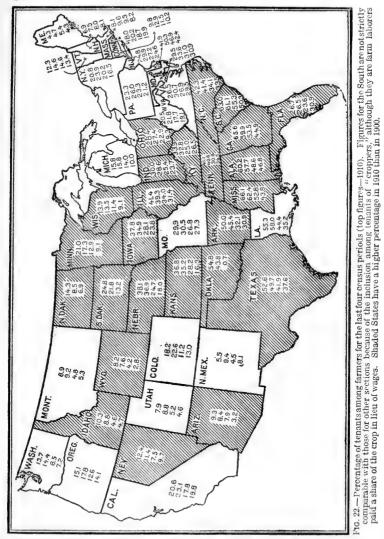
tenantry than during any other recent census period, and this applies to all sections of the country. This was the period when the exhaustion of the public domain began to make itself felt and when a large number of men began to pursue the more normal course, outlined above, in be-

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coming farm owners. This diagram also shows that during the last census period the only marked increase in the percentage of tenant farms in any of the grand divisions of the country was among the white farmers of the South, though, as will be seen later, there are localities in each of these grand divisions that present exceptions to this statement. Whether there was a similar increase in real tenant farming among the colored farmers can not be determined from census data for the reason that many of the colored farm laborers of the South receive part of the crop in lieu of wages. Such laborers are known locally as "croppers." They furnish no working capital, but are classed as tenants in the census data. A change from cropper to share tenant is similar to a change from hired laborer to tenant in other parts of the country. There is reason to believe that there was such an advance in the South from the stage of cropper to that of share tenant, this representing a real advance in the condition of these laborers-a step toward ownership.

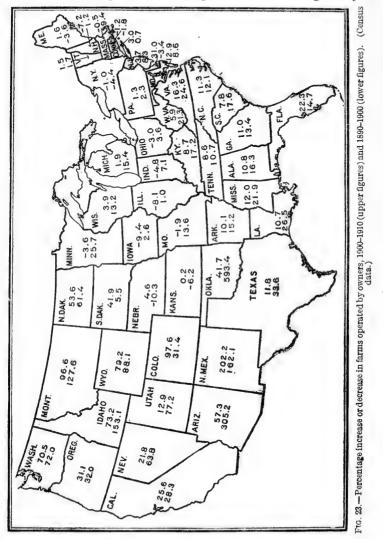
The division of the country into grand divisions, as just intimated, does not fully represent the actual state of affairs in the various agricultural regions. This is better represented in figure 22, where the percentage of tenant farms for each of the last four censuses is given by States. On the map in figure 22, States having a larger percentage of tenantry in 1910 than in 1900 are shaded. It will be seen that the regions in which the percentage of tenantry did not increase are three in number: First, the Northeastern States, extending south to Virginia and west to Michigan; second, two States in the Mississippi Valley; third, four of the eight mountain States and the three Pacific Coast States. In all the remaining States the percentage of tenantry increased.

The conditions in the last-named group of States are easily explained. There was an increase in the actual number of tenant farms in each of these States, but on account of the settlement of new land and the breaking up of large tracts into small farms in some of them, the number of farms operated by owners increased at a much higher ratio, facts which are well brought out in figures 23 and 24. The percentage of tenant farms therefore decreased while the number increased, because the number of farms operated by owners increased even more rapidly. Thus in Colorado the number of farms operated by owners increased 97.6 per cent, while the number operated by tenants increased 50.3 per cent. Conditions were similar in each of the seven States in question.



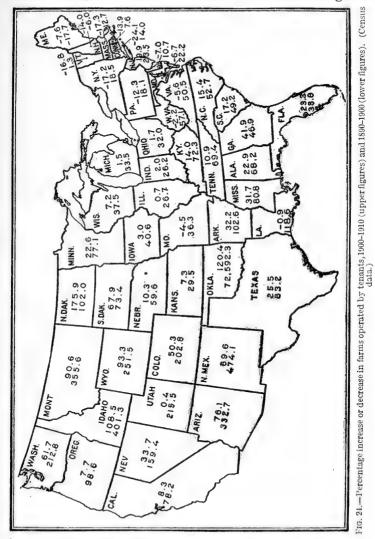
In the State of Missouri there was a slight decrease in the total number of farms, both those operated by owners and those operated by tenants, while in the State of Louisiana there was a slight decrease in the number of tenants

because of the conditions arising from the general spread of the boll weevil over the cotton fields in that State during the last census period. Perhaps a similar change may be



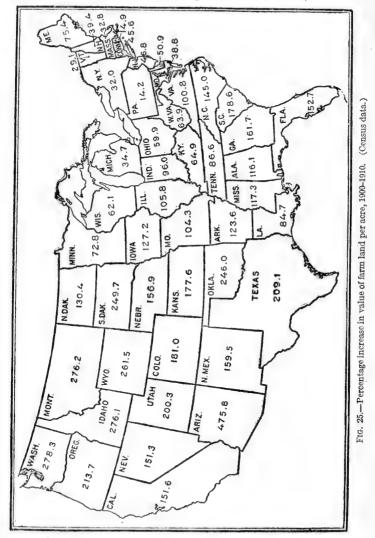
shown in some of the other cotton-producing States at the next census, though this by no means necessarily follows.

As a partial explanation of the decrease in the percentage of tenantry in the northeastern States, attention is called to the facts shown in figure 25. If a line be drawn separating those States in the Northeast in which the average increase in the price of farm land during the last census period was less than 60 per cent from the States in which it was greater



than this, it will, with few exceptions, divide the States in which the percentage of tenantry decreased from those in which it increased, the percentage of tenantry having decreased where the price of land increased least. The excep-

tions are Ohio, where the increase in the price of farm land was almost exactly 60 per cent, but where tenantry increased slightly, Virginia and West Virginia, in which States land increased more than 60 per cent in value, while ten-



antry decreased, and Maine, where tenantry decreased, while the price of farm land increased 75 per cent. This increase in the price of farm land in the State of Maine is due to marked development of certain types of intensive farm-

Farm Tenantry in the United States.

ing, which of itself does not necessarily have any effect upon the percentage of tenantry. The general conclusion seems justified, therefore, that where land is increasing rapidly in value, unless other factors have a preponderating influence, there is a tendency for the percentage of tenantry to increase, while where land is increasing slowly in value the percentage of tenantry does not tend to increase.

It is not known what a normal percentage of tenantry would be under conditions where the major portion of farm owners pass through the various stages of hired man, tenant, owner with mortgage, and owner free from debt. There are reasons for assuming, however, that in some parts of the country the percentage of tenantry is below this normal, while in other parts it is above. Some of these reasons are given in what follows.

FACTORS THAT REDUCE THE NORMAL PERCENTAGE OF TENANTRY.

AVAILABILITY OF PUBLIC LANDS.

Until about 1890 public lands to be had almost for the taking were available to practically all who wanted them. Under such conditions the proportion of tenants would naturally be smaller than normal, because of the ease of acquiring ownership in land. Rather than suffer the inconveniences of tenant farming men would go west and homestead land. Statistics show that the percentage of tenant farming in this country was very low at the time when settlement of desirable new lands was in rapid progress. (See fig. 22.)

SMALLNESS OF FARMS AND LOW PRODUCTIVITY OF LANDS.

Tenant farming does not prevail generally in regions where the farms are very small or the productivity of the soil low, except in regions where the problem is complicated by the plantation system of farming. A large proportion of tenant farms become such because their owners have grown old and have no one to take charge of the farm. If the farm is not large enough or productive enough to make the income from the rent sufficient to support the farmer in retirement, the tendency for the aging owner to retain the operation of the farm is strong. This undoubtedly is one of the causes of the

decrease in the percentage of tenantry in the northeastern States, for in these States farms are generally much below the average for the country in size. Another factor that probably has operated in this case is the fact that the type of farming undergoing most rapid development in the northeastern States, namely, vegetable growing, does not lend itself readily to a tenant system. Attention has already been called to the fact, illustrated in figure 25, that the price of farm land increased only slightly in this section of the country during the last census period. This fact, together with the smallness of the average farm, makes it possible, in many cases, for the farm laborer to omit the tenant stage in his progress toward ownership. It also makes it possible for men having a small capital saved in other industries to become owners. All these factors doubtless have operated in causing the decrease in the percentage of tenantry in the northeastern States

FACTORS THAT INCREASE THE PERCENTAGE OF TENANTRY.

SIZE OF FARM AND PRODUCTIVENESS OF LAND.

Where a farm is large enough or productive enough to give a rental income sufficient for the support of a family, there is a strong tendency, as the farmer grows old, for him to turn the farm over to a tenant, unless he happens to have sons who can assume the management. The accompanying table gives some of the evidence on which this conclusion The counties of four States-Pennsylvania, Ohio, is based. Illinois, and South Carolina-are arranged in four groups of equal numbers, the first consisting of those counties having the largest average value of farm products per acre and the last of those counties having the smallest, the second and third groups being intermediate. The last column of the table shows the percentage of tenant farmers in each of the four groups. In every case it will be observed that the percentage of tenantry decreases as the average acre value of farm products decreases. In previous publications of the Office of Farm Management it has been shown that the percentage of tenantry decreases also as the size of the farm decreases for farms in the same geographic region. This comparison does not hold between distinct sections of the country. But in general the percentage of tenantry is

higher on the large farms of the Middle West than on the small farms of the Northeast. The high percentage of tenantry in the cotton-growing States is due to other causes (partly to the inclusion of "croppers" with tenants).

States and groups of counties. ¹	Average value of farm products, per acre.	Per cent tenants of all farmers.	States and groups of counties. ¹	A verage value of farm products, per acre.	Per cent tenants of all farmers.	
Pennsylvania:			Illinois:			
First group	\$12.55	50.1	First group	14.71	31.9	
Second group	9.98	45.5	Second group	8.17	22.7	
Third group	8.03	38.9	Third group	6.29	18	
Fourth group	5.77	29.6	Fourth group	4.79	14.4	
Ohio:			South Carolina:			
First group	12.83	34.5	First group	13.18	69.3	
Second group	10.39	33.3	Second group	10.14	67.	
Third group	8.51	26.8	Third group	8.05	66.	
Fourth group	5.47	18	Fourth group	5.58	43.	
		1		1		

Relation of value of farm products per acre to percentage of tenantry.

¹ The counties in each State were arranged in descending order of value of farm products per acre, and then divided into four groups, each having an equal number of counties. The average value of products per acre and the average percentage of tenantry was calculated for each group.

INCREASE IN MARKET VALUE OF LAND.

Attention has already been called to the fact that tenantry is increasing in those sections of the country where the market value of land is increasing most rapidly, with certain notable exceptions, which have `already been explained. Where the value of farm land is high a longer time is required for the tenant to accumulate the capital necessary for making a first payment on a farm than where it is low. Where the value of land is increasing there is a tendency to capitalize the annual rate of increase in the price at which the land is held. Where this condition exists it becomes exceedingly difficult for the man who buys a farm on deferred payments to succeed. He must not only make the farm produce a living for himself and family, but he must make it pay interest on a capitalization based partly on rental value and partly on annual increase in value, in addition to saving enough to cancel the mortgage. As this matter is somewhat difficult to make clear, it may be well to give an illustration.

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In a farm-management survey in Ellis County, Tex., the average price at which the land was held was \$139 per acre. The rental income from this land amounted to 3.7 per cent of this valuation. The current rate of interest on borrowed capital in this section averages about 8 per cent. But because of the very marked advantages in land ownership. those owning land are usually content to accept a smaller income on their capital. They are justified in this because of the great security of the investment and the numerous other advantages that arise from land ownership. If we assume that 5 per cent is a satisfactory income for realestate investments in this region, while the rental income is only 3.7 per cent, then the price of the land includes capitalization of annual increase in value amounting to 1.3 per That is, the farmer who buys this land at the average cent. price of \$139 per acre looks to rent for 3.7 per cent income on his investment and to annual increase in value for 1.3 per cent income. If we assume that the income on real estate should be 8 per cent, while the rental income is only 3.7 per cent, then there should be an annual increase in value of 4.3 per cent to justify the present market price. Taking the census valuations of farm land in Ellis County for 1880 and 1910, there has been during this 30-year period an actual annual increase of 5.9 per cent. It would appear, therefore, that the present price of the land does not fully capitalize the present annual rate of income. This is as it should be, for there is no prospect that this rate of increase can continue indefinitely. Now, the tenant who makes a first payment on a piece of land must make the farm earn enough in addition to his living to pay interest on the deferred payments. and where the price of land is higher than its true rental value the interest which he has to pay is greater than the rent which a tenant must pay. This fact deters tenants from attempting to become owners. Hence we find that, in general, in those sections of the country where the land is increasing rapidly in value the percentage of tenantry is considerably above the normal.

It should be stated here that where land is increasing rapidly in value, some men without sufficient capital to pay for an entire farm make a first payment with the object of holding the land a few years in order to get the benefit of increase in value and then sell. In so far as this practice prevails, it tends to decrease the percentage of tenantry; but the number who thus buy land speculatively is small in comparison with those who remain tenants because the rate of increase is capitalized in the price they are compelled to pay for a farm.

CAPITALIZATION OF THE ADVANTAGES OF LAND OWNERSHIP.

It has already been pointed out that the safety of investments in land and the other advantages that arise from land ownership lead men to purchase land at prices which make it necessary for them to accept a low rate of income on their investment. In other words, the price at which agricultural land is held, especially in those sections of the country where farming is most profitable, are greatly in excess of their actual rental value when capitalized at current rates of interest. For reasons given under the previous heading. this makes it difficult for a tenant to acquire ownership. because on his deferred payments he must pay a rate of interest considerably higher than the rate which land owners are willing to accept on their investment. The price he pays for land represents capitalization on the basis of a secure and otherwise preferred investment, while the rate which he must pay for money-that is, the rate of interest he must pay on his deferred payments—is the current rate for the use of borrowed capital.

ADVANTAGE OF TENANTRY FOR BEGINNERS WITH SMALL CAPITAL.

The scope of this paper does not permit a discussion of the desirability or undesirability of tenant farming from the standpoint of its effect upon citizenship or on the general welfare. It deals rather with the forces that control the percentage of tenantry in different regions and under different conditions. We shall now consider some of the factors that influence the individual.

HIGHER RATES OF INCOME ON WORKING CAPITAL THAN ON FIXED.

As has already been said, landowners are willing to accept a relatively low rate of income on their investment. But there is no reason for such low rate of income on the work-

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ing capital used in farming. Farm-management surveys have shown a decided difference in the rates of income on these two classes of property. This is brought out in the following table:

Received by-	Average.	Georgia.	Indiana.	Illinois.	Iowa.	Arizona.	Texas.
Owner operators	6.5	8.0	4.7	5.5	4.7	8.6	5.9
Landlords	4.3	7.3	3.5	3.6	3.2	4.9	3.5

Rate of interest on investment.

In the case of operators who own the land they farm the investment consists of land and of working capital, while the return received by landlords is almost entirely based on an investment in land. The rate of interest in the case of owners is determined by subtracting from the net income of the operator the estimated value of his own labor and dividing the balance by the total investment; in the case of landlords the net rent received is divided by the investment.

It appears from the table that the owner operators receive an average return of 6.5 per cent, while the landlords receive only 4.3 per cent. The difference in favor of the operators is found in every State included in the table and indicates that an investment in real estate alone brings a lower relative return than a mixed investment in land and working capital. This difference may represent in part the owner's returns for his personal managerial ability, but it is certain that a considerable portion of the difference is due to the fact that a secure and otherwise preferred investment in land commands a lower rate of interest than a less secure investment in working capital. Thus it is seen that for the man with small capital there is considerable advantage in farming on the tenant basis. For a man with a large amount to invest the situation is different, partly because his funds, if invested entirely in working capital, may necessitate a larger farm than he is capable of managing to advantage and partly because, if he has enough money to buy a good-sized farm that yields a good living, other considerations besides the rate of interest on the investment enter into the problem.

While the higher rate of income from working capital as compared with real estate results in higher returns on investment for tenants than for owners, the investment of owners is much larger, on the average, than that of tenants. Hence in the surveys made in the six States included in the above comparison the income received by tenants, above the wages of their labor, the use of the house, and the food and fuel supplied directly by the farm, was only \$627, as compared with \$1,430 for owners.

FARM INCOME OF OWNERS AND TENANTS WITH SIMILAR CAPITAL.

Closely related to the facts just stated is the additional fact that the net income of tenants with small capital is much greater than that of owners with the same amount of capital. This is shown in the accompanying table, which gives the farm incomes of owners and tenants in Gloucester County, N. J., grouped according to the capital of the farm operator and illustrating a condition that is found in practically all the Department's farm-management surveys.

Comparative incomes of owners and tenants with equal capital, Gloucester County, N. J.

		Owners.		Tenants.			
Amount of capital.	Number of farms.	A verage size of farm.	A verage farm income.	Number of farms.	A verage size of farm.	Average farm income.	
\$1,000 and less	None.			11	42.9	\$567	
\$1,001-\$2,000.	None.			28	77.0	675	
2,001 - 3,000.	None.			25	113.2	897	
3,001- 5,000.	24	40.1	\$291	- 11	103.0	1,727	
5,001-7,000.	34	59.0	752	2	175.5	2,240	
7,001-9,000.	30	65.6	992	1	200.0	5,123	
9,001-11,000.	· 22	79.4	1,340	None.			
11,001-14,000.	31	105.7	1,689	None.			
14,001-17,000.	12	101.2	2,711	None.			
Over \$17,000	9	148.8	3, 202	None.		- • • • • • • • • •	
All farms	162	77.2	1,269	78	91.5	976	

It will be noticed that in the groups of farmers having less than \$3,000 capital every farmer is a tenant. Even those with less than \$1,000 capital are making incomes that permit a fair standard of living, while those with \$2,000 to \$3,000 capital have incomes that permit considerable saving, especially if the farmer and his family are frugal, because each of these farmers has, in addition to the income shown in the table, all that the farm furnishes toward the family living, including milk, butter, poultry, eggs, fruits, vegetables, and often fuel. In the next group, having from \$3,000 to \$5,000 capital. there are 35 farmers. Twenty-four of these are owners of farms averaging about 40 acres in size. The remaining 11 have remained tenants and are operating farms about two and a half times as large as owners with the same capital. Their average farm income is about six times as great as that of the corresponding owners. In the higher groups the number of tenants is so small that the averages do not mean much. It is significant, however, that the two tenants amongst the 36 farmers in the group having from \$5,000 to \$7,000 of capital make incomes about three times as large as do the owners. The one tenant in the next group makes about five times as much as the average of his 30 competers. In the groups having more capital than this all the farmers are owners.

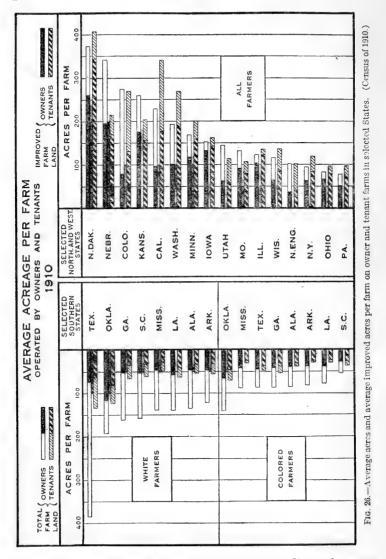
It may seem strange that where farmers can make so much more money as tenants than they can as owners there should be such a strong tendency toward ownership. The table shows that just as soon as the average income is sufficient to permit anything like a satisfactory standard of living the majority of tenants become owners, thus sacrificing perhaps two-thirds of their income. The amount they thus sacrifice shows what the average farmer considers the advantages of ownership to be worth. It is not necessary to discuss these advantages here; most of them are obvious.

There is, however, another reason why so few tenants with large capital are found. A large amount of capital, all invested as working capital, suffices for the operation of a very large business, exceeding, in fact, the managerial ability of many farmers. It is only within the limits of his managerial ability that it is wise for the farmer with considerable capital to remain a tenant rather than pass into the owner class.

There are two reasons for the greater incomes made by tenants as compared with owners having the same amount of capital. One is the higher rate of income on working capital as compared with fixed capital represented by real estate, already discussed. Another reason even more important is the fact that with a given amount of capital invested entirely as working capital, the operator can manage a very much larger area of land, and other things being approximately equal, the farmer's income is usually roughly proportional to the magnitude of the business he conducts. Note in the preceding table that in the group of farmers having from \$3,000 to \$5,000 capital, the size of the 11 farms operated by tenants is about two and a half times that of the 24 farms operated by owners. In the next two groups the tenant farms are about three times as large as the owner farms.

In this connection the average size of tenant farms as compared with owner farms is of interest. Data concerning this point are given in figure 26, which shows graphically both the area of improved land and the total farm area for the average farm operated by its owner and the average tenant farm in selected States. It will be seen that outside of the cottonbelt States, in nearly every case the average tenant farm is larger than the average owner farm. The exceptions are easily explained. They are Nebraska, Kansas, Colorado, Utah, and Missouri. In these States most of the tenant farms are in those sections of the State where the farms are relatively If the comparison could be made between the tenant small farms in these States and the owner farms in the same localities, there is no question that the average tenant farm would be shown to be larger than the average owner farm. Where the conditions are such that the farm laborer can in a few years save enough money or establish sufficient credit to provide the necessary working capital for a farm of considerable size, the tenant usually selects a farm as large as he can manage with the working capital available. If he undertakes tenant farming on a smaller farm the results frequently are disastrous. Not only that, but the majority of farms offered to tenants average larger in size than those not thus made available, for the reason that the rental income from the large farm will best support the retired owner.

The conditions shown in the cotton States, among both white and colored farmers, involve considerations which it is not within the province of this paper to discuss. It is seen, however, that in all these States the average tenant farm is smaller than the average owner farm, and this is true whatever the race of the farmer. This is due in part to the inclusion of "croppers" with tenants in the census figures. As elsewhere explained, the cropper is a hired



laborer who receives a share of the crop in lieu of wages. The small average acreage tended by croppers makes tenant farms smaller in the cotton States than they would be if the

Farm Tenantry in the United States.

term "tenant" were limited to classes comparable with tenants in other sections. Another reason why the average tenant farm of the cotton States is so small lies in the fact that the area of cotton a family can manage is limited by the amount that can be picked in season, and on good land this is a very small area.

PRINCIPAL DEFECTS OF THE AMERICAN SYSTEM OF TENANT FARMING.

The serious defect of our system of tenantry is the lack of suitable provisions for maintaining the fertility of the soil. There are two general causes for this condition. In the first place, tenant farming is more or less new in many localities. and the problem of arranging a lease contract that will provide against loss of fertility has not been generally solved, though it has been worked out in numerous individual instances and quite generally in some localities. In the second place, a striking feature of the system of tenant farming which prevails in this country is the short average length of tenure. The following table shows that for the United States as a whole, at the last census, one-third of the tenant farmers had been on their present farms less than 1 year; 17 per cent of them were in their second year on the same farm; about 30 per cent had been on the same farm for from 2 to 5 years, 12 per cent for from 5 to 10 years, and less than 8 per cent for more than 10 years. The longest average tenure is shown for colored tenants in the South; the next longest for tenants in the northern States. The shortest average tenure is shown for white tenants in the South. This is partly accounted for by the fact that tenantry amongst the white farmers in the South is increasing more rapidly than anywhere else in the country. One of the reasons for this increase is the gradual replacement of colored by white tenants in many sections.

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Length of tenure on tenant farms in the United States.

[From census of 1910.]

	Tenants having been on same farm each specific number of years (per cent).					
Type of tenure and years on farm.	United States.	The	The	The South.		
		North.	West.	White.	Colored	
All tenants:						
Less than 1 year	33.4	27.6	33.0	42.1	28.8	
1 year but less than 2 years	17.1	17.8	18.5	18.0	15.0	
2 years but less than 5 years	29.6	30.5	31.8	26.9	32.0	
5 years but less than 10 years	12.0	14.7	11.0	. 8.4	13.7	
10 years and over	7.9	9.4	5.7	4.6	10.5	
Cash tenants:						
Less than 1 year	26.1	25.8	31.4	34.8	18.9	
1 year but less than 2 years	16. 0	17.4	18.3	17.6	13.1	
2 years but less than 5 years	31.9	30.8	32. 2	30.0	34.0	
5 years but less than 10 years	15.0	15.6	11.7	11.0	18.1	
10 years and over	11.0	10.4	6.4	6.6	15.3	
Share tenants:						
Less than 1 year	37.3	28.6	34.7	44.6	36.2	
1 year but less than 2 years	17.8	18.1	18.8	18.2	16.5	
2 years but less than 5 years	28.4	30.3	31.2	25.8	30.1	
5 years but less than 10 years	10.4	14.2	10.3	7.5	10.4	
10 years and over	6.1	8.8	5.0	3.9	6.8	
Average years on same farm:						
All tenants	3.0	3.4	2.6	2.2	3.6	
Cash tenants	3.8	3.7	2.8	2.8	4.8	
Share tenants	2.6	3.3	2.5	2.0	2.7	

It will be noted that the average tenure among cash tenants is everywhere longer than it is among share tenants. For the United States as a whole the average length of time the average cash tenants have been on the farms they are now operating is 3.8 years, while for share tenants it is 2.6 years. The cash tenant makes, on the average, a larger income than the share tenant and is not so soon discouraged by the frequent reduction in yield caused by the methods ordinarily employed in tenant farming. This is true in spite of the fact that the average crop yields on share-tenant farms usually are larger than on cash-tenant farms, the difference being more than made up by the smaller amount of rent paid by cash tenants.

REASON FOR SHORT TENURES.

In sections where systems of farming prevail that rapidly burn the humus out of the soil and where in consequence crop yields have become low, the farm income of the average tenant farmer is low. This makes him dissatisfied with his condition, and he naturally hopes by changing from one farm to another to better himself. For similar reasons the landlord is inclined to change tenants, hoping by the change to secure a better tenant. These two facts taken together account in part for the very short tenures which are so prevalent in this country.

The remedy for this condition is not a simple one, nor is there any panacea for it. In general, however, the remedy involves a course of procedure that will result in better incomes for the tenant. This, of course, will mean also greater profits to the owners of the land. Except in dairy regions, where it is customary for the landlord to furnish half the productive live stock, tenant farms are, in general, not so well stocked as owner farms. This is partly due to the general lack of capital on the part of tenant farmers and partly to the lack of permanence of tenure: but it is also due in part to lack of information on the part of both landlord and tenant as to the conditions of leasing on live-stock farms that would make the agreement equitable to both parties concerned. In sections where tenant farming has long been established, more especially in those regions where live-stock farming prevails, this problem has largely been worked out in practice. But new farms are continually passing from owner operation to tenant operation, thus bringing about the relation of landlord and tenant between people who lack information on the subject of lease contracts.

THE LEASE CONTRACT.

It is therefore clear that the big problem to-day in connection with tenant farming in the United States is that of the details of the lease contract. The Office of Farm Management regards this as one of the outstanding problems in farm economics in this country and is devoting serious study to it. A study is being made of the details of agreements between landlord and tenant on farms of all sizes and types in all parts of the country where tenant farming is well developed. These studies have shown that a few fundamental principles govern in all such cases. The laborer is entitled to his wage; the owner of property is entitled to interest on his investment and to sufficient income to replace worn-out equipment. We have already seen that land, because of the unique stability of the investment, commands a low rate of income. On the other hand, working capital is entitled to a high rate of income—just how high it is not yet possible to say with any degree of certainty. It is believed, however, that these studies will ultimately reveal what is a fair and equitable division of the proceeds of the farm between labor, fixed capital, and working capital for all the more important types of farming and for farms of different sizes in all parts of the country.

It does not necessarily follow from what has been said above concerning short tenures in this country that lease contracts should cover long periods of years. The essential thing is that they should provide a system of farming that will build up the fertility of the land. This may be accomplished under lease contracts made for short periods. It has been found in the investigations of the Office of Farm Management that in some of the localities in which tenant farming has prevailed for a considerable period tenants contracting only from year to year remain on the farm longer on the average than those who contract for longer periods. Very long lease contracts are hardly practicable, except under conditions of permanent tenure. In this country, where so large a proportion of tenants merely represent a step in the progress toward ownership, the period of the lease must, and should, be shorter, on the average, than in countries where practically all the land is farmed by tenants.

SEWAGE DISPOSAL ON THE FARM.

By GEORGE M. WARREN,

Hudraulic Engineer, Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering.

POPULAR indifference to the effective disposal of sewage has existed so long and so universally that only within comparatively recent years has it been realized that this waste product of human life is poison and must be kept from the food and drink of man. From the specific germs or poisons that may be carried in sewage at any time there may result typhoid fever, tuberculosis, hookworm disease, cholera, dysentery, diarrhea, or other dangerous ailments, and it is not improbable that certain obscure maladies may be traced eventually to the poisonous effects of drainage from human waste. The poison is invisible to the naked eve and it may be carried by many agencies and by devious routes and be unsuspectingly received into the human body. Infection may come from the swirling dust of the railway roadbed, from personal or indirect contact with transitory or chronic carriers of disease. from green truck grown in gardens fertilized with night soil or sewage, from food prepared or touched by unclean hands or visited by flies and vermin, from milk handled by sickly and careless dairymen, or milk cans and utensils washed with polluted water from wells, springs, brooks, and lakes receiving the surface wash or the underground drainage from sewage-polluted soil, and from many other sources.

Typhoid fever is peculiarly a rural disease, and a few examples clearly indicating the responsibilities and the duties of people who live in the country are cited herewith. The accounts are condensed from reports by the Massachusetts State Board of Health and the health commissioner of Virginia.

In September and October, 1899, 63 cases of typhoid fever, resulting in 5 deaths, occurred at the Northampton (Mass.) insane hospital. This epidemic was conclusively traced to celery, which was eaten freely late in August and which was grown and banked in a plot that 347 had been fertilized in the late winter or early spring with the solid residue and scrapings from a sewage filter bed situated on the hospital grounds.

In November and December, 1900, 7 cases of typhoid fever at Waltham (Mass.) were, with little doubt, caused by infected milk from a farm where the sewage in a cesspool containing the discharges of a person sick with the disease in August was dipped out and spread upon the ground by the same man who afterward milked the cows.

In 1909, 60 persons spending Labor Day at a country hotel in Worcester County, Mass., were infected from the milk handled by a table maid who was coming down with typhoid fever.

In 1915, typhoid fever in a home at Brookneal, Va., was caused by the accidental entry of sewage into a drilled well following the choking and flooding of the house sewer with rain water. Within 14 days 5 of the 8 children were stricken and the eldest, a girl of 20 years, died 3 weeks later.

Early in June, 1915, a case of typhoid fever developed in the upper one of about 25 humble mountain homes situated along a small brook in Washington County, Va. Probably few of the houses had privies, and water was obtained from several small springs close to the edge of the brook. On July 3, 15 cases of typhoid fever had developed in 8 different families down the ravine, and it is probable that the spread of the disease was due in large degree to the pollution of the springs from the lack of care in handling the discharges of patients higher up the run.

Not to dispose of sewage promptly invites nuisance, but not to dispose of sewage cleanly and completely invites disease. It is not enough that human filth is taken 50, 75, 100, or 150 feet away from a well or spring, or that it is taken merely to lower ground. Given loose or open subsoil, seamy ledge, or long-continued pollution of one plot of ground, the zone of contamination is likely to extend and readily may reach quite distant wells, especially at such times as wellwaters are lowered by drought or heavy pumping. Whatever the system of sewage disposal, it should be entirely and widely separated from the water supply, and, if possible, the surface of the sewage in any privy, leaky vault, or cesspool should be lower than the lowest water in any near-by well. The practice of applying human excreta or sewage to land upon which are grown truck crops, especially celery, lettuce, radishes, cucumbers, tomatoes, melons, and other vegetables consumed raw by man, constitutes a serious menace to health and should be discontinued.

SEWAGE AND SEWERS DEFINED.

Under average conditions the daily waste of an adult human is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 quarts of foul matter consisting largely of undigested or partially digested foods and saline excretions. With these wastes there may be mixed refuse liquids and many substances entering into the economy of the household, such as grease, milk, bits of food, fruits, vegetables, paper, rags, etc. This refuse product constitutes sewage and the underground pipe which conveys it is a sewer. Since sewers carry foul matter, they should be watertight, and this feature of their construction distinguishes them from drains or removers of relatively pure surface or ground water.

NATURE OF SEWAGE.

Sewage, then, is water containing small amounts of mineral, vegetable, and animal matter, dissolved and undissolved. It contains enormous numbers and many species of very minute living organisms or bacteria and dead organic matter. For the most part, the living organisms are, so far as known, not only harmless, but are of the utmost importance in the processes of nature. They may be termed tiny scavengers which multiply with great rapidity, their useful work being the converting of dead organic wastes into liquids and gases, decomposing the dissolved organic matter, and oxidizing and nitrifying the organic residues.

HOW SEWAGE DECOMPOSES.

If a bottle of fresh sewage be kept in a warm room changes occur in the appearance and nature of the liquid. At first it is light in appearance and its odor is slight. It is well supplied with free oxygen, since this gas, dissolved from the atmosphere, is always found in natural waters. In a short time the solids in the sewage separate mechanically according to their relative weights, sediment collects at the bottom, and a greasy film covers the surface. Later, the solids tend to break apart, the sewage grows darker, and the odor becomes more offensive. There is an increase in the amount of ammonia and a decrease in free oxygen, and when the former is at its maximum and the latter is exhausted, the sewage is said to be stale. Beyond this stage the process becomes a putrefying one. Bacterial life probably secures minute quantities of oxygen from the breaking up of organic substances, and, as compounds containing nitrogen are decomposed, various foul-smelling gases are liberated. Sewage in this condition is known as septic sewage. Eventually the liquid in the bottle clears, its color fades appreciably, the odor disappears, and a dark-brown, insoluble, earth-like substance remains as a deposit. Complete reduction of this deposit requires a long period of time, perhaps many years. Within any ordinary limits there still remains more or less organic residue which rots very slowly, but which, if given sufficient time, may be reduced to mineral substances and so become suitable for plant food.

The changes above described are wholly natural and are analogous to what always takes place when animal or vegetable matter decays. The process is affected vitally by environment. For example, bacterial activities may be checked or destroyed by violent agitation, extremes of heat or cold, strong light, or chemicals.

PRACTICAL UTILITIES FOR VARIOUS CONDITIONS.

PIT PRIVY.

Upon thousands of small farms there is no privy whatever and excretions are deposited carelessly about the premises. Such practice should not be countenanced in any community. In order to suggest a fairly effective remedy for such conditions and to impress upon the mind fundamental and farreaching principles, use will be made of a very familiar, though homely, illustration which is furnished by the house cat. The cat instinctively selects warm, loose soil wherein to deposit and bury her excretions. What of value can we gather from the example?

(1) The site selected is well drained. Were it otherwise the soil would be cold and wet.

(2) The site is not shut in, but is open to the purifying influences of sunlight and air.

(3) The excretions are deposited in loose topsoil permeated with air and teeming with low forms of both plant and animal life. These natural agencies disintegrate the waste organic matter and reduce it to inorganic substances beneficial to the soil and suitable for plant food. (4) The excretions are covered promptly. Hence they are not visited by flies, are not likely to be washed over the surface by rains, and suggest nothing offensive to sight or other senses.

A privy which realizes some of the features and principles mentioned above is shown in figure 27. This is a portable affair not unlike the "sentry boxes" used upon con-

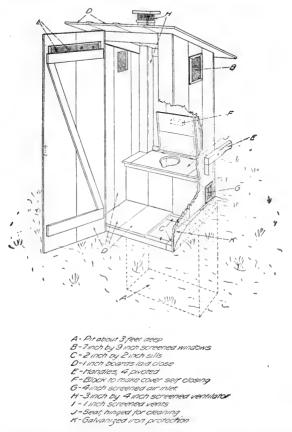


FIG. 27.—Portable pit privy, for use where land is abundant and cheap, but unless handled with judgment can not be regarded as safe.

struction work, and is suitable for localities where land is abundant and cheap. Its main purpose is to secure, at minimum cost and with least attention, a fixed place for the deposit of excretions where the filth can not be tracked by man, spread by animals, reached by flies, nor washed by rain. The privy is light and inexpensive and is placed over a hole or pit in the ground. When the pit becomes one-half or twothirds full, the privy can be lifted readily by the handles and carried by two persons to a new location. The pits should be shallow, preferably not over 3 feet in depth, and never should be located on ground of which the surface or strata slope toward a well, spring, or other source of domestic water supply, nor should they, except under very favorable slope and soil conditions, be nearer a well than 300 feet. Since dryness in the pit is desirable, the site should be raised slightly, either naturally or artificially, and 10 or 12 inches of earth should be banked and compacted against all sides to shed rain water. The banking also serves to exclude flies. If the soil is sandy or gravelly, the pit should be sheeted roughly with boards or palisades to prevent caving: or, if preferred, a 3-foot length of 15 or 18 inch sewer pipe may be used. This makes a good lining, and, as it is raised and cleaned when the privy is moved, such sheeting is permanent. The privy should be boarded closely, and should be provided preferably with screened openings for ventilation and light. The whole seat should be easily removable or hinged, as this permits cleaning and washing the underside of the seat and facilitates the destruction of spiders and other insects which thrive in dark, unclean places, especially in warm climates. A little loose, absorbent soil should be added daily to the accumulation in the pit. and when a pit is abandoned it should be filled immediately with dry earth and mounded to shed water.

A pit privy, even if moved often, can not be regarded as either safe or desirable. The great danger is that accumulations of waste may overtax the purifying resources of the soil and the leachings reach wells or springs. Slope of the ground is not a guaranty of safety, but, as previously stated, the great safeguard lies in locating the privy a long distance from the water supply or having it actually lower than the water level of the latter.

SANITARY PRIVY.

The next step in the evolution of sewage disposal is the sanitary privy, which, as its name implies, is one productive of clean conditions and surroundings. Its construction must be such that it is practically impossible for filth or germs to be spread above ground, to escape by percolation underground, or to be accessible to flies, vermin, or rodents. Furthermore, it must be cared for in a cleanly manner, else it ceases to be sanitary. To secure these desirable ends, the sanitarians of many States and countries have devised numerous types of tight-receptacle privy. Considering the small cost and the proved value of some of these types, it is a sad commentary that so few are seen on American farms.

The receptacle or container for a sanitary privy may be small, such, for example, as a galvanized-iron pail, bucket, or garbage can, to be removed from time to time by hand: it may be large, as a barrel or a metal tank, either fixed or mounted for moving: or it may be a stationary metal or masonry tank or vault. The essential requirement in the receptacle is permanent water-tightness to prevent pollution of soils and wells. An exception to this rule is that class of privy in which the liquids drain through perforations in the bottom of the receptacle and are removed to a safe distance in a tight drain or sewer or are collected in a second water-tight container. Wooden pails or boxes, which warp and leak, never should be used. Where a vault is used, it should be shallow to facilitate emptying or cleaning. Moreover, if the receptacle should leak, it is better that the escape of liquid should be in the top soil, where bacterial life is most abundant. Sanitary privies are further classified. according to the method used in treating the excretions, as "dry earth," "chemical," or "liquefying."

DRY-EARTH PRIVY.

A simple out-door privy of the dry-earth type is shown in figure 28. It is 4 feet square, center to center of supporting posts, and no stock heavier than 2 by 4 inches is used in construction. The sills are secured to concrete, cedar, chestnut, osage orange, or other durable posts set about 3 feet in the ground. The boarding should be tight, so as to exclude flies and insects, and the windows and vents should be screened. Provision should be made also for the free play of air under and about the structure as shown in the drawing. The receptacle is a galvanized-iron garbage can costing about 75 cents. It fits very closely under the seat, held in position by

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two cleats nailed to the floor. Heavy brown-paper bags for lining the can may be had at slight cost. The use of these bags helps to keep the can clean and facilitates emptying it. Painting with black asphaltum serves a similar purpose and protects the can from rust. The can should be emptied frequently and the contents buried 1 to 2 feet below the ground surface at a point remote from wells or springs.



FIG. 28.—Outdoor, dry-earth, removable-container privy. Durable construction, well ventilated, and screened. With proper care is sanitary and unobjectionable.

Wherever infectious intestinal disease exists, the contents of the can should be destroyed by burning or be made sterile by boiling or by complete incorporation with strong chemical reagents before it is buried. Even if disease is not manifest, burning or sterilizing of all waste of this description is a safe, sanitary precaution. It is human nature to take chances, however, and such practice is not common among any except sanitation enthusiasts. Figure 29 shows an indoor dry-earth closet, with a brick vault, which was constructed in 1817 upon a farm at Westboro, Mass. This vault was built beneath the northeast rear

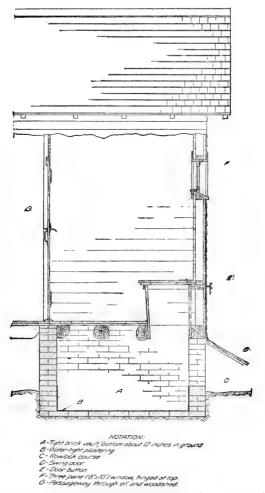


FIG. 29.—Indoor dry-earth, tight masonry vault privy, constructed in 1817 and in use nearly 100 years. Note the water-tight and shallow vault and its convenience.

corner of a small raised ell which was partitioned so as to give a hired man's bedroom, a woodshed, a small tool room, and passageways to a rear outer door and to the closet. The vault was 6 feet long by 5 feet wide, and the bottom was 1 foot below the surface of the ground. The brickwork was laid in mortar, and that part below the ground surface was plastered on the inside. The outside of the vault was exposed to light and air on all four sides. Across the long side of the vault, in the rear, was a door swinging upward, through which the night soil was removed about twice each year, usually in the spring and fall, and hauled to a near-by field, where it was deposited in a furrow just ahead of the plow. Through this door it was easy to clean out the vault or to sprinkle loose, dry loam or wood ashes over fresh excreta without carrying dirt and dust into the house or causing dust to settle upon the seat.

It is an interesting fact that this closet was situated only about 30 feet from a dug well with a dry rubble lining. For almost 100 years both closet and well were in daily use, but as far as the senses could determine, the high quality of the well water never deteriorated. No member of the household ever suffered from an intestinal disease, nor did any visitor. so far as is known, ever contract such disease at this home. Although there were practically no renewals or repairs during this long period, when last seen the original seat, which always was kept painted, showed no signs of decay. This example serves to shown that a reasonably well planned utility, if properly cared for, will prove a sound investment. Modern methods would call for a concrete vault of guaranteed water-tightness, proper ventilation and screening, and hinging the seat. Otherwise, the method of construction need not be changed materially.

CHEMICAL CLOSET.

The second type of sanitary privy, in which the excretions are received directly into a water-tight receptacle containing liquid chemical disinfectant, is meeting with considerable favor upon farms and in country schools and railroad stations. Such privies are known by various trade names. One is a chemical tank closet in which the container or receptacle is large and irremovable. A simple type of chemical closet is shown in figure 30, with the essential features indicated in the notations. These closets, with vent pipe and appurtenances ready for setting up, retail for from \$18.50 upward. Commercial disinfectants cost from \$1.50 to \$2 per gallon. Such closets are compact, simple, of good appearance, and easy to install or move. But their efficiency depends largely on the manner of installation and handling. To insure complete

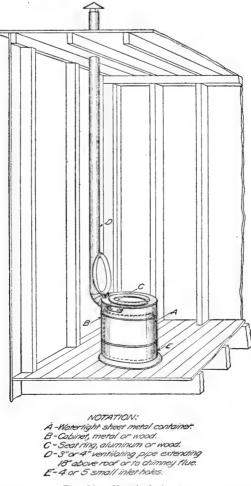
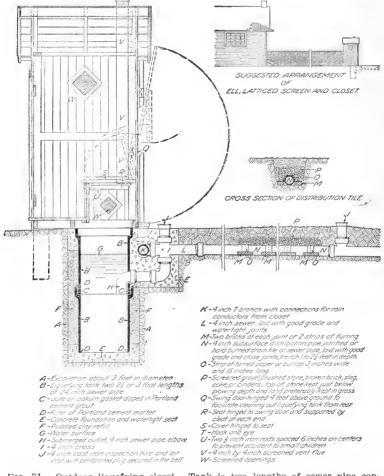


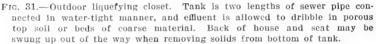
FIG. 30.-Chemical closet.

sterilization, the chemical must be strongly disinfectant and must permeate every particle of the waste matter. Strong draft through the vent pipe and prevention of low temperatures in the container also are very essential.

LIQUEFYING CLOSET.

The third type of sanitary privy, known as the liquefying or septic closet, makes use of bacterial action as an aid to disposal. The excretions are deposited in a tight receptacle





containing water, where fermentation and decomposition reduce a large part of the organic solids to liquid and gaseous forms. In the process of liquefaction much of the liquid evaporates and the gases diffuse so that the volume of sewage is reduced materially. More or less insoluble and undigested residue, known as sludge, gradually accumulates at the bottom of the receptacle, which, from time to time, must be cleaned out. But handling the partially clarified liquid and the sludge involves much less labor than would be needed to handle the fresh sewage.

Liquefying closets were used in Baltimore and other eastern cities for many years and gave fair satisfaction. The receptacle sometimes was a tight brick vault, but more frequently a large barrel or hogshead with one end nearly flush with the ground. Over this was mounted the seat, sometimes with iron bars beneath to prevent accident to small children, and the whole inclosed by a small frame house. The tank usually was bailed or pumped out two or three times a year.

Upon farms where there is abundant space and when slope, soil, and drainage conditions are favorable, the effluent from liquefying closets may be distributed and aerated by means of drain tile laid in top soil or in shallow beds filled with cinders, coke, gravel, or stone. This distributing tile, although receiving liquid which may appear light colored and inoffensive but still is sewage, never should be laid in the vicinity of a well or spring. Figure 31 shows a simple one-chamber liquefying closet with shallow distribution in a stone-filled trench.

OBJECTIONS TO PRIVIES.

All the methods of sewage disposal heretofore described are open to the following objections:

(1) They do not care for kitchen slops and the liquid wastes incident to a pressure water system. These, even if not as dangerous to health as human excreta, may create serious nuisance.

(2) They retain filth for a long period of time. Hence the liability of offensive odors.

(3) They require, for really satisfactory results, more personal attention and care than people generally are willing to give to such matters.

By far the most satisfactory method yet devised of caring for sewage calls for a supply of water under pressure and the flushing away of the wastes as soon as created through a water-tight sewer to an appropriate location, there to undergo treatment. The importance of these two prime utilities, namely, a supply of water under pressure and an adequate system of caring for sewage, can not be impressed too strongly upon every farmer who desires to promote the health and comfort of his household.

CESSPOOLS.

Where farms have running water, an open or leaching cesspool is the most common method of disposing of the sewage. Ordinarily, cesspools are circular excavations in the ground, lined or walled with stone or brick laid without mortar. They vary from 5 to 10 feet in diameter and from 7 to 12 feet in depth. Sometimes the top is arched like a jug and is capped at the ground surface by a cover of wood or iron. At other times the walls are carried straight up, boards or planks laid across in lieu of a cover, and the entire structure hidden by means of a hedge or shrubbery.

Soil and drainage conditions vary so much that it is impossible to standardize cesspool dimensions. Eighty cubic feet may be taken as a minimum capacity. In certain arid sections, where porous material and the water table are deep, cesspools 4 feet in diameter have been dug from 20 to 60 feet in depth. Contract costs of these deep cesspools, including stone for lining, run about \$1.75 per vertical foot.

Cesspools of the kinds above described are open to these serious objections:

(1) Unless located in porous, well-drained soil, stagnation is likely to occur, and failure of the liquid to seep away may result in overflow on the surface of the ground and the creation of a nuisance and a menace.

(2) They retain a mass of filth in a decomposing condition deep in the ground, where it is but slightly affected by the bacteria and air of the soil. The seepage in its movement through the ground may be strained, but there can be no assurance that the foul liquid, with little or no improvement in its condition, may not pass into the ground water and thus pollute wells and springs situated long distances away in the direction of underground flow.

For the purpose of avoiding soil and ground-water pollution, cesspools have been made water-tight like some types of tight-receptacle privy. Upon the farm, however, there is little to recommend them, for the reason that facilities for removing and disposing of the contents in a clean manner are lacking usually. Despite the objections stated above, there may be isolated farm homes so situated that some soil pollution may be permissible. In certain instances sewage may be taken in a water-tight sewer to a leaching cesspool, provided that it is located far below buildings and well, and likewise remote from neighbors' dwellings and water supplies.

Figure 32 shows a septic cesspool, which combines the principles of the liquefying closet and the leaching cesspool. With this type the solids are retained for liquefaction in the central chamber, while the partially clarified effluent escapes through the coarse, filtering medium into the subsoil. Tests of the soil water adjacent to cesspools of this type show that little reliance should be placed upon its capabilities of purifying sewage. However, since grease and other solids do not readily get into and clog the pores of the adjacent ground, this cesspool, under average soil conditions, is likely to remain free-seeping and unchoked. Still better results may be had if, instead of allowing the effluent to escape deep in the ground, it is given shallow subsurface distribution, as illustrated in figure 31. In this way not only is the area of percolation extended, but aeration and partial purification of the sewage are obtained.

PLUMBING.

Figure 32 also shows an effective, yet inexpensive, arrangement of soil and waste pipes for a two-story farmhouse, together with the connecting house sewer and the rain-water leader. Rain or other clean water conductors should be disconnected from sewers and should discharge into dry wells or a watercourse. The house sewer is 4-inch cast-iron soil pipe laid with a minimum fall of 2 feet per 100 feet and with the joints leaded and calked. Close to the cesspool an air inlet and inspection hole is provided. A 4-inch tee is turned upward and a 4-inch cast-iron riser inserted, while a 4-inch perforated plug closes the bell end of the riser. No running trap is placed on the house sewer, thus allowing free movement of air throughout the sewer and soil stack. The fixtures are located reasonably close to the soil stack,

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the waste pipes are ample and are fitted with drum or other nonsiphoning traps, and back vents are omitted, as experi-

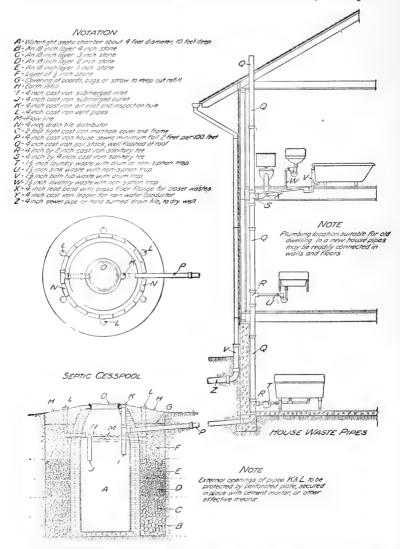


FIG. 32.—House waste pipes and septic cesspool. A cesspool should be employed only when it can be located far below and far away from any well or other source of domestic water supply.

ments indicate that the danger of transmission of disease from sewer air is slight.

SEPTIC TANK.

There is much evidence to show that a tight, well-built, underground septic tank, so called, with shallow distribution of the effluent in porous soil, generally is the safest and least troublesome method of treating sewage upon the farm, while at the same time more or less of the irrigating and manurial value of the sewage is realized.

The antecedents of the septic tank were known in Europe more than 50 years ago. Between 1876 and 1893 a number of closed tanks with submerged inlet and outlet, and all embodying the principle of storage of sewage and liquefaction of the solids. were built in Massachusetts, New Jersev, Maryland, and Canada. In the past 20 years great advance has been made, and many plants, large and small, have been built. Much remains to be learned, but it is now certain that many of the early claims for the septic process were ex-There is nothing magical about a septic tank. travagant. and citizens should not trust implicitly in the name. In greater or less degree the changes described under the caption "How Sewage Decomposes," and referred to in connection with liquefying closets and cesspools, take place in septic tanks. The liquid escaping from a septic tank is assuredly not "spring water," nor is it harmless. It may contain, since the process involves intensive growths, even more bacteria than the raw sewage. As to the effects upon the growth and virulence of disease germs, little is known definitely. If disease germs be present, many of their number. along with other bacteria, may pass through with the flow or may be enmeshed in the settling solids and there survive a long time. Hence, so far as the danger of transmitting disease is concerned, septic sewage is not improved materially over crude sewage, and the farmer should safeguard wells and springs from the seepage or the discharges from a septic tank with no less certainty than from that of liquefying closets and cesspools.

In all sewage tanks a considerable portion of the solid matter, especially if the sewage contains much grease, floats on the liquid as a scum, the heavier solids settle to form sludge, while other finely divided solids and matter in a state of emulsion neither float nor subside. If the sludge is held in the bottom of the tank to be converted into liquids and gases, virtually to rot, the tank is called a septic tank and the process is known as septicization. Just how far this process may be carried to obtain the maximum sanitary benefit with the least nuisance and cost is still open to question. As previously stated, septic sewage implies offensive putrefaction. Not only is this objectionable as to odors, but numerous examples indicate that sewage reduced to the septic condition, or even highly staled, is less effectively purified, whether subjected to artificial filtration or to the natural filtration of the soil, than is moderately stale sewage. Aeration of a septic effluent seems to aid in its purification, but aeration lowers the temperature of the sewage and may result in the spread of objectionable odors or disease.

From what has preceded it is seen that the septic tank is not a complete method of sewage treatment. With the general run of small septic tanks, it probably is close to the facts to say that of all the solid matter in the crude sewage onethird is reduced to liquids and gas, one-third remains in the tank and one-third escapes with the effluent.

Every septic tank installation is a problem by itself. As a suit is fashioned to the size and needs of an individual, so should the design of a septic tank and the after disposition of the effluent be decided upon, with full consideration for the size of the family, the amount of water used, the location of property lines, buildings, wells, and drainage outlets, the slope of the land, and the character of the soil and subsoil. The designer, builder, or user of small septic tanks should bear in mind the following practical suggestions:

(1) The location should be reasonably distant from the dwelling and several hundred feet from a well or spring.

(2) The tank should be absolutely water-tight. Excellent results come from the use of concrete mixed in the proportions 1:2:4. Effective methods of waterproofing are described in United States Department of Agriculture Bulletin No. 230, entitled "Oil-Mixed Portland Cement Concrete."

(3) The tank should be 1 to 2 feet underground to secure uniformity of temperature and warmth in winter. In order to secure fall where slopes are flat, both tank and house sewer may be raised and embanked with earth. (4) The tank should be covered tightly for the reason stated in (3), and also to guard against the spread of odors, the transmission of disease germs by flies, and accidents to children.

(5) Rain-water leaders and all surface or ground-water drains should be disconnected from sewerage systems.

(6) A plant for all-year-round use, whether discharging the effluent upon or beneath the ground surface or into an artificial filter, should have two chambers—one to secure settlement and septicization of the solids, and the other to secure periodic discharge of the effluent by the use of an automatic sewage siphon having no moving mechanical parts. The first chamber is known as the settling chamber, the second as the dosing, or siphon, chamber.

(7) The settling chamber should have a capacity below the flow line of about 24 hours' flow of sewage. Since sludge and scum accummulations soon replace the available liquid capacity, the calculated depth should be increased 25 per cent. Depth appears to be a more important dimension than either length or width. Widths may run from 2 to 4 feet inside. Length and depth may be equal and run from 5 to 7 feet inside. With liberal usage of a good, potable water under pressure, it is advisable to estimate on a basis of 40 gallons per capita for 24 hours. The inlet and outlet should be submerged about 2 feet below the surface of the liquid in the tank, though, with very little grease in the sewage, shallower submergence is permissible. Current breakers and baffle walls check velocities, diffuse the flow, and mitigate the evils of stagnation in the liquid and roiling of the sludge.

(8) The dosing chamber generally should have a dosing capacity equal to the flow of sewage for at least 8 hours. A longer dosing interval is preferable in close soils.

(9) The area for treatment of the clarified liquid should have moderate slope and deep and thorough drainage, and sunlight and air should have free access. Preferably, the soil should be sandy, gravelly, or loamy, but an impervious clay soil may be opened up and aerated by deep subsoiling, the use of dynamite, underdrainage, or the construction of trenches or beds filled with gravel, cinders, or stone. The distribution area preferably should be kept in grass, because this is a safe crop and its water requirement is high. If properly handled, effluent discharged upon the surface may be well purified eventually, but in the vicinity of dwellings there may be annoyance from odors, and there is also the liability of the spread of disease germs through flies and other agencies. Surface discharge never should be nearer a dwelling or well than 300 feet, and there should be a properly spaced outlet for each 30 gallons of siphon dose.

Of the various methods of disposing of the liquid effluent. the subsurface discharge is preferable. Distribution should be through lines or runs composed of vitrified or hardburned drain tile or second-quality sewer pipe. Four-inch size is preferred for this purpose, although 3 or 5 inch pipe may be used. The tile should be laid in runs of 60 feet or less in length, and in trenches 10 to 18 inches deep. To prevent flooding at the lower ends the tile should be laid upon very flat grades and short runs should be level. The tile should be laid with slightly open joints in an earthenware gutter or along a continuous track composed of two strips of furring or two bricks placed lengthwise at the low side of the pipe at each joint. The top and sides of the joint should be covered with earthenware caps or encircled with narrow strips of tarred paper or burlap to exclude dirt. The more coarse material, such as broken stone or brick, gravel, slag, coke, or cinders, placed beneath, on the sides, and immediately over the tile, the better will be the drainage and aeration. It is advantageous also to have the ends of the runs turn up and be vented above the surface of the ground. Sufficient tile should be used so that the capacity of the system will about equal the siphon discharge. In sizable installation it is preferable to have the distribution tile in two units with a switch between, so that one field may rest and become aerated while the other is in use. Where this is done it is well to alternate the switch weekly or oftener if the beds show signs of flooding. Frost usually gives little trouble in subsurface distribution, but in exposed areas where the winters are severe the tile may be laid slightly deeper or the ground may be covered with hay, straw, or leaves weighted down.

(10) Open, artificial filters of sand, coke, or stone usually have proved disappointing upon the farm. If properly designed and operated, however, they are capable of splendid results. Usually they are neglected or the sewage is improperly applied, with the result that sand filters clog and the coarse-grained filters pass what is practically raw sewage. Moreover, there is likely to be annoyance from odors, and there is always the possibility of disease germs being carried by flies where sewage or sludge is exposed.

(11) If a septic tank is for use a part of the year only, as at a summer home, the siphon and siphon chamber may be omitted and the effluent may be allowed to dribble away through subsurface tile, as already explained. In such cases the joints should be very close; in fact, the tile may best be butted if good distribution is to be obtained.

(12) The siphon also may be omitted if the discharge is made into a running stream, but sewage never should be turned into any watercourse if any proper method of disposal is possible. Such practice endangers water supplies down the stream, and unless the velocity of the stream is good and its average flow at least forty times the volume of sewage discharged, serious nuisance may be created in the vicinity.

(13) There is nothing better for a house sewer, especially where the vicinity of a well must be passed, than cast-iron soil pipe with leaded, calked joints. This construction gives a permanently water-tight and root-proof sewer. Upon the farm, however, it is customary to use vitrified clay or shale pipe. and where this is used, 5-inch pipe, because of its straightness and smoothness and its lesser liability to obstruction, is preferred to the 4-inch size. In no case should the inside diameter of a sewer be less than 4 inches. The joints of a vitrified-pipe sewer may be closed with a strand of grouted oakum and good cement mortar, but as cemented joints usually are made up they leak sewage and may not keep out rootlets which by their growth frequently cause obstruction to the flow. Much better results are obtained where the joints are poured with molten sulphur and very fine sand or some flexible jointing compound. Whatever the size of the pipe and the method of closing the joints, the trouble from stoppages will be very much less if the sewer is made absolutely straight both for line and grade and the interior of the joints left clean and smooth.

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(14) No chemicals should be used in a septic tank, except that occasionally, after cleaning out a tank, a deodorant may be used as necessary.

(15) Some attention must be given to every plant to insure success. Unusual or excessive foulness should be investigated. Garbage, rags, newspaper, and other solids not readily soluble in water should be kept out of sewers and sewage tanks.

Figure 33 shows, in plan and elevation, the general features of a simple septic tank installed for a small village home

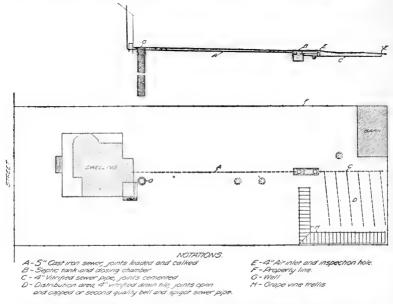
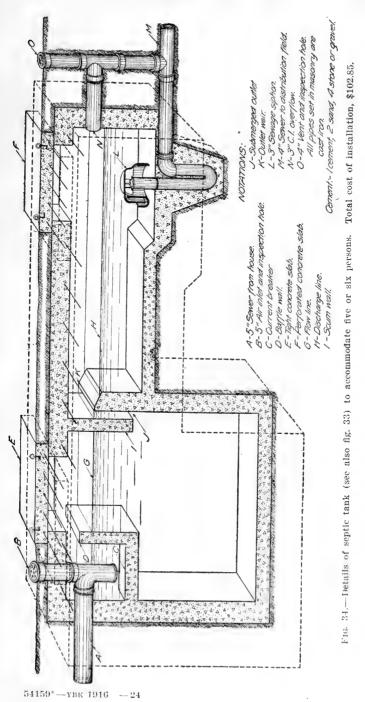


FIG. 33.—Septic-tank installation for private house. Below: General plan of premises and distribution area. Above: Profile of sewer and tank. Note that house sewer past well is cast-iron pipe with leaded and calked joints.

for five or six persons. The disposal area should be farther from the well, but the location is fixed by the limits of the lot. Figure 34 shows the details of the tank. This plant was built complete in Maryland for \$102.85. The cost was distributed as follows:

Excavation	\$7.50
Materials and supplies, delivered	46.60
Siphon, including freight	15.75
Construction, labor	28.00
Supervision	5.00
Total	102.85



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Figures 35 and 36 show the details of the general layout of a more elaborate septic-tank installation for a rural home housing 18 to 20 people.

CONCLUSION.

It has been the purpose of this paper to present the essential features of a number of sanitary utilities adapted to widely differing rural needs and conditions, and also to familiarize the reader with the fundamentals and the vital

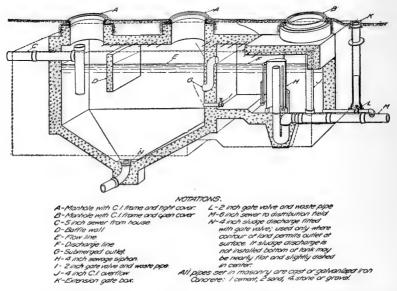


FIG. 35.—Details of septic tank (see also fig. 36) equipped with siphon to discharge sewage about twice a day to distribution area, and with sludge discharge pipe from bottom of tank to facilitate cleaning. Tank accommodates 18 to 20 people.

importance of sewage treatment. Each installation, no matter how small, should be based upon the best possible information and understanding, and calls for the exercise of considerable judgment to subserve the ends of health, cleanliness, convenience, permanence, and economy. Of these several factors the sanitary features unquestionably are of first importance, but every installation should be as convenient and as permanent as can be afforded.

There is general belief that the benefits of good plumbing and sewer systems cost little in the city, but are almost pro-

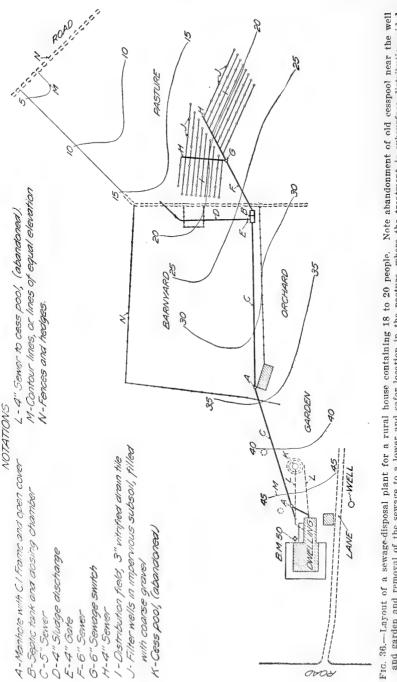
hibitive in the country. That this belief is erroneous is shown clearly by a study of data upon the cost of sewerage systems in various cities, sewer assessments, and comparative values of city and farm properties. For illustration, the city of Newton, Mass., and the State of Iowa afford an interesting comparison. Newton is a well-ordered and highly improved residential city, and about 80 per cent of its population is served by a modern system of separate sewers. About one-third of the cost of this system is assessed on the lands abutting and about two-thirds borne by the issuance of bonds which are retired ultimately from the general tax levy. Iowa is a leading agricultural State and 95 per cent of its area is farm land. In the accompanying table the population of Newton is for the year 1905, while the valuation and sewer statistics include the year 1907. The statistics for Towa are from the 1910 census and exclude all cities.

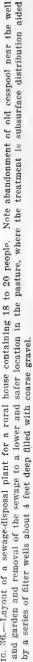
Population,	valuation of	private	property,	and	sewer	data,	Newton,
Mass., and farms of Iowa.							

	Newton, Mass.	Iowa farms.
Population	. 36,827	1,544,717
Homes or farms, number	. 6,525	217,044
Valuation:		
Total	\$67,743,335	\$3,745,860,544
Per capita	. \$1,840	\$2,425
Per home	\$10,382	\$17,259
Sewer mains:		
Length in miles	. 104	
Cost	. \$1,815,103	
Assessments	\$666,142	
House connections. length in miles	. 69	
Houses connected, number	. 5,272	
Average sewer assessment, based on houses connected	\$126	
Average tax levy for retirement of sewer bonds, based on total		
number of houses	\$184	
Average cost of house connections	. \$45	
Average total cost for sewers and house connections	\$355	

From this table it is reasonable to assume that if the average home in Newton, including personal estate, represents a valuation of \$10,382 and pays \$355 for sewers outside the cellar wall, then the average farm in Iowa, representing as it does a valuation of \$17,259, certainly is justified in ex-







pending the comparatively small amount that ordinarily would be required for adequate sewage disposal on the farm. It is true that because of the superior credit of a municipality, of the issuance of bonds running for long terms and bearing low rates of interest, and of the apportionment of sewer assessments over a series of years, the city dweller may have his burden distributed over a considerable period of time. On the other hand, the farmer should not lose sight of the fact that the costs in the city, as in the country, must ultimately be paid, and that deferred payments on sewer assessments seldom bear interest at a less rate than 5 per cent. Moreover, sewer work can be done more cheaply in the country than in the city.



THE STABLE-MANURE BUSINESS OF BIG CITIES.

By C. C. FLETCHER,

Scientist, Investigation of Fertilizer Resources, Bureau of Soils.

FROM New York City alone more than half a million tons of stable manure are shipped to truckers and farmers each year. If for the tonnage of New York City the values of 0.5 per cent nitrogen, 0.25 per cent phosphoric acid, and 0.5 per cent potash be given, there will be available from the stables of this one city 2.500 tons of nitrogen. 1.250 tons of phosphoric acid, and 2.500 tons of potash. Translating this into other terms, the nitrogen is equal to approximately 16,000 tons of nitrate of soda, the phosphoric acid to 8,000 tons of acid phosphate, and the potash to 5.000 tons of sulphate of potash. In all the big cities of the East the collecting and shipping of stable manure is now an established business, conducted by well-organized companies, with agents in smaller places who retail to the The aggregate tonnage reaches a very large consumer. Much of this business represents a clear saving, figure. because at times quantities of manure have been thrown away, not being considered of sufficient value to justify the payment of freight charges. Now, however, stable manure is a recognized article of commerce and brings prices ranging from \$1 a ton or less to as much as \$3, with freight charges added. To the trucker especially the business is a benefit, as it enables him to obtain at a reasonable price a fertilizer which is of great value in the production of his crops.

SHIPMENT.

Although a great part of the manure from cities and towns is used on the truck farms in their immediate vicinity, yet from New York City some of it is shipped by rail to points in Connecticut, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania and by boat to the Norfolk trucking region. Occasional shipments have been sent even to Maine and Florida.

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In many instances the zones of shipment overlap. Thus New York manure is used in the Philadelphia suburbs, and there is a region between New York and Boston where manure is used from both cities. In the trucking region between Baltimore and Washington manure is shipped from both cities, although Baltimore has more of the trade. In Norfolk dealers collect manure on their own account, act as agents for New York concerns, and, in addition, buy manure from stockyards, especially the Richmond stockyards.

As proper disposal of the manure produced in city stables is a sanitary necessity, it must be collected regularly and frequently—practically every day. Many towns, also, particularly in New England, where at times carloads of manure have been left standing on sidings in the main streets, have adopted regulations to govern the handling of such material.

In all cities some of the manure is taken directly from the stable to the farm, under private arrangements, in vehicles of all sorts, from one-horse carts to 5-ton trucks, two-horse wagons predominating. For hauls of more than 20 miles, where the roads are good, trucks are of especial service. Many interurban electric roads now are shipping manure. The manure companies, however, usually ship either by railroad or by boat. The railroad cars used hold from 20 to 50 tons each, averaging about 30 tons. On inland waterways and in protected waters, such as Long Island Sound, open barges are satisfactory, but in open water, as in the haul from New York to Norfolk, the manure is stored beneath the deck. Open barges usually carry from 200 to 500 tons and closed barges as much as 1,200 tons.

GRADING.

Manure companies sometimes divide the fresh manure into two grades, depending on the amount of bedding material included. The standard bedding is straw, but shavings, sawdust, peat moss, and peanut hulls are used sometimes. Straw is better fertilizer material than the other kinds of bedding, except perhaps peat moss, and manure containing straw brings higher prices than where other materials are used. The poorer stables often furnish the best manure, because of greater economy in the use of bedding, and be-

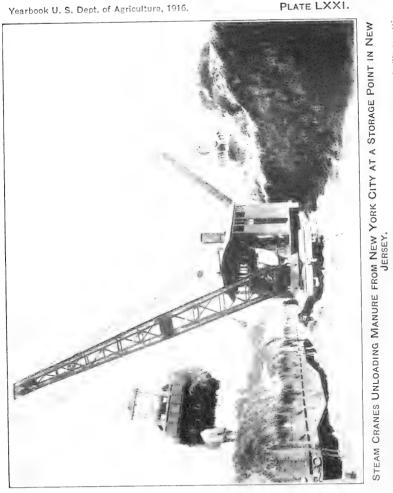


PLATE LXXI.

More than 60,000 tons may be seen at one time. Steam pumps turn the leachings back upon the piles to facilitate rolting.

The Stable-Manure Business of Big Cities.

cause of the drying and re-use of the straw, which increases the amount of urine absorbed by it. In some of the best private stables so much straw is used that the manure is valued chiefly as mulching material.

STORING AND TREATING.

In the summer, when farmers are too busy to haul manure and the prices are low, many manure companies store their supply at points convenient to shipping facilities, but away from centers of population, and sell it later as rotted manure. One large New York company has a storage plant and private railroad vard near Monmouth Junction, N. J., where immense stacks of manure are accumulated in the slack sea-More than 60,000 tons are reported on hand at one son. time. It is handled by steam cranes. Rotting of the stored manure is facilitated by pumping the leachings back upon the piles by means of a steam pump. Part of the manure is dried, ground, and bagged in an up-to-date manufacturing plant and is sold as pulverized stock manure, competing on the market with ordinary mixed commercial fertilizer. This is a more concentrated product than the bulky fresh manure and may be used economically by farmers at greater distances.

QUALITY.

Manure will deteriorate if not properly handled unless preservatives are added, but its low value does not warrant much expenditure for preservation. The addition of acid phosphate, for example, increases the fertilizing value of the manure and lessens the loss of nitrogen, but buyers usually are not willing to pay for the increased value. Adding water in proper quantities also will prevent loss through fermentation, but this may lead to abuses, as the product is sold by weight.

Few products have a value low enough for profitable use in adulterating manure, and although the writer has seen tannery waste, street sweepings, and sawdust used for the purpose, the practice is probably not common. New York City manure has an especially good reputation in this respect, as the street sweepings are collected separately and disposed of by the city. Where possible, however, it is advisable for the farmer himself to see his cars or barges loaded.

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Street sweepings, though considered an adulterant when sold with manure, often can be obtained cheaply enough to justify their purchase. They are valuable principally for the manure they contain, but are extremely variable. When taken from highways over which there is much automobile traffic they may contain sufficient mineral oil to render their agricultural use dangerous.

SUPPLY.

The supply of manure is dependent upon the number of horses in use in cities. In some cases the number is decreasing, though the decrease appears to be slow, and in some cities horses have increased. Opinions differ greatly as to the permanence of the city manure supply, but for some time at least it probably will be an important source of fertility for the trucking districts. As it is safe to count 5 tons of manure per horse per year, the possible quantity of manure from a city may be calculated roughly if the number of horses is known.

BENEFITS.

Ordinarily it is not advisable for the general farmer to buy manure from the city if he can produce it on his farm, as his crops, owing to their lower acreage value, will not stand as high an outlay for fertilizers as will the truck crops. The railroads usually make so low a rate on manure that there is probably little direct profit in handling it. The increase in crops following its use, however, makes more tonnage of crops to be moved and also a more prosperous agricultural community with more buying power. As to truckers, there seems to be little doubt that those who are using large amounts of manure are the ones who are usually successful. While manure can be bought ordinarily at from \$1 per ton or less to around \$3 f. o. b., it has been known in special instances to return a profit when costing \$5 spread on the truck field or in the cold frame.

The question is often asked as to whether it is advisable to use stable manure or commercial fertilizer. In most cases it is better to use both, but in case of doubt stable manure should be used, as it adds to the soil not only potash, nitrogen, and phosphoric acid, but also beneficial bacteria and humus. In cases where manure can be obtained at a reasonable price, it should find a use on a great number of farms. In estimating its agricultural value a number of factors must be considered. The chemical constituents in it may be worth only a given amount, but the effect of the manure in improving the texture of the soil often may amount to a great deal more than the value of the chemicals it contains. Also, it must be remembered that the results are more lasting than is the case with most of the other soil amendments. At the present time the cost of manure in general is below its agricultural value. In fact, one of the reasons for the increased cost of stable manure is a greater general appreciation of this fact.

Land near a big city sometimes may be bought cheaply and built up by the generous use of stable manure. If good farming is practiced, there is a fair chance of success by this method. The author has seen land appreciate in value more than 300 per cent in 5 years by the use of city stable manure, while at the same time giving a consistent profit in crops grown. And if these profits are made by the use of manure purchased in the large city markets at upward of \$1 per ton, how much greater profits are to be made by the use of similar material in many places where it may be obtained for the expense of hauling.

Where sufficient manure is not obtainable, it is possible to mix the manure secured with several times its volume of peat or muck and thus secure a compost which has a value almost equal to that of manure itself. This is increased in value by the addition of acid phosphate.



DESTROYING RODENT PESTS ON THE FARM.

By DAVID E. LANTZ.

Assistant Biologist. Bureau of Biological Survey.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE tiller of the soil has enemies on all sides, eager to and mold assail him unexpectedly, while a constant warfare against him is carried on by insects and other animal pests. Rodents are among the most persistent and aggressive of his animal enemies, and against them he is often more helpless even than against insect pests, because he has had less instruction as to their habits and the means of fighting them. To assist him by giving short accounts of the more important rodents that injure farm, ranch, and orchard, together with brief practical directions for destroying the pests, is the purpose of this article.

Unfortunately, it is impossible to separate animals into two great classes, putting into one the species that are injurious on the farm or elsewhere and into the other those that are beneficial. A species may be desirable in one situation and objectionable in another or its useful and harmful activities may be so blended that it can not be placed in either class. Other species that do no actual damage to man's interests may be without beneficial habits or economic value. While these statements are true of all classes of animals, they apply with special force to rodents, an order of mammals often regarded as wholly noxious.

The rodents of North and Middle America include about 1,350 forms, that is, species and geographic races recognized by naturalists. These belong to 77 distinct groups called genera, 44 of which have representatives north of Mexico. These 44 groups include about 750 forms that inhabit the United States and Canada. Many of them live in deserts, mountains, and swamps and rarely come in contact with cultivated crops. These, therefore, can not be classed as injurious; and, indeed, many of them are beneficial to the soil, as they stir it up and fit it for future agricultural uses. A few rodents feed largely upon insects and help to keep a check upon the hordes of grasshoppers and similar pests. Certain of the rodents, too, as the beaver and the muskrat, have

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a decided economic value as fur bearers; while others, as the rabbits and the tree squirrels, afford sport in hunting and are useful as human food.

The noxiousness of rodents depends, therefore, largely upon the locality in which they live and upon their relation to man and his interests. All are chiefly vegetarian in diet and by reason of their rapid reproduction are capable of becoming pests; but it is only when they are actively injurious that means of control are needed. The right of animals to live when they are harmless must always be conceded.

Probably no term applied to animals has been so generally misused as the word "vermin." Originally restricted to small creeping animals, wormlike in their movements, and especially to insects, the term has been broadened by English gamekeepers to include all enemies of ground game. Usage now sometimes applies the term to all animals that are supposed to be either harmful or useless. Writers on game protection are often vehement in their condemnation of "vermin," forgetting that what may be so considered by one person may from the standpoint of another be highly useful. The interests of the sportsman or gamekeeper often run counter to those of his farmer neighbor, and they frequently clash on such matters as rabbit protection and the enforcement of trespass laws. A better understanding of the habits of birds and mammals, especially of their food and the interrelation of species that prev and are preved upon, will greatly restrict the number of animals that may properly be called "vermin." Under natural conditions few can rightly be so designated: but man has interfered with nature until he has disturbed its balance. He has introduced artificial conditions and so changed the environments of animals that some have prospered while others have been driven out. The species that have been most favored by man's activities are, unfortunately, those that have been most harmful to his interests. As a result he must now make warfare upon foes that were once inoffensive.

HARMFUL NATIVE RODENTS.

Only four of the many forms of wild rodents found within the United States have been introduced; the others are indigenous to the country. Native rodents include among harmful kinds the short-tailed field mice, white-footed mice, cotton rats, kangaroo rats, pocket gophers, ground squirrels, prairie-dogs, woodchucks, and rabbits. A few others occasionally do slight damage to crops or other property.

SHORT-TAILED FIELD MICE.

Several groups, or genera, of short-tailed field mice occur in the United States and Canada, but only two of them have, by reason of their abundance in cultivated regions, become serious pests. These are commonly known as meadow mice¹ and pine mice.²

Meadow mice are widely distributed, inhabiting most parts of the Northern Hemisphere. Their invasion and ravages of crops in France, Hungary, Greece, England, Scotland, and elsewhere are matters of history. In the United States we have many species, but, fortunately, have thus far had no widespread plagues of the animals like those that have occurred abroad. However, there have been many local outbreaks, notably that of 1907-8 in the Humboldt Valley. Nevada, where much of the alfalfa crop was utterly ruined. Fortunately, few of our species come in contact with farm operations, but these few sometimes multiply enormously and inflict heavy damage by attacking and girdling fruit trees and by destroying other crops. Their presence is indicated by their many surface trails under dead grass, weeds, or other trash. The animals usually avoid open spaces, where they are exposed to such enemies as hawks and owls, birds which make these mice the chief part of their diet.

Depredations by meadow mice may be greatly lessened and serious outbreaks prevented by clean cultivation, the elimination of old fence rows, and the prompt burning of dead weeds and other trash.

Pine mice, like moles, burrow underground, where their tunnels are similar in extent and intricacy to the surface runways of meadow mice; but as their natural habitat is the woods, they come less frequently in contact with farm crops. Their most serious depredations are in orchards, although they often do serious damage in lawns and plantations ad-

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joining woodlands by eating bulbs and gnawing the roots of shrubbery. In such situations they frequently also destroy potatoes, peanuts, and newly planted seeds of truck crops. Their concealed operations permit them to do much harm before their presence is suspected. For this reason, also, they are less often the victims of birds of prey.

Ordinary mouse traps of the guillotine type, baited with rolled oats and set in runways of either meadow or pine mice, will free a small area of the animals; but for large areas or for operations against considerable numbers of these mice, poisons are recommended.

For poisoning meadow mice on large areas the following methods are recommended:

Dry-grain formula.—Mix thoroughly 1 ounce powdered strychnine (alkaloid), 1 ounce powdered bicarbonate of soda, and $\frac{1}{8}$ ounce (or less) of saccharine. Put the mixture in a tin pepperbox and sift it gradually over 50 pounds of crushed wheat or 40 pounds of crushed oats in a metal tub, mixing the grain constantly so that the poison will be evenly distributed. Dry mixing has the advantage that the grain may be kept any length of time without fermentation. If it is desired to moisten the grain to facilitate thorough mixing, it will be well to use a thin starch paste (as described below, but without strychnine) before applying the poison. The starch soon hardens and fermentation is not likely to follow.

If crushed oats or wheat can not be obtained, whole oats may be used, but they should be of good quality. As mice hull the oats before eating them it is desirable to have the poison penetrate the kernels. A very thin starch paste is recommended as a medium for applying poison to the grain. Prepare as follows:

Wet-grain formula.—Dissolve 1 ounce of strychnine (sulphate) in 2 quarts of boiling water. Dissolve 2 tablespoonfuls of laundry starch in $\frac{1}{2}$ pint of cold water. Add the starch to the strychnine solution and boil for a few minutes until the starch is clear. Pour the hot starch over 1 bushel of oats in a metal tub and stir thoroughly. Let the grain stand overnight to absorb the poison.

The poisoned grain prepared by either of the above formulas is to be distributed over the infested area, not more than a teaspoonful at a place, care being taken to put it in mouse runs and at the entrances of burrows. To avoid destroying birds it should whenever possible be placed under such shelters as piles of weeds, straw, brush, or other litter, or under boards. Small drain tiles $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter have sometimes been used to advantage to hold poisoned grain, but old tin cans with the edges bent nearly together will serve the same purpose.

Chopped alfalfa hay poisoned with strychnine was successfully used to destroy meadow mice in Nevada during the serious outbreak of the animals in 1907-8. One ounce of strychnine (sulphate) dissolved in 2 gallons of hot water was found sufficient to poison 30 pounds of chopped alfalfa previously moistened with water. This bait, distributed in small quantities at a place, was very effective against the mice and did not endanger birds.

For poisoning mice in small areas, as lawns, gardens, seed beds, vegetable pits, and the like, a convenient bait may be prepared from ordinary rolled oats, as follows:

For small areas.—Dissolve $\frac{1}{16}$ ounce of strychnine in 1 pint of boiling water and pour it over as much oatmeal (about 2 pounds) as it will wet. Mix until all the grain is moistened. Put it out, a teaspoonful at a place, under shelter of weed and brush piles or wide boards.

The poisoned oatmeal is adapted for killing either meadow or pine mice, but for the latter, sweet potatoes, prepared as follows, have proved even more effective:

Potato formula.—Cut sweet potatoes into pieces about as large as good-sized grapes. Place in a metal pan or tub and wet with water. Drain off the water and with a tin pepperbox slowly sift over them powdered strychnine (alkaloid preferred), stirring constantly so that the poison is evenly distributed. An ounce of strychnine should poison a bushel of the cut bait.

The bait, whether of grain or pieces of potato, may be dropped into the pine mouse tunnels through the natural openings or through holes made with pieces of broom handle or other stick. Bird life will not be endangered by these baits.

WHITE-FOOTED MICE.

White-footed mice, or deer mice,¹ are of many species and are present in almost all parts of the country. They live in fields and woods, and while they feed on grain to some extent they rarely are present on cultivated lands in sufficient numbers to do serious harm. Occasionally they invade greenhouses or hotbeds and destroy seeds or sprouting plants. In the seed beds of nurserymen and especially in those of the forester who tries to grow conifers they often do much injury. They are, in fact, the most serious pests known to the conifer nurseries of the Forest Service.

In ordinary places white-footed mice may be readily poisoned by the methods recommended for meadow and pine mice. Unfortunately, the seed of the pine is the favorite food of those animals and where it is planted in abundance they refuse to take grain baits. Crushed pine seeds poisoned with strychnine by the "wet-grain formula," given above, has proved effective in such places. Preliminary poisoning of these mice on areas to be seeded to pine is highly recommended. For seed beds, poisoning on surrounding areas two or three times a year will usually prevent the approach of mice and give immunity to the planted seeds.

COTTON RATS.

In parts of the Southern States a large native mouse or rat, commonly known as the cotton rat,¹ often becomes a field pest. Of some 28 known forms of this animal, 7 occur north of Mexico, in Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, Oklahoma, and southern Kansas and along the Gulf coast from Louisiana to Florida.

Cotton rats damage growing crops to some extent, but are especially destructive to grain in shocks. In many of their habits they are similar to meadow mice and they multiply fully as fast. They chiefly inhabit weedy borders and areas covered with old grass, where they are sheltered from enemies. They do not often attack the bark of trees, but, being larger than meadow mice, they are capable of destroying much more grain in a short time. They destroy melons and other truck crops and have been a serious pest to date growers in Arizona.

Cotton rats are easily poisoned by the same methods recommended for destroying meadow mice.

KANGAROO RATS.

Fifty-nine known species and races of kangaroo rats, belonging to three groups, inhabit North America, and 45 of them occur north of Mexico. Two groups² are widely distributed in the West; they differ in anatomical characters, but are much alike in general appearance and habits. The third group ¹ includes three species and one race of very small animals, all of which are rather restricted in range and of slight economic importance. Kangaroo rats are gentle, easily tamed, and make sprightly and interesting pets. They live mostly in deserts, sagebrush country, and sandy places and are harmless until pioneer agriculture is pushed into these regions. They feed to some extent on green vegetation, but mainly on seeds. As they do not hibernate they lay up large stores of winter food in their burrows. They are gregarious, but being nocturnal in their activities they are seldom seen by day.

In the sand-hill and sagebrush country of the West there is much complaint of destruction of pioneer crops by kangaroo rats. The areas first cultivated are usually small, and the animals sometimes destroy an entire crop. Where corn is planted they take all the seed, securing not only temporary food, but storing in their caches large quantities for future use. They are destructive to other grains also and dig up newly planted melon and other seeds. Vegetable gardening is an impossibility where kangaroo rats are abundant. The choice is between making warfare on and destroving the animals or abandoning cultivation. Fortunately, they take poisoned grain readily and are easily trapped with baits of grain. The poison recommended for prairie-dogs is well adapted to destroy kangaroo rats. Trapping with guillotine traps, although successful, is usually too slow to be practicable.

In some instances farmers in the sandhills of the West prevent depredations by kangaroo rats and succeed in growing crops of corn by stirring the seed in hot water in which there has been mixed enough coal tar to coat the grain slightly. A large spoonful of coal tar to a gallon of boiling water is used. When the mixture has cooled somewhat the corn may be stirred in and allowed to remain several minutes without danger to germination.

POCKET GOPHERS.

Pouched rats, commonly called pocket gophers, are among the most serious of rodent pests in most of the States west of the Mississippi River. They occur also in parts of Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, in the greater part of Illinois, and in southern Wisconsin. Outside the United States they are abundant southward in many parts of Mexico and Central America, and northward in northwestern Canada to Winnipeg and the Saskatchewan Valley.

Nine groups, or genera, of pocket gophers are recognized, but only three of them occur north of Mexico. Two of these¹ have a very wide distribution. They include many species and varieties, all nearly similar in habits and alike destructive. Many forms inhabit mountains and deserts, where they do not injure agriculture. Others, however, live in the richest alluvial soils, where they are destructive to all crops.

Pocket gophers do harm in many ways. They eat growing grain and cover much of it with soil. They cause loss of hay in digging burrows, by throwing up mounds which prevent close mowing. These mounds also injure much machinery. Their burrows admit surface water and aid it to wash out deep gullies on sloping land. By piercing dams and embankments the tunnels cause costly breaks. The animals ruin gardens and injure field crops. Besides all this they kill trees in orchards and forest plantings by gnawing off the roots.

Two practical methods of killing pocket gophers are always possible—trapping and poisoning. The first method is slow, but very effective on small areas or where but few pocket gophers are present; the other is the better plan on large fields and for cooperative work on adjacent farms.

While the ordinary steel trap may be used successfully for pocket gophers, much better results can be obtained with the special traps for these animals commonly on the market. In irrigated districts, where water is available, flooding the land will drive out the animals, and they may be killed by men and dogs. Fumigation of the burrows with carbon bisulphide or with sulphur smoke, while often recommended as a means of destroying pocket gophers, has been found extremely uncertain and costly.

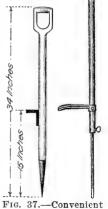
Poison for pocket gophers.—To poison pocket gophers, cut sweet potatoes or parsnips into pieces whose largest diameter is less than an inch. Wash and drain 4 quarts of the cut baits. Place in a metal pan, and from a pepperbox slowly sift over the dampened baits $\frac{1}{5}$ ounce of powdered strychnine (alkaloid) and one-tenth as much saccharine (well shaken together or ground together in a mortar), stirring it to distribute the poison evenly.

Tunnels of pocket gophers, which are usually from 3 to 8 inches below the surface of the ground, may be readily located by means of a probe. Any blacksmith can make one by affixing a metal point to a shovel or spade handle and

attaching an iron foot rest about 15 or 16 inches above the point. By forcing this instrument into the soil near the pocket-gopher workings or a foot or two back of fresh mounds, one can feel the open tunnel as the point breaks into it. The hole may be enlarged and its sides made firm by pressing the soil laterally with the probe. A bait or two should be dropped into the tunnel and the probe hole covered. Care should be taken to place the baits in the main tunnels rather than in the short laterals leading to mounds. Different forms of probes have been used successfully by the Biological Survey in its demonstration work. Two of the better kinds are illustrated in figure 37.

GROUND SQUIRRELS.

More than 50 species and races of ground squirrels, or spermophiles,¹ inhabit the United States and Canada, and some of them are so numerous in agricultural regions as to be a constant menace to crops. The spermophiles comprise a group



probes for locating pocket-gopher runs.

of long, slender animals, of grayish or grayish-brown color—sometimes mottled or striped—and with a medium or long tail, usually less bushy than that of the larger of the tree squirrels. These ground squirrels are often, but wrongly, called "gophers" and are locally named "digger" squirrels and "picket pins." They inhabit mainly open plains, mountain valleys, and borders of wet meadows, but are found also in open places in the forests and sometimes high up the

¹Genus Citellus.

slopes of mountains. They dig numerous deep burrows and are very destructive to nearly all crops, eating both the growing plants and the ripe or ripening grain. In irrigated districts the animals burrow in embankments and levees and are almost as troublesome as pocket gophers.

Among the largest and most destructive of these animals is the California, or "digger," ground squirrel.¹ It is gray in color and has a long, rather bushy tail. It occurs in the Southwest and West from western Texas to California and Oregon. In parts of California the race known as the Beechev ground squirrel is especially abundant and menaces not only crops and irrigation ditches, but also human life, in that it is a known carrier of bubonic plague. About a dozen cases of this disease among human beings have been traced directly to this squirrel and a large number of the animals collected by the United States Public Health Service have been found infected. The Health Service, in cooperation with State authorities, has succeeded in establishing south and east of San Francisco, in the counties that were the center of infection, a wide zone now comparatively free from squirrels. The United States Department of Agriculture, through the Biological Survey, has exterminated most of the squirrels in the National Forests that lie near the plague-infected coun-It is probable that all immediate danger of an outties. break of human plague by infection from ground squirrels has passed.

Another large and destructive species is the Columbian ground squirrel.² It occurs within the United States in parts of Montana, Idaho, eastern Washington, and eastern Oregon. While it inhabits chiefly the river valleys, it has been taken in Montana on mountains near timber line. Where grain is grown in the narrow valleys and in the important wheat districts of eastern Washington this species is extremely injurious. Early attempts to destroy it by poison proved unsuccessful, because the animal is able to resist much larger doses of strychnine than are needed to kill other ground squirrels.

A destructive and widely distributed species is the Richardson ground squirrel.³ In its larger form it is found in

¹ Citellus grammurus grammurus and closely related races.

² Citellus columbianus.

³ Citellus richardsoni richardsoni and Citellus richardsoni elegans.

Destroying Rodent Pests on the Farm.

much of Montana, the Dakotas, and northward far into Canada. A somewhat smaller race (*elegans*) is found in Wyoming, northern Colorado, and eastern Idaho. This spermophile is very destructive to crops, especially to grain, and within its range warfare against it is absolutely necessary to successful farming.

The striped ground squirrel,¹ the Franklin ground squirrel,² and some other species, which are less gregarious and seldom occur in great numbers in any locality, are less destructive than any of the three groups named. Other species are nearly as injurious as those described. The animals have been dealt with in three groups, because slightly different formulas for poisoning each of them have been worked out by field investigators of the Biological Survey. The formula for the Richardson ground squirrel is adapted for all the species except the Columbian and the California forms.

Poison for Columbian ground squirrels.—Mix 1 ounce of powdered strychnine (alkaloid), 1 ounce of powdered bicarbonate of soda, 1 teaspoonful of saccharine, and ½ pound of dry powdered laundry starch, and stir with enough cold water to make a smooth, creamy paste. Apply to 12 quarts of good, clean oats in a metal tub or other vessel and stir thoroughly to distribute the poison evenly. When the poisoned grain is dry, scatter it along squirrel trails or on hard soil on the surface near the squirrel burrows. A quart of the grain should make 40 to 50 baits, and if properly distributed stock will not be endangered by this quantity.

Poison for Richardson ground squirrels.—Mix 1 tablespoonful of laundry starch in $\frac{1}{2}$ teacup of cold water, and stir it into $\frac{1}{2}$ pint of boiling water to make it a thin, clear mucilage. Mix 1 ounce of powdered strychnine with 1 ounce of powdered bicarbonate of soda, and stir the mixture into the hot starch, making a smooth, creamy paste free from lumps. Stir in $\frac{1}{4}$ pint of heavy corn sirup and 1 tablespoonful of glycerine, and, finally, 1 scant teaspoonful of saccharine. Apply to 20 quarts of oats, and mix thoroughly to coat every kernel. Each quart of the poisoned grain should make 40 to 60 baits. Distribute in same manner as stated for poisoning Columbian ground squirrels.

Poison for California, or "digger," ground squirrels.—Prepare by same formula as for Richardson ground squirrel, but use 16 quarts of clean barley instead of oats. Distribute as for poisoning Columbian ground squirrels.

These poisons may be used at any time of the year when the squirrels are active. The Biological Survey has had ex-

¹ Citellus tridecemlineatus.	² Citellus	franklini.
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cellent results with them, even in midsummer. Trapping is too slow a process to use effectively against large colonies of ground squirrels.

PRAIRIE-DOGS.

The marmot, or prairie-dog,¹ of the Great Plains needs little description. It is widely distributed on the plains east of the Rocky Mountains, from northern Mexico almost to the Canadian border. Several other forms occupy the mountain valleys and parks westward. All live in thickly populated colonies, or "towns," and subsist on vegetation. They often take fully half the pasturage on the ranges and greatly reduce the carrying capacity for live stock. Several western States have attempted to provide for the extermination of prairie-dogs through legislative enactments; and in some of them, notably Kansas, the pest has greatly decreased. Within the National Forests settlers have complained of inability to cope with the animals, because their lands when freed from prairie-dogs are reinfested from the surrounding Government lands. For this reason and for range improvement the Department of Agriculture has undertaken systematic extermination work within the Forests and has already succeeded in freeing large areas of these animals.

Trapping is too slow a method for exterminating prairiedogs and fumigation is too expensive. As in the case of ground squirrels, strychnine has proved to be the most satisfactory poison. Oats of the best quality obtainable should be used as bait. It has been found that prairie-dogs take this grain readily, even when green food is abundant. Wheat is well adapted for winter poisoning, and in the South, where heavy oats are rarely obtainable, milo or feterita is an excellent substitute.

Poison for prairie-dogs.—Mix thoroughly 1 ounce of powdered strychnine (alkaloid) and 1 ounce of common baking soda (bicarbonate). Dissolve 1 heaping tablespoonful of dry laundry starch in a little cold water and add it to $\frac{3}{4}$ pint of boiling water. Boil and stir until a thin, clear paste is formed. Slowly sift the mixture of strychnine and soda into the starch paste, stirring constantly to form a smooth, creamy mass. Add $\frac{1}{4}$ pint of heavy corn sirup and 1 tablespoonful of glycerine, and stir. Add $\frac{1}{4}$ ounce of saccharine, and again stir thoroughly. Pour this mixture while still hot over 13 quarts of clean oats and mix until all the grain is coated.

¹ Oynomys ludovicianus.

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PLATE LXXII.



FIG. I.-MOUNTAIN BEAVER (APLODONTIA).



FIG. 2.-BADGER (TAXIDEA TAXUS), USEFUL IN DESTROYING NOXIOUS RODENTS.

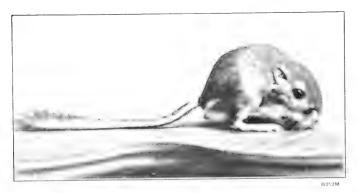
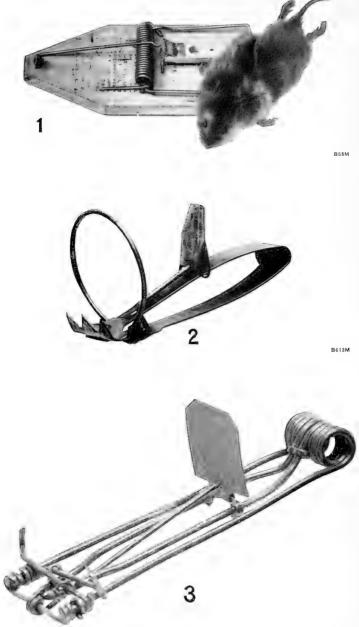


FIG. 3.-KANGAROO RAT (PERODIPUS RICHARDSONI), ADULT, ONE DAY AFTER CAPTURE.



PLATE LXXIII.

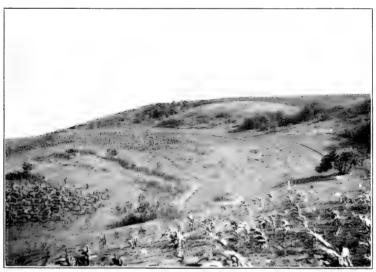


BEITM

(1) MEADOW MOUSE CAUGHT IN GUILLOTINE TRAP. (2, 3) TYPES OF SPECIAL POCKET-GOPHER TRAPS.



FIG. I.-BREAK IN IRRIGATION DITCH (LATERAL) CAUSED BY BURROWS OF CALIFORNIA GROUND SQUIRREL. SIX ACRES OF ALFALFA RUINED.



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FIG. 2.-CORNFIELD RUINED BY COLUMBIAN GROUND SQUIRRELS.



FIG. I.-EROSION FOLLOWING THE DESTRUCTION OF GRASS BY PRAIRIE DOGS.

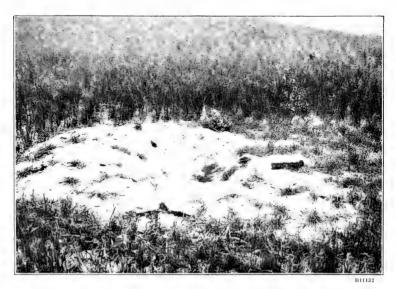
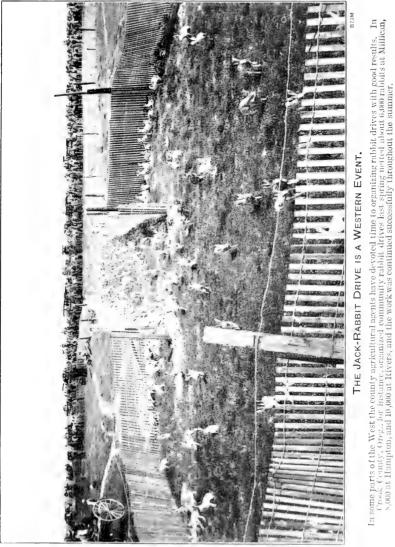


FIG. 2. - MOUND OF CALIFORNIA GROUND SQUIRREL IN OATS FIELD.

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If alkaloid strychnine is not available, the sulphate may be used, . either powdered or in crystals, but it is necessary to vary the formula. Dissolve the strychnine in the boiling water before adding the cold starch. After the poisoned starch paste is clear, stir in the soda very slowly. Afterwards add the sirup, glycerine, and saccharine as in the above directions and mix with the grain.

For mixing small quantities an ordinary metal washtub is convenient. For large quantities a tight, smooth box may be used, and the mixing done with a hoe or spade.

Each quart of the prepared grain is sufficient to treat about 50 prairie-dog burrows. Scatter the grain on clean, hard ground near the mounds or burrows, never on loose soil or in the holes. With reasonable care, cattle, sheep, or other live stock on the range will not be endangered.

This poison is effective at any season when prairie-dogs are active, but, on the whole, early spring or a time of drought, when green food is scarce, is preferred for poison operations. In the South, or wherever the animals do not hibernate, winter poisoning is recommended. The cost of complete extermination of the animals, including labor, need not exceed 4 or 5 cents an acre.

WOODCHUCKS.

The woodchuck, or ground hog, is the largest of our mar-The common woodchuck¹ inhabits eastern North mots America from northern Georgia and middle Alabama northward, including the greater part of Canada. In the United States it ranges westward to Arkansas, eastern Kansas, and eastern Minnesota. In Canada it is found as far north as Great Slave Lake and westward to the base of the Rocky Mountains. Another species of woodchuck² inhabits the higher country of the Black Hills, Rocky Mountains, Sierra Nevada, Cascades, and other ranges in the West. This mountain form seldom comes in contact with agriculture. but the eastern species frequently damages garden vegetables, clover, and other crops. Also, its burrows and mounds interfere with mowing and other farm operations. In some States the animal is regarded as so obnoxious that local bounties are paid for destroying it.

Woodchucks, while somewhat gregarious, seldom occur in large colonies, and may, therefore, be kept in check by shoot-

¹ Marmota monax monax and several geographic races.

² Marmota flaviventris flaviventris and nearly a dozen races.

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ing or trapping. They may be poisoned by strychnine inserted in pieces of sweet apple, carrot, or sweet potato. The animals are often destroyed in their burrows by fumigation with carbon bisulphide or by the discharge of blasting powder.

To destroy woodchucks with carbon bisulphide, saturate a wad of cotton or waste with about $1\frac{1}{2}$ ounces of the liquid. Place the cotton well inside the woodchuck burrow and close the opening with a piece of sod, well stamped down. If there are two or more entrances to a burrow, all but one should be tightly closed before fumigation.

RABBITS.

The smaller forms of rabbits, known generally as cottontails,¹ are useful animals and become objectionable only when too numerous in the vicinity of orchards or nurseries. The same is true of the larger snowshoe rabbits.² The jack rabbits² of the West are of less value for human food, and, by reason of their abundance in newly settled regions, often interfere greatly with crops and the growing of orchard and other trees.

Jack rabbits are not protected in any of the States, but are everywhere regarded as a pest. They afford considerable sport in coursing with fleet greyhounds, but at times they become so abundant and destructive that entire communities unite to kill them by the organized hunt or drive. A large area is surrounded and the animals are driven toward some central point, where a wire corral has been built, into which, with the help of wing barriers, thousands of rabbits are driven and then slaughtered. When these hunts take place in cold weather the rabbits are usually shipped to large cities, where the carcasses are either sold to canning establishments or distributed to public charities.

Many of the States which have a close season for cottontail or other native rabbits permit landowners at any time to protect property from the depredations of the animals. Usually, however, close hunting and trapping in the open season afford ample protection, and only in exceptional cases is it necessary to resort to other measures for relief. Except where deep snows fall, orchards or other crops on small areas may be protected by the use of rabbit-proof fencing. Individual trees may be safeguarded by metal or wooden protectors attached to the trunks. In Idaho a poisoned wash of strychnine, glycerine, and starch proved effective to save trees from jack rabbits, and the method is recommended for trial in any locality where conditions warrant its use. The wash is prepared as follows:

Poison wash.—Dissolve 1 ounce of strychnine (sulphate) in 3 quarts of boiling water. Dissolve $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of laundry starch in 1 pint of cold water, stirring thoroughly. Pour the starch into the vessel containing the strychnine and boil the mixture a short time until the starch is clear. Add 6 ounces of glycerine and stir. When the paste is cool enough apply to tree trunks with a paint brush.

The mixture adheres well and forms a thin coating. If rabbits attack the tree they will be killed before it is seriously injured. The wash should not be used if live stock, especially young cattle, have access to the orchard.

For poisoning jack rabbits in winter the following formula is recommended:

Poison baits.—Good oats, 12 quarts; powdered strychnine, 1 ounce; laundry starch, 1 tablespoonful; soda (bicarbonate), 1 ounce; saccharine, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce; water, 1 quart. Prepare as directed for mixing prairie-dog poison. Not over a tablespoonful of the poisoned grain should be used in a single bait, and this should be scattered considerably. A little alfalfa hay may be used to attract rabbits to the grain. The poison is especially effective when snow covers the ground.

Partly ripened or ripe heads of barley or wheat soaked in a sweetened solution of strychnine or coated with the starchstrychnine paste just described have also proved effective baits for rabbits, but care must be exercised in using them, as they are likely to be eaten by live stock.

OTHER NATIVE RODENTS.

Other native rodents that occasionally damage crops or other property are the muskrat, mountain beaver,¹ woodrats,² tree squirrels, chipmunks, and perhaps some species of native mice not already mentioned. Muskrats are valuable fur animals and should not be destroyed unless they are doing material damage not otherwise preventable. They are easily trapped or may be poisoned by feeding them pieces of carrot, sweet apple, or sweet potato in which strychnine has been placed.

Mountain beavers in the United States are restricted to the coastal region of Washington, Oregon, and California, and to the Sierra Nevada in the last-named State. Their habitat does not often bring them in contact with agriculture, but in western Washington considerable complaint of their depredations on crops, particularly small fruits, has been made. The animals may readily be poisoned with apples in which strychnine has been placed.

Squirrels, chipmunks, and native mice not previously mentioned rarely do serious damage. If any become troublesome locally, shooting, trapping, or the poisons herein recommended for other rodents will prove a satisfactory means of relief.

INTRODUCED RODENTS.

The house mouse and three kinds of rats are the only rodent pests in North America not native to the country. They are our most injurious rodents, however, and probably inflict greater losses than do all the native species combined.

House mice are easily trapped or poisoned, but poison is not suited for use in occupied dwellings. Traps, however, are sufficiently effective for clearing the premises of these pests. The ordinary small guillotine traps are recommended. They should be set as lightly as possible and baited with oatmeal (rolled oats). A few grains should be placed on the trigger pan and a little more in the vicinity and close to the trap. Persistent trapping will soon clear an ordinary dwell-. ing of mice.

Rats are much more suspicious than mice and are rather hard to trap or poison. Either method of destroying them may be made effective by making inaccessible all food other than the baits used. The importance of rat-proofing buildings in extensive operations against these pests should not be overlooked; and much loss may be prevented by rat-proofing all containers of stored grains and food products. No one kind of poison can be relied upon to be effective under every circumstance. In general, poisons can not be used in occupied dwellings without disagreeable results, for no poison will prevent decomposition of dead bodies of rats. Inside of residences, therefore, traps must be the main reliance. Simple traps of the guillotine type are recommended as best. Baits should be varied to suit local conditions—in meat markets grains are recommended, and where grain is stored meat and fish are more effective.

Some cats and some dogs are useful against rats, but the well-fed and pampered feline or canine will refuse to hunt them. Ferrets are of no use in rat catching unless handled by an experienced person helped by trained dogs. Rat viruses seldom prove satisfactory, and in occupied premises are open to the same objections that hold against poisons; besides, they are much more expensive.

Under most circumstances the best results in ridding premises of rats may be obtained by the use of a sufficient number of ordinary guillotine traps. Oatmeal is recommended for bait, but fish, bacon, sausage, and even pastry or cheese are sometimes useful as alternatives. Traps should be set lightly and all food other than baits covered or made inaccessible. Traps may be placed in runs, behind furniture or boards leaned against the walls, or at the entrances to rat holes. As they are often sprung when rats run over them, they need not always be baited. It is needless to say that in order to succeed, the trapper must take an interest in his work and attend closely to every detail.

RELATION OF CARNIVOROUS ANIMALS TO RODENTS.

Most carnivorous or flesh-eating animals feed extensively on the rodent pests of the farm. Coyotes, foxes, wildcats, badgers, skunks, minks, and other flesh-eating mammals are among the most potent agents in preventing an undue increase of mice, ground squirrels, pocket gophers, and the like; and much of the damage now done by rodents is due to the unceasing warfare that has been waged against carnivorous animals. These have been hunted, not only for their valuable pelts, but because they are considered the enemies of domestic animals and game. The fact that many of them destroy far more noxious rodents than they do useful animals has often been forgotten, and, in the name of game protection, legislatures have sometimes proscribed by bounties species that do far more good than harm. As a matter of fact many of our fur animals are an asset to the country, equally as valuable as our game, and experience has often proved that their destruction is no real help to game conservation.

Birds of prev, including eagles, hawks, and owls, may be included in the list of flesh-eating animals that on the whole are more useful than harmful, because their chief economic function is to destroy noxious rodents. A few species of hawks that feed mainly on small birds should be considered noxious, but this should not lead to warfare against hawks as a class. In almost every instance of depredations on poultry by either bird or mammal, the individual and not the species is the offender. Punishment should, therefore, be directed against the individual. It is within the law in many States for the farmer to kill an animal that destrovs his property: but it is unjust to carry on an offensive campaign against all hawks or all minks because one has been a marau-The payment of money from the public der on poultry. treasury in a general warfare against certain hawks or owls is especially open to danger, in that the public does not distinguish between species, and the useful ones are most likely to be destroyed.

Snakes also are extremely useful in controlling the numbers of rodents. That very few snakes are venomous is too often forgotten, and all species are wantonly destroyed. People throughout the country should acquaint themselves with the habits of snakes and learn the folly of killing them; while farmers, especially, should do all in their power to protect the harmless kinds.

COOPERATION IN CONTROLLING RODENTS.

Any farmer may by care and industry free his own premises of harmful rodents, but he is helpless to prevent an early recurrence of the trouble unless he can secure the active cooperation of his neighbors. Only by unity of effort can an entire county or township be freed of any kind of rodent that may inflict losses on crops or other property. By combining to hire labor and purchase poison the cost of treatment may be materially reduced, and when permanance of results is considered there can be no question of the economy of such cooperation. It is urged, therefore, that wherever possible the destruction of rodent pests be made a community undertaking.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF THE SUGAR-BEET SEED INDUSTRY IN THE UNITED STATES.

By C. O. TOWNSEND,

Pathologist in Charge of Sugar-Beet Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry.

WING to the disturbed agricultural and trade conditions in Europe since August, 1914, the importance of developing an American beet-seed industry of sufficient magnitude to meet our requirements has become imperative. The united efforts of the Department of Agriculture and the Department of State, cooperating with the beet-sugar companies, after encountering many difficulties succeeded in securing sufficient beet seed, with the surplus then on hand. to meet the planting requirements in 1915: but the combined efforts of those agencies failed to secure sufficient seed to meet the requirements in 1916, with the result that thousands of farmers were deprived of the benefits of this crop. a number of mills were idle, and consequently the capital invested, amounting to several million dollars, was unproductive

The present seed requirements of the beet-sugar industry in this country are annually not less than 150,000 sacks of 110 pounds each. In order to insure this quantity of seed it would be necessary to have not less than 16,000 acres devoted to seed production. Less than one-fourth of this acreage was harvested in 1916. Seven new mills were erected during 1916 and plans are under way for a still larger number in 1917. Assuming the average capacity of these mills to be 1,000 tons of roots a day, which is approximately correct, each new mill will require 10,000 acres of beets for a normal run. To plant 10,000 acres of beets, 200,000 pounds of seed, the product of approximately 200 acres of land. would be required for each mill, not considering the necessary replanting. It is apparent, therefore, that the present acreage in seed will do little more than care for the possible expansion of the beet-sugar industry and that the quantity 399

of seed which must be imported will remain approximately the same as heretofore.

The beet-sugar industry in the United States is composed of three distinct branches, namely, beet-seed production, sugar-beet growing, and beet-sugar extraction and refining. They are so linked that each is dependent upon the others. not only for its complete success but for its very existence. Without seed the sugar-beet industry, in which more than 70,000 American farmers are directly interested, could not exist, and without beets the 84 beet-sugar mills now standing, with an invested capital of more than \$100,000,000. would be idle. The beet-seed industry is, of course, the foundation upon which sugar-beet growing and beet-sugar extraction rests. Because of its fundamental character, it is surprising that sugar-beet seed production in this country has not received more general and more earnest attention in the past. The two primary causes that have operated against the development of the sugar-beet seed industry in this country were (1) the fact that a sufficient quantity of seed to meet our requirements was easily obtainable from European countries at a reasonable price and (2) the prevailing idea that conditions in this country, from the standpoint either of labor cost or of climate, would not permit the successful development of the seed industry in the United States. Recent experiences, however, have shown the folly of depending upon foreign countries for our beet-seed supply, while experiments extending over many years have proved the falsity of the opinion relative to labor and climatic conditions.

PROGRESS IN AMERICAN SUGAR-BEET SEED PRODUCTION.

The earliest efforts toward sugar-beet culture in this country, in 1830, were made with seed brought from Europe. When the first permanent beet-sugar mill was established in America, in 1879, European seed was used to produce the raw material, and even at the present time, with nearly 80 mills in operation, requiring upward of 750,000 acres of beets to insure satisfactory runs, farmers are still dependent upon foreign countries for the major portion of their seed. It is true, efforts have been made in certain quarters for many years to produce sugar-beet seed in this country, but prior to 1914 they were largely experimental. The first carefully planned effort to grow sugar-beet seed in the United States was made at Schuyler. Nebr., in 1891. These experiments were continued for several years under the direction of Dr. Harvey W. Wiley, at that time chief of the Bureau of Chemistry of the United States Department of Agriculture. The results with this seed, in comparison with imported varieties, showed that the American-grown seed had a higher vitality and that the roots produced from this seed possessed a higher sugar content and gave a heavier yield than any of the imported varieties tested.¹

For a number of years the United States Department of Agriculture conducted experiments in sugar-beet seed growing at Fairfield, Wash., with results similar to those obtained at Schuyler, Nebr., with reference to both the vitality of the seed and the quality and weight of roots produced. For many years several sugar companies have grown small quantities of commercial sugar-beet seed, and within the past year two of these beet-sugar companies have greatly increased their beet-seed acreage. In some cases the roots used for this purpose have been produced from the commercial imported seed, while in other instances special seed was The results of these tests have been successful used. from the standpoint of germination of the seed and the yield and quality of the roots produced. While there is abundant proof, therefore, that sugar-beet seed satisfactory in every particular can be grown in this country, few, if any, distinct American strains of sugar beets have been established and used for commercial beet-seed production. All experience in breeding and selection in this and in other lines would indicate that such strains when properly established and thoroughly acclimated if generally used for beet production will yield even better results than have been obtained in the experiments already carried out.

SUGAR-BEET SEED IS GROWN UNDER WIDELY VARYING CONDITIONS.

The principal areas devoted to sugar-beet seed production in the United States at present are in Michigan, Montana, Colorado. Utah, and Idaho, while several other States have smaller acreages devoted to this crop. Each of the States mentioned produced beet seed commercially last year; in several of these this crop has been grown commercially for a number of years. For the most part the seed is of good quality and the roots produced from home-grown seed have been equal in vield and quality to those grown from imported seed. It is apparent, therefore, that sugar-beet seed can be grown successfully on a commercial scale under a great variety of soil and climatic conditions. Given a good grade of seed, climate is one of the most important factors in the production of sugar beets and sugar-beet seed of good quality. It would seem, therefore, that a thoroughly acclimated strain of seed of high grade should give the best possible results in tonnage and quality of roots. In areas tested for beet-seed production, a loamy, fertile, well-drained soil is generally preferred. A study of the tillable areas in the States named indicates that there is an abundant acreage suitable for profitable beet-seed production, and a study of soil conditions in other States possessing suitable climate for beet-seed growing indicates that nature has abundantly supplied the requirements for the successful production of this crop. In the irrigated sections water should be available, so that the roots can be well supplied with moisture when planted and during the period when the seed is forming.

PRESENT PROBLEMS.

As a result of existing conditions surrounding the sugarbeet seed situation in this country two problems are confronting the beet growers and sugar producers at this time, namely, the production of a sufficient quantity of seed to meet the present planting requirements and the establishment in this country of a permanent beet-seed industry which shall meet our future needs. These requirements relate not only to the quantity of seed necessary to plant the desired acreage, but also to the quality of the seed and the quantity and quality of the roots which this seed is capable of producing.

In order to solve these problems a sugar-beet seed company, under the leadership of a capable and experienced man, has been organized, and its work is already in progress: several sugar companies and individuals are growing sugar-beet seed commercially and experimentally: and the United States Congress has made a special appropriation to enable the Federal Government to cooperate with these several agencies in solving the beet-seed problems. In the solution of the first problem it is apparent that time is an important factor, and we must therefore utilize the best available material and employ the most practical methods known, in order to accomplish the desired results in the shortest possible time. In the solution of the second problem it would seem advisable to find or to develop those strains of beets best suited to our conditions and to improve our methods of root production, selection, siloing, planting, and harvesting, in order to obtain the maximum results at the lowest cost. In the preliminary efforts to solve the first problem commercial roots for the most part have been selected, care being taken to get the best obtainable from the standpoints of vield and quality. The leaves were removed either by cutting or by twisting them off with as little injury to the crown as possible. The roots were siloed by piling them on the ground in a well-drained place and covering them with earth to keep them from freezing, care being taken not to cover them too deeply at first, in order to avoid heating. The roots were planted in the spring by hand in rows 3 feet apart and at intervals of 2 to 3 feet in the row, the distance depending upon the size of the roots. The seed was cut with sickles and thrashed by means of a grain thrasher operated at reduced speed or with a specially constructed beet-seed thrasher.

So far as this so-called emergency method of producing beet seed has been tried the results have proved satisfactory, both from the standpoint of quantity and quality of seed produced and from the standpoint of roots produced from the seed. As a rule, the germination of this seed has been superior to that of the imported seed. Just how far this work can be carried without appreciable reduction in quantity and quality of seed or roots remains to be determined. Even if this method could be employed generally for the production of commercial sugar-beet seed, it would still be desirable to solve the second problem, in order to improve the quality and yield of seed as well as the quantity and quality of the roots produced. The second general problem embraces a large number of special problems, such as types, selection, siloing, planting, and harvesting, which will be considered briefly.

TYPES OF SUGAR BEETS.

It is a startling fact that there are in this country no distinct types of commercial sugar beets. If, for example, a field of a given variety of wheat is examined it will be noted that practically every plant bears a striking resemblance to every other plant in the field, but this is not true of the sugar beet. In any commercial sugar-beet field from Michigan to California, without regard to the name of the socalled variety, can be found from 6 to 20 or more distinct types of beets. Their distinctions may be based upon shape, texture, habit of growth, color, and other characters of the leaf, as well as upon shape, texture, quality, etc., of the root. In fact, scarcely two beets growing side by side in the same field have closely related external characters of leaf or root, and the quality of the roots varies in both sugar and purity.

Equally wide variations may be found in the beet-seed fields, especially with reference to habit of growth and yield of seed. It would appear, therefore, that these so-called strains are badly mixed in the process of growth and production or that many strains or varieties are mixed before the seed is sacked. It would seem, however, from the large number of wide variations in the individual beets produced from commercial seed, that the mixed strains or varieties appearing in commercial fields are due more to the method of growth than to artificial mixing. It may be and probably is necessary to have mixed strains, or crosses, in order to combine in one plant all the desirable qualities of weight,

Status of the Sugar-beet Seed Industry.

sugar, and purity. It would seem, however, that little progress can be made in the development of desirable strains of beets until the present mixed varieties are separated into their component strains and the desirable strains recombined in their proper relation. It is no more reasonable to suppose that such a mixture of the present types of sugar beets will give the best results in yield and quality of roots than it is to assume that the highest results in livestock production can be reached with mixed breeds of animals. How quickly the Duroc-Jersey or Poland China hog is recognized! Farmers might have gone on raising "razor backs" and thought they were producing pork if these and other distinct types of hogs had not been developed.

It is true that there are some good cows in a mixed herd and not all pure breds are of equal value. Likewise, there are good sugar beets in these mixtures that are now called by distinct names and not all individuals of a pure type will be of equal value. but the average in both quality and vield is far below the limit of possibilities, and the highest plane of development of the sugar beet will not be reached until distinct strains or types are produced and fixed, so that they will come true from year to year. It will then be possible to work with the individual beet as the unit upon which the quality and yield of roots may be based, with a reasonable expectation that material and permanent improvement in quality and yield of roots may be produced by eliminating the poorer and less desirable individuals. It is not probable that in these pure strains the highest development of both size and quality will be found in any one strain, but it is necessary first to have the pure strains and to know definitely the characters they possess and are capable of transmitting before the necessary steps can be taken to produce by crossing the permanent types in which the roots shall possess the desired qualities of sugar, purity, and yield. At the same time this line of work should develop seed-producing plants of uniform type, with reference to both habit of growth of seed stalks and date of maturity of seed. The development of uniform types is of vital importance not only with reference to the yield and quality of roots and seed, but also with reference to the cost of production. The first step, therefore,

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in the development of a permanent beet-seed industry in this country lies in the direction of the development of true types with reference to both seed beets and seed production.

SELECTION OF ROOTS.

The yield and quality of the roots and of the seed are the all-important factors upon which the future of the beet-sugar industry as a whole depends. After obtaining the best possible type of sugar beets, capable of coming true from year to year, the next step is to improve and develop that type by eliminating the less desirable individuals and by perpetuating those individuals possessing in the highest degree the desired characters. This process is called selection. The quality of both roots and seed depends not only upon certain inherited characters of the plant, but also upon soil and climatic conditions. Just how far inheritance and how far soil and climate influence the quality of roots and seed has not been determined. Observation and experience would indicate, however, that environment has a far greater influence upon the quality of both roots and seed than has generally been supposed. Sugar in the beet roots does not seem to be an inherited character, so far as percentage or quantity of sugar is concerned. It is true that sugar beets naturally develop and store sugar, but the amount of sugar that a given beet will store may be greater or less than the amount developed and stored by its parent beet. The direction and extent of this difference will depend. within certain limits, upon the soil and climatic conditions under which the beet is grown. The writer has found that wild beet seed planted under favorable conditions will produce some roots of good size containing upward of 14 per cent of sugar the first year. Again, it has been observed that any one of the well-known commercial strains, so called, of sugar-beet seed, if divided and planted under widely different climatic conditions, will often show a great variation in the quality and yield of roots produced. The importance of inheritance of desired characters should not be undervalued, and it should be utilized in the improvement of sugar beets. Likewise, the influence of environment upon

the quality of the roots should not be overlooked. It is possible, furthermore, that there is a relation between certain fixed external characters of the beet and the internal qualities, sugar and purity, of the root, and the greatest advance in seed production will be made when that relation, if it exists, is definitely known. Even then it will be necessary to compare the selected roots from time to time in order to maintain the highest possible standard. In making selections, close attention must be paid not only to the yield and quality of the roots, but to the yield and quality of the seed as well. Herein the two industries, beet-seed production and sugar-beet growing, are closely related. In this connection it should be noted that many cultural problems related to sugar beets can not be solved intelligently until we have fixed and uniform types of root, leaf, and seed stalk.

SILOING THE ROOTS.

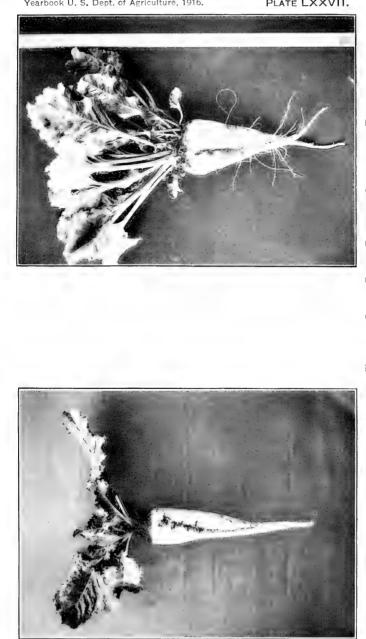
The object to be kept in mind in siloing beet roots for seed production is to get the roots through the resting period in the soundest and freshest possible condition. The steps in siloing roots consist in gathering, topping, testing, piling, and covering. As a rule, it is best to let the roots remain in the ground as late as possible without danger of freezing. The leaves will protect the crowns against some degree of frost, but in no case should the crowns or roots become frosted, either before or after harvesting. As soon as the roots are taken from the ground the leaves should be removed, either by twisting or by cutting, with as little injury as possible to the crown. In some cases the roots may be siloed without removing the leaves. but in general this practice is not recommended. If it is desired to test the roots for sugar at harvest time, this work should be arranged so that the roots will be out of the ground the least possible time before they are put into the silo, thus avoiding unnecessary drying. The simplest method of siloing is to pile the roots on a well-drained piece of ground and cover them with loose earth. The covering on the top of the pile should be light for a faw days, until the danger of heating of the roots is over, and then, as the

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weather gets colder, more dirt should be added, so that the roots will be cool but never frosted. Some prefer to pack the roots in sand. This is a safer but more expensive method, and is recommended for small choice lots of roots for experimental purposes. The sand should be slightly damp and may be used in the open or in a cool cellar. In no case should straw or other litter be used in contact with the beets, as this attracts mice, which frequently injure the beets by gnawing.

PLANTING.

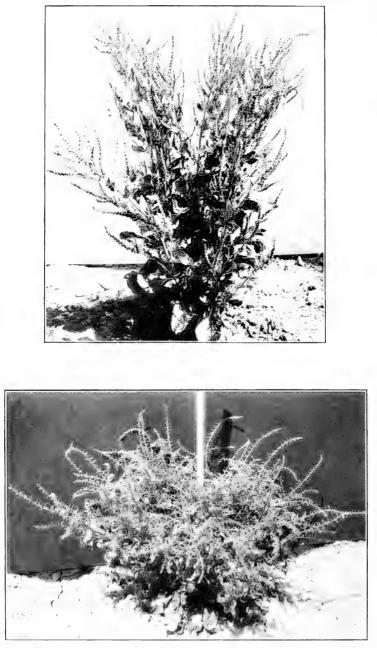
The covering should be removed in part from the silo in the early spring, but not to the extent of injury to the roots through late freezes. If a little growth starts no harm is done; in fact, it seems to be an advantage. As soon as the soil can be prepared in the spring the roots should be planted. The importance of early planting can not be overestimated. Several methods are used in planting the beets. It may be accomplished by means of a long spade, which should be pushed into the ground to such a depth that when it is pushed forward the root may be thrust down behind the spade, which is then withdrawn. The root should be so deep that the crown is just flush with the surface of the ground, or for very early planting a little deeper, so that a thin laver of earth covers the crown to prevent freezing. Another method employed in planting roots consists in breaking up the ground so that the roots can be thrust down into the loose soil to the desired depth. In any case, the soil should be packed firmly around the roots. Where irrigation water is available a thorough watering just after planting serves to settle the dirt around the roots, thereby preventing the formation of air spaces and at the same time supplying the roots with the necessary moisture to insure a quick and uniform growth. The roots should be planted in rows, one way at least, to admit of cultivation. The usual distance between rows is 3 feet and the distance between the beets in the row is from 18 inches to 3 feet, depending upon the size of the roots.



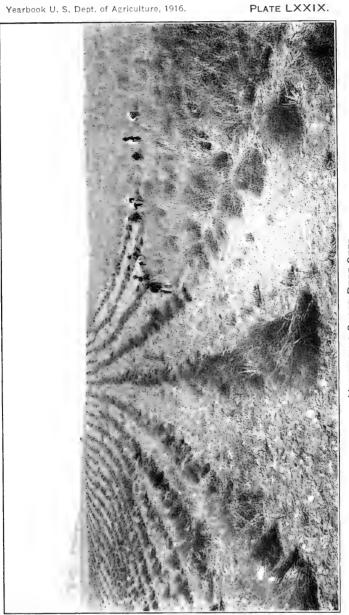
TWO OF THE MANY WIDELY VARYING TYPES OF SUGAR BEETS FOUND IN COMMERCIAL FIELDS.

Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE LXXVII.



Two of the Many Types of Seed Stalks Found in Commercial Beet-Seed Fields.



HARVESTING SUGAR-BEET SEED.

PLATE LXXIX.



FIG. I -SUGAR-BEET SEED CUT AND SHOCKED.

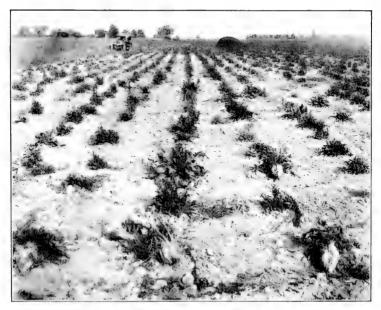


FIG. 2.-SUGAR-BEET SEED FIELD AFTER CUTTING AND THRASHING, SHOWING AMOUNT OF STOCK FEED LEFT IN THE FIELD.



THRASHING THE FIRST CROP OF COMMERCIAL SUGAR-BEET SEED GROWN IN MICHIGAN.

PLATE LXXXI.

HARVESTING THE SEED.

Under present conditions, the seed on a given plant does not all ripen at the same time. The opening of the flower buds extends over a long period, and naturally the flowers that open first form ripe seed in advance of the later flowers. If left too long before cutting, the early-maturing seed shatters, and if cut too early there is an appreciable loss due to immature seed. To avoid this condition. care must be exercised in cutting the seed at the proper time to produce the best results in yield and quality. The seed stalks upon which the seed is borne usually attain a height of 4 to 6 feet. These are cut with a sickle. In some cases the cut stalks are shocked, and sometimes they are placed on canvas to avoid the loss of the seed that falls: but if cut at the proper time and carefully handled the expense and labor in providing and using canvas are not warranted. When the seed is dry it is thrashed either by means of a specially constructed thrasher, by rolling on a smooth floor, or with an ordinary grain thrasher, which is operated at reduced speed, with a proper adjustment of sieves. The seed is then cleaned, cured, and sacked ready for shipment or planting.

A BY-PRODUCT.

The stubble and roots that remain in the field after the seed is harvested furnish feed for sheep, hogs, and other live stock.

Plans are now under way looking to the best utilization of this waste product of seed production. Heretofore these roots, which have greatly increased in size during the seeding period, have been plowed out and fed to sheep and hogs by turning the animals into the fields. In this way this by-product serves as a kind of fall pasture. If the animals are fed for market, they must be finished off with other feed before they are marketable. The rapidly increasing acreage of beet seed makes the proper utilization of these roots an important problem. The seed acreage in 1916 gave an estimated yield of not less than 24,000 tons of roots for feed. These roots contain from 6 to 10 per cent of sugar. They are much more woody than the first-year beets. Greater difficulties will, therefore, be encountered in utilizing them, but the preliminary work already done would indicate that these difficulties are not insurmountable. It is possible that the present method of pasturing these roots in the field, as stated above, is the most profitable method, considering the small amount of labor and expense involved in plowing them out. On the other hand, it may be found advantageous to grind them and feed them fresh or dried, with or without molasses, or to utilize them as ensilage.

CONCLUSIONS.

The highest development of the beet-sugar industry in the United States depends upon the establishment of an American beet-seed industry capable of meeting the requirements of the American sugar-beet grower and the beet-sugar producer.

Our experience thus far indicates that American sugarbeet seed is usually superior in germination and capable of producing larger and better roots than the imported seed.

Our soil and climatic conditions, extending over large areas, favor the production of sugar-beet seed in sufficient quantity to meet all future requirements.

Well-defined strains of sugar beets of high yield and quality are essential to the development of a satisfactory seed industry. Enough has been done to prove that by careful and painstaking work such strains can be produced.

No intelligent study of cultural methods in the production of sugar beets or of problems involving a comparison of varieties can be made until uniform and fixed varieties with which to work are available.

The production of strains having roots of uniform size and habit of growth and capable of yielding seed stalks uniform in habit of growth and maturity should make possible improved cultural methods, especially in the planting of the roots and in the harvesting of the seed, that will reduce greatly the cost of production.

After seed harvest the beet roots and stalks remain in the ground in a sound and palatable condition for live-stock feed. The present practice is to feed these roots in the field, utilizing them as pasture.

THE THANKSGIVING TURKEY.

By ANDREW S. WEIANT,

Scientific Assistant, Animal Husbandry Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

EVOLUTION OF THE TURKEY.

W HEN America was first explored by white men, wild turkeys were found in large numbers from New England to Mexico. History shows also that turkeys had been raised in a domestic state by the Aztecs of Mexico at a still earlier period, and that they were introduced into Europe by white explorers and were there greatly prized as a table delicacy upon important festive occasions. Somewhat later, when the Pilgrim Fathers set aside a day to be known as Thanksgiving Day, wild turkeys were found with but little hunting, and, being of such high merit, nothing could be more natural than that these birds should find their way to the first Thanksgiving table. Since then the use of the turkey has become national and the turkey is the chief viand at Thanksgiving and Christmas festivities.

As the population of the country increased, the wild turkey gradually disappeared, until now the domesticated and farm-raised turkey has, as a commercial factor, entirely supplanted its wild ancestor. By finding the nests made by wild-turkey hens and taking the eggs home to be hatched out under chicken hens, the early settlers were able to raise their own supply of this Thanksgiving delicacy and to keep over a small flock of these wild-bred but domestic-raised turkeys from which to raise a larger flock the following year. Wild turkeys are still to be found in some of the more unsettled sections of their former range, particularly in the wooded and mountainous portions of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona, and in the large swamps of the Gulf States. The nests of these birds are occasionally discovered and the eggs given to chicken or turkey hens to incubate. On hatching, the young poults show their wild blood by making for the brush as soon as they are strong enough to travel, and considerable difficulty is experienced in preventing their return to the wild state of their parents.

By judicious breeding, turkeys have been increased markedly in size since domestication. Wild turkeys of to-day average in weight about 12 pounds for young toms and 9 pounds for young hens, while the standard weight of domestic Bronze turkeys is 25 pounds for young toms, 16 pounds for young hens, 36 pounds for mature toms, and 20 pounds for mature hens. As a matter of fact, however, in sections where little or no attempt has been made to breed turkeys up to a high standard, the majority of them average but little more than their wild ancestors in weight.

The demand for Thanksgiving and Christmas turkeys is large, and to fill this demand carloads of turkeys begin reaching the city markets shortly after the middle of November and continue well through the month of December. Should there be a surplus at Thanksgiving, those unsold are placed in cold storage until Christmas, and of those that remain unsold after Christmas, some are placed on the market from time to time throughout the year, while a part may be held over for the following Thanksgiving. By this method the market is prevented from becoming flooded at any one time to such an extent as to ruin prices, cold storage being the medium by which dealers are enabled to place on the market only that number which can be sold at a fair profit.

TURKEY RAISING AN ESTABLISHED SOURCE OF INCOME FOR THE FARM WIFE.

Next to common fowls, turkeys are one of the most widely recognized sources of income for the American farm woman. However small a business turkey raising may be considered by the farmer during the spring and summer, it frequently happens that the money obtained from the sale of turkeys plays an important part when the Christmas shopping comes around in December. On the average farm the expense of raising turkeys consists mostly of the time spent in caring for the sitting hens during the hatching season and in looking after the wants of the young poults for the first few weeks of their life; to which must be added the cost of the grain used in fattening the turkeys for market in the fall. Compared with the profit in feeding other live stock, turkeys have a marked advantage, not only because they pick up most of their food in the fields and meadows, but also because of the higher prices received when they are sold. As destroyers of weed seeds, grasshoppers, and other injurious insects, turkeys reign supreme. In many sections where grasshoppers abound farmers who have seen their crops destroyed time after time by these pests have turned their attention to turkey raising for the sole purpose of destroying them, and have not only succeeded in doing this but have made a handsome profit besides.

As with all other farm products, the price which the producer receives for turkeys varies largely with his distance from a good market, whether the birds are in good market condition, and the discretion with which he chooses a market and the time for selling. During November and December of 1915 the price per pound, live weight, received by the producer for turkeys averaged 21 cents in the State of New York, $15\frac{1}{2}$ cents in Georgia, $13\frac{1}{3}$ cents in Mississippi, $15\frac{2}{3}$ cents in Indiana, $14\frac{1}{2}$ cents in Missouri, 12 cents in Texas, 20 cents in California, and $17\frac{1}{2}$ cents in Washington.

WHERE TURKEYS ARE RAISED.

By far the greater number of turkeys are raised on grain and stock farms in the Middle West, which is not surprising, since here they can be fed at very little cost and cared for with the least amount of trouble. As near as can be determined, about one-tenth of the total supply of turkeys comes from Texas and almost as many from Missouri, after which come Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, and Ohio. In New England, which formerly was famous for its well-fattened turkeys, production has decreased to small proportions, although its reputation still lives. In Texas, where there is an abundance of range suitable for turkeys, flocks of several hundred are quite common. Throughout the Middle West, however, the farms are smaller, and for this reason it is rather unusual to see more than 50 or 75 turkeys on any one farm.

PRODUCTION OF TURKEYS IS DECREASING.

That the number of turkeys in the United States is decreasing is well shown by census figures. In 1900, 6.594.695 turkeys were reported as kept for breeding purposes, while in 1910 this number had decreased to 3.688.708. No figures are available since the last census, but statements made by poultry dealers throughout the country indicate that this decrease is continuing. One reason for the falling off lies in the fact that turkeys, having inherited a wandering nature from their wild ancestors, frequently invade the grain fields of neighboring farms, thus bringing about the ill will of the owners of these farms and causing the turkey grower to give up the business. Aside from this the high mortality among young poults as ordinarily cared for on the farm. the outbreaks of disease and particularly of blackhead among turkeys in certain sections of the country, and serious losses resulting from the raids of predatory animals such as foxes. covotes, wolves, dogs, and rats, have all tended to discourage the turkey industry.

TURKEY RANCHING.

Because of the decreasing production of turkeys on farms. the business of raising turkeys on a large scale may develop into an important and interesting form of ranching. As vet, however, it is in its infancy and has been tried only in a more or less experimental way. In the unsettled foothill regions of California and in certain sections of Arizona and other western States, a few persons have engaged in this industry to the extent of raising a thousand or more turkeys every year. Here the range is unlimited, and the natural food of the turkey, such as grasshoppers and other insects, green vegetation, and the seeds of various weeds and grasses. is abundant. Advantage also is taken of the turkey's relish for acorns, and where these are plentiful but little grain need be used for fattening in the fall. These large flocks of turkeys are managed much like herds of sheep, being taken out to the range early in the morning and brought home to roost at night. They are herded during the day by men, either on foot or on horseback, and by dogs specially trained for the work.

RAISING TURKEYS ON THE FARM.

Notwithstanding the advent of the rather spectacular enterprise of turkey ranching, the farm must still be relied upon for most of the Thanksgiving and Christmas turkeys. Here, as a side issue to her regular work, it is a common practice for the farm wife to keep half a dozen turkey hens and a tom, more commonly known as a gobbler, from which to raise annually a flock of 40 to 50 turkeys. The best hens are selected carefully from the previous year's flock and a new tom is secured from some neighboring turkey grower or, perhaps, a purebred tom is purchased from a reliable turkey breeder for the purpose of improving the size, quality, and appearance of the next crop.

Toward the latter part of winter or early in spring the turkey hens begin laying, and then comes the task of finding the nests, which are usually well hidden in a patch of weeds or bushy thicket, sometimes near home and sometimes half a mile away. The inexperienced turkey grower may spend hours in following a turkey hen before her nest is discovered, but to the initiated this is a simple task, for by confining all the hens early some morning and letting them out late in the afternoon, those that are laying will strike out on a run for their respective nests, and the secret of their hiding places can be quickly and easily learned. After the nests are found the eggs are gathered daily and kept safe from any danger of becoming chilled or from being destroyed by a dog, skunk, opossum, rat, crow, or other enemy.

As soon as each turkey hen has finished laying her litter of about 18 eggs and has become broody, a nest is carefully prepared and from 15 to 20 eggs are given her to incubate. After 28 days of sitting the poults appear, and for the next few weeks they must be fed and looked after frequently, and above all they must be protected from dampness, for if they become wet and chilled their chance of living is small indeed. Should there be no danger of rain or heavy dew the mother turkey may be allowed to range with her brood of poults and to care for them as only she can do. Late in the afternoon, however, they are driven home to be fed and also to get them into the habit of returning every night to roost.

As soon as the poults are feathered there is little danger that they will not then survive, and from this time until the turkeys are marketed in the fall the greatest difficulty with which the turkey grower has to deal is to keep the birds from ranging too far and causing trouble with the owners of neighboring farms. Aside from fencing one's farm so as to be turkey proof, which is often impracticable, the best method vet devised for keeping turkeys at home is to confine them in a pasture of an acre or more every morning. letting them out about noon. During warm weather turkeys do most of their ranging early in the morning, lying about in the shade until late in the afternoon, and then starting slowly toward their roosting place, so that by preventing them from getting an early start in the morning for the neighbors' grain fields they can be induced not to range so far and much trouble is then averted.

About the first of October the fattening season is begun by gradually increasing the amount of grain, usually corn, thrown to the turkeys just before roosting time. A week or two before marketing they receive all the grain they will clean up either two or three times a day. During the period between Thanksgiving and Christmas turkeys are found to be much more easily fattened than at any previous time. partly because they have then attained the greater part of their growth and partly because the weather is then cooler and there is less to tempt them to range so widely. Therefore many turkey growers who have plenty of grain to feed prefer to hold their turkeys for the Christmas market, while those who are short of feed, and who may experience trouble in keeping their turkeys at home, or fear that the roosts will be visited at night and the flocks reduced in numbers, which is a common occurrence, find it advisable to forego the added profit that might be obtained by further fattening, and sell their turkeys at Thanksgiving.

MARKETING.

A few turkey growers, particularly in the Middle Atlantic and New England States, dress their turkeys themselves and sell direct to the consumer or to city dealers. In some sections where turkeys are quite generally raised there is



FIG. I. BRONZE TURKEY, MALE.

The commonest variety of turkeys in the United States, and the principal source of our Thanksgiving and Christmas table fowls.



MALE.

The Thanksgiving bird of the Pilgrim Fathers, and the foundation stock from which our common Bronze turkeys have descended.



FIG. 1.- A BREEDING FLOCK OF BRONZE TURKEYS ON THE RANGE IN TEXAS.

Management of turkeys is of the highest importance in preventing losses from disease. Range is essential, but it is not necessary to let turkeys run wild. Turkeys do most of their ranging early in the morning, resting in the shade until late afternoon and then returning to the roost. If they are confined to a narrow lot during the morning they will not range far during the rest of the day.

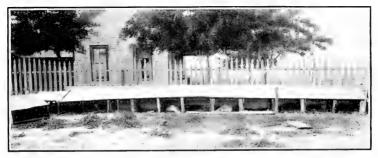


FIG. 2.-TURKEY HENS NESTING UNDER GOOD MANAGEMENT CONDITIONS.

A profitable percentage of the poults hatched from these eggs can be raised, because careful attention can be given to the management of the young birds.

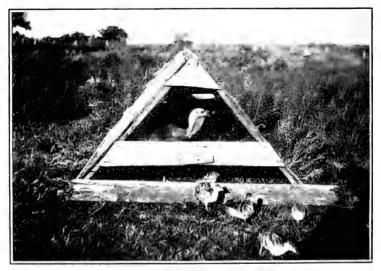


FIG. 3.-AN INEXPENSIVE BROOD COOP FOR THE MOTHER TURKEY HEN. The poults have no opportunity to become chilled and lost by following the mother over the range.

Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE LXXXIV.



FIG. 1.—A TEXAS TURKEY DRIVE. In many parts of the South thousands of turkeys are driven to market every fall. This flock of 700 was driven 12 miles in 9 hours.

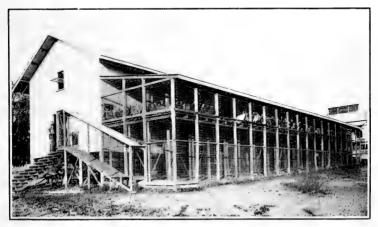


FIG. 2.- A TURKEY-DRESSING PLANT IN TEXAS.

held twice a year, once previous to Thanksgiving and again shortly before Christmas. what is known as "Turkey Day." On this day all those who have turkeys to sell dress them and haul them to town, where they are bid on by shippers or by turkey buyers for various city produce houses and sold to the highest bidder. In these sections turkey-picking bees are often held, and as much sport is had at these as at the more common corn-husking bees. In most large turkeygrowing districts, however, dressing plants have been built to handle the turkeys during November and December. the same plants being used for poultry. eggs. butter. and other farm produce throughout the remainder of the year. Some farmers haul their turkeys in wagons to these dressing plants, others drive them in if they have too many to haul. and still others, if they are too far away to bring in their turkeys themselves, sell them to the nearest country merchant, who in turn ships them or drives them along with others that he has purchased in the neighborhood.

A custom that is prevalent in Texas is for hucksters to go out from the different dressing plants for a distance of 10 or 15 or even 30 miles and stop at each farm and buy all the turkeys the farmer will sell at the price offered. A flock of 1.000 or more turkeys is often gathered up in this way, each turkey being weighed and paid for at the time of the purchase. In one case 8.000 turkeys were gathered together at one point in Texas and driven by 30 men a distance of 13 miles in two days. A flock of 700 was later driven this same distance by 5 men in a little less than 9 hours. In a drive of this kind a wagon is driven just in front of the turkevs and a little corn is thrown to the leaders to keep them Should any become lame or tired, as frequently moving. happens with old turkeys if they are fat, they are placed in the wagon and hauled the rest of the way. At nightfall. provision is made to stop under a grove of trees where the turkeys may roost, the journey being continued as soon as they fly down again in the morning. On arriving at the dressing plant, the turkeys are again weighed by driving them in flocks of about 100 at a time into a cage placed over the scales, and the huckster is then usually credited with one-half cent per pound for his work.

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KILLING AND DRESSING.

As soon as possible after the arrival of the turkeys at the dressing plant they are killed and dressed to prevent the shrinkage in weight that is bound to occur if they are held for any time. Unlike chickens, turkeys confined to small quarters will eat but little and rapidly lose the flesh that has been added while on free range. The detailed operations involved in preparing turkeys for shipment vary somewhat in different dressing plants, although the general plan is the same. In one of the largest Texas turkey-dressing plants. cages for the turkeys, into which they are driven after being weighed, are built in a long row, and from them an allevway leads into a single cage inside the dressing room. Not more than 15 or 20 turkeys are kept in the inside case at a time, this being done to prevent the pickers from selecting all the small, easily picked hen turkeys first and then quitting their work when only the large toms are left. White turkeys are also considered harder to pick than the darker varieties, because the feathers "ripen" later. and when the pickers are allowed to choose their own birds these are invariably left until the last. The usual price paid for picking turkeys is 4 cents for hens and 5 cents for toms. In Texas most of the turkeys are picked by negroes or Mexicans.

Selecting his turkey from the inside cage, the picker hangs it by the feet with a wire fastened to an overhead track by a pulley. The turkey is then wheeled in front of the killer, who uses a narrow-bladed, sharp-pointed knife first to sever the veins on the inside of the neck to insure perfect bleeding and then to pierce the brain with an upward thrust through the roof of the mouth. The latter thrust causes the feathers to be loosened by a sudden paralysis of the muscles. A cup half filled with lead is hung to the lower jaw of the bird to catch the blood and to hold the head of the turkey down. The picker then wheels his bird over the tail and wing feather bins. The tail feathers are removed with one motion and the wing feathers with two more, after which the bird is unhooked from the overhead track and hung up by a cord at the picker's regular position along the body-feather bins. Here the body feathers are quickly removed and the bird is taken to the receiver, who pays the picker and lavs

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The Thanksgiving Turkey.

the dressed turkey in a sack which, when filled, is carried into the cooling room, there to remain until thoroughly cooled, after which the turkeys are packed in boxes or barrels and shipped in refrigerator cars to New York, Chicago, San Francisco, and other distributing centers.

SHIPPING TURKEYS ALIVE.

The shipping of turkeys alive for any considerable distance always results in a heavy shrinkage. and because of this they are usually killed and dressed before shipping. One of the longest shipments of live turkeys that is ordinarily made is from Tennessee to New York City. Twice a year, once for the Thanksgiving and once for the Christmas market. a train known as the "turkev special" is made up at Morristown, Tenn., and is rushed through to New York as rapidly as possible. On the day of the shipment cars of live turkeys begin reaching Morristown from surrounding points, and these are made up into one train, a car containing about 1.200 turkevs. One man is sent with each of the cars, whose duty it is to feed and water the birds and to see that they are weighed correctly when unloaded from the car. Troughs are placed in each coop. and these are filled with a sloppy mixture of cracked corn and water. Turkeys eat very little during such a shipment, however, and their shrinkage is said by shippers to run often as high as 12 per cent for this trip, which ordinarily takes about 60 hours.

On arriving at Jersey City the cars are hauled to the poultry yard and the turkeys unloaded and weighed as soon as possible. The commission firm handling the turkeys has a man on hand, who, with the assistance of as many helpers as are needed, unloads the birds and puts them in coopslarge enough to hold 14 or 15 each. They are then weighed in the presence of the man who has come with the car, after which they are loaded on trucks, taken by ferry across the Hudson River to New York, and distributed by the commission firm among retailers throughout the city.

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FARMERS' MUTUAL FIRE INSURANCE.

By V. N. VALGREN,

Investigator in Agricultural Insurance, Office of Markets and Rural Organization.

ONE of the most successful forms of rural cooperation in this country is that of farmers' mutual fire insurance. Up to the present time, however, it has received but little general publicity. Few men, even among the farmers themselves, are aware of its quantitative or relative importance. Many will be surprised, therefore, to learn that there are at present nearly 2,000 farmers' mutual fire insurance companies in the United States. These companies carry a total amount of insurance exceeding \$5,250,000,000. The property on which this insurance is written is valued at more than \$6,700,000,000, which is more than two-fifths of the value of all the insurable farm property in the 48 States. That the annual saving to the farmers through this form of cooperation is large may be seen from the cost figures to be found on succeeding pages.

ORIGIN AND GROWTH.

While mutual fire insurance in the United States dates from 1752, the first farmers' mutual fire insurance companies came into existence about 1825. New England and the Middle Atlantic States saw the first attempts at this form of cooperation by farmers. It was demonstrated soon that a considerable saving in the cost of fire insurance could be effected, and the movement spread from one community to another with a fair degree of rapidity. By the middle of the century a considerable number of farmers' companies of this kind were in existence. As insurance reports for this early period are wanting, data concerning their number or the business done by them can not be obtained. More than half a hundred of the existing companies, however, were organized before 1850.

Most of these companies were incorporated under special charters and were left to do business practically without guidance or supervision. Unfortunately, as insurance reports issued after the creation of State insurance departments indicate, these so-called "farmers' mutuals" in some instances failed to limit themselves to the segregated risks of moderate value to which their volume of business and method of operation adapted them. Hence, the record of the farmers' mutuals of this period is by no means one of uniform success. Many of the early insurance reports are severe in their criticism of this plan of insurance. In spite of this handicap the movement continued to extend both west and south from the place of its origin. By 1875 there were about 400 farmers' mutuals, and by 1900 there were at least 1,700 such companies. Their present number exceeds 1,950.

LEGISLATION.

The rapid extension of insurance on this plan after 1850 was due, in no small measure, to favorable legislation. Such legislation did not come as a benefit bestowed upon the farmers from the outside. In the more strictly agricultural sections of the Middle West, at any rate, where farmers' mutual insurance now may be said to be most highly developed, the laws were secured by the direct efforts of the farmers themselves. In several States such laws were passed in the face of strong opposition, led in some instances by the State insurance officials.

The first farmers' mutual insurance law was passed by the State of New York in 1857. This law provided that 25 or more persons residing in any township of the State and owning a total of \$50,000 worth of property which they desired to insure might form themselves into a mutual insurance They were allowed to insure only buildings and company. the goods contained therein. They could insure no city or village property, nor could they accept risks outside the borders of the home township. They could write insurance against loss or damage by fire only. This law, though evidently too strongly restrictive in its provisions regarding business territory and the risks that might be assumed, appears to have become the model for similar laws in the North Contral States generally, and for some 12 other States located farther south or farther west.

The early New York law was repealed in 1862, and it was not until 1879 that a second law somewhat more liberal in its provisions was enacted. In the meantime, Wisconsin, Illinois, Michigan, Iowa, Minnesota, Ohio, and Indiana had enacted farmers' mutual fire insurance laws. These laws, as well as the second New York law, were in general reasonable and practical in their provisions, or were soon made so by proper amendments.

The business territory permitted as a rule was a number of contiguous townships or an entire county. All kinds of farm property might be insured, and the lightning hazard as well as that of fire might be assumed. With the exception of the Indiana law, they differed from the New York law of 1879, however, in that they placed the companies thus organized under the supervision of the respective State insurance departments. This step was not taken by New York until 1909.

By 1890 practically every State in the Middle West and several of those in the South had a farmers' mutual fire insurance law. A few other States in the South and in the far West have been added more recently to the list. With the exception of Vermont, which passed a farmers' mutual law in 1915, no State in New England or the Middle Atlantio group has followed the example set by New York in 1857.

The present laws upon this subject, while similar in many respects, are by no means equally complete or equally practical in all their provisions. It may be said, however, that at present 25 States have fairly satisfactory farmers' mutual fire insurance laws. Several other States have scattered provisions in their laws governing fire insurance in general, which apply particularly to farmers' mutuals. In a few States where no special reference to farmers' insurance organizations is found, such companies operate either under special charters or under laws which apply to all classes of mutual fire insurance companies. In 6 States, all located in the South or the Southwest, no record of companies of this kind has been found.

The older farmers' mutual insurance laws have seen various amendments in practically every instance. The trend of these amendments has been to enlarge the business territory permitted, and to give broader scope to the activities of the companies. In several instances these companies are allowed to operate in the entire State. As a rule, however, existing laws prescribe territorial limits varying from 1 to 5 counties. While many of the companies have availed themselves of the provisions permitting larger business territory, the great majority continue to operate in a single county, and a few still confine themselves to a single township. Similarly, there has been a growing tendency to permit the farmers' mutuals to include windstorm among the hazards assumed. This has been true especially in the Southern States.

The practice on the part of local farmers' mutuals of including windstorm with the hazards insured against can not be recommended. Each group of farm buildings, and to a considerable extent each building within the group, is a distinct and separate risk with respect to the fire and lightning hazards, but this is not true with respect to the windstorm hazard. Even in the Southern States, where the plan of giving so-called combined protection is followed most often and where severe windstorms are of less frequent occurrence. there is considerable danger of a formidable list of losses from a single storm. The practice which is rapidly gaining favor in the Middle West of operating a State-wide windstorm insurance company through the cooperative efforts of the local fire insurance companies would add much to the stability and safety of the farmers' mutual organizations in any State where combined protection is now offered by the local mutuals.

ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE AND LOCALIZATION.

The total amount of insurance carried by the 1,947 farmers' mutual fire insurance companies in existence on January 1, 1915, the latest date for which relatively complete statistics are at hand, was approximately \$5,264,119,000. The total amount paid for losses during 1914 was \$10,766,651, and the expenses of operation were \$3,138,649, making the total cost of this insurance \$13,905,300. From these figures it may be seen that the average cost per \$100 of insurance in all these companies was about 26 cents.

The farmers' mutuals, almost without exception, limit the amount of the insurance written to either three-fourths or two-thirds of the actual value of the property. A reasonable allowance for this fact shows the total value of the farm property insured by these companies to be approximately $6,736,000,000.^1$ The total value of all insurable farm property in the 48 States on January 1, 1915, was, as nearly as can be estimated, \$15,886,000,000. This would indicate that nearly $42\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of all insurable farm property in the 48 States of the Union was insured in the farmers' mutual fire insurance companies.

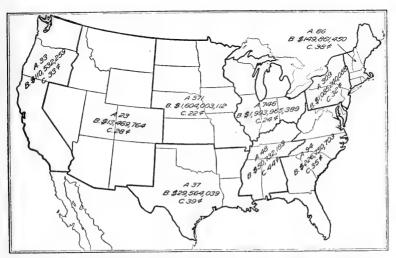


FIG. 38.—Farmers' mutual fire insurance companies, by geographic divisions. A. Number of companies January 1, 1915.

B. Total insurance in force January 1, 1915.

C. Average cost per \$100 of insurance in force during 1914.

Figure 38 is a map on which is shown, for the different geographic divisions of the country, the number of farmers' mutual fire insurance companies and the total amount of their

¹In the New England and Middle Atlantic States, where, with the exception of New York, the farmers' companies operate either under special charters or under laws applying to different classes of mutuals, a considerable amount of city or village property of the less hazardous kind is also insured. In these States the urban risks carried by the companies which speak of themselves as farmers' mutuals and which are so considered by the insurance commissioners will perhaps offset the difference between the real value of the farm property. While a few detached urban risks are frequently carried by the farmers' mutuals in other States than those above referred to, such risks would here amount to a very small percentage of their total risks. For all such States the insurance in force has been increased by one-third in order to allow for the fact that the companies insure only for three-fourths or two-thirds of the actual value of the property.

insurance in force on January 1, 1915, together with the average cost per \$100 of insurance during the year 1914.

Figure 39 shows for each geographic division of the country the total value of the insurable farm property and the total value of the property insured in the farmers' mutuals. Fig-

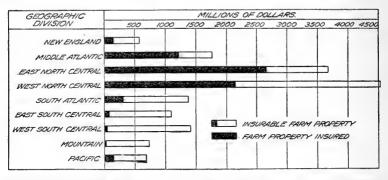


FIG. 39.—Value of insurable farm property, and value of farm property insured in farmers' mutual fire insurance companies.

ure 40 indicates for the same geographic divisions the percentage of the total farm property which was thus insured.

Figure 41 shows the average cost per \$100 of insurance in the farmers' mutuals during the year 1914 for each State having \$1,000,000 or more of such insurance in force. The

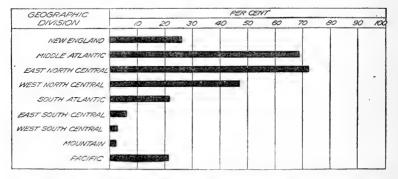


FIG. 40.—Percentage of insurable farm property insured in farmers' mutual fire insurance companies.

cost figures for States with smaller sums of insurance are likely to vary too much to be of significance when taken for a single year. Less marked yearly variations in the average cost of insurance will be found, of course, even where the total insurance in force in the State is relatively large. It

Farmers' Mutual Fire Insurance.

is therefore quite likely that States close together in their cost of insurance would exchange rank from year to year. The larger differences, however, especially where insurance

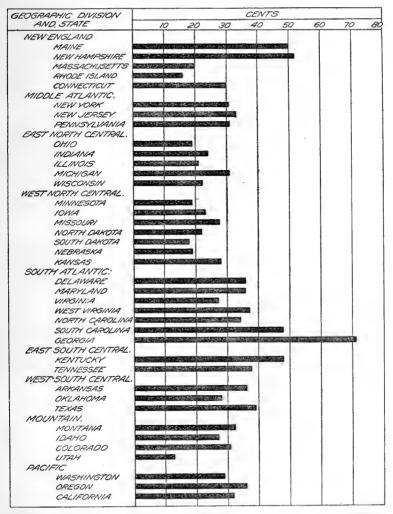


FIG. 41.—Average cost per \$100 of insurance in the farmers' mutual fire insurance companies during the year 1914 for each State in which the total insurance amounted to \$1,000,000 or more.

to the amount of a score of millions or more is involved, are undoubtedly due to more fundamental causes than mere chance, and are likely to persist unless the causes of such higher cost can be removed. The fact that some of these

average costs, especially for the Southern States, cover not only fire and lightning protection but also considerable amounts of windstorm protection, should be remembered in this connection. About 15 per cent of all the farmers' mutuals in the country write policies giving combined protection. This fact makes the average of 26 cents per \$100 for the country as a whole all the more remarkable, when compared with the rates that farmers without mutual organizations are obliged to pay.

SAVING IN INSURANCE COST.

The total annual saving to the farmers by reason of the relatively low insurance cost in their mutual companies amounts to a very considerable sum. No close estimate of this saving has been attempted, since no special effort has been made to collect lists of commercial rates for farm risks in the different States and in the various sections of these States.

It may be safely said, however, that in a number of the States where farmers' mutual insurance is most highly developed, the average cost of insurance for all these companies in the State has fallen well below one-half of the rates quoted by commercial concerns, or the so-called bureau rates. Some idea, therefore, of the total annual saving to the farmers of the country through cooperation in fire insurance may be readily formed.

The saving of the farmers' mutuals in insurance cost may be credited mainly to two sources. First, the expenses of operation necessarily incurred by large commercial companies for commissions, salaries, dividends, taxes, rents, rating charges, legal assistance, etc., have been either greatly reduced or entirely eliminated. Second, the losses experienced have been fewer, by reason of the practical removal of the moral hazard. The more or less complete removal of this hazard is due to the careful guarding against overinsurance on the part of the farmers' companies, and frequently, even more, no doubt, to the different attitude automatically assumed by the insured toward a company consisting of friends and neighbors from that often wrongfully assumed toward a large business corporation located perhaps in a distant city.

Farmers' Mutual Fire Insurance.

GENERAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE MOVEMENT.

The benefits of rural cooperation in fire insurance can not all be measured directly in money values. There is little doubt that by the reasonable cost at which protection can be secured in these local organizations many farmers have been induced to provide themselves with insurance when they would not have taken this step had it been necessary to pay the full commercial rates. Many a farmer has thus been enabled promptly to rebuild his home, or to replace lost personal property, when had it not been for cooperation in insurance he would have been severely embarrassed financially or perhaps even compelled to give up his farm.

The marked success of this form of cooperation has also been an encouragement to farmers to attempt other cooperative enterprises. It has stimulated their faith in one another and strengthened their confidence in their own ability to do things somewhat removed from their primary occupation of raising crops and producing other raw materials. If farmers could manage successfully their own insurance company and save money in so doing, why could they not make their own milk into butter and cheese. provide themselves with fresh beef by the organization of so-called meat rings. operate their own telephone company. market some of their own farm products, and even purchase cooperatively some of their needed supplies? All of these and several other forms of cooperation have been attempted. and while in many localities failures have been experienced. the percentages of success have been large.

That failures have occurred when more complex cooperative enterprises have been undertaken should not be a cause for wonder. Managers with experience and technical knowledge have been hard to find. The opposition often has been strong and well organized. The pioneer was a decided individualist, and the spirit of cooperation and of loyalty to a voluntary organization could not well be expected to develop suddenly. Yet such qualities, in generous measure, are necessary to withstand the temptation of temporary but immediate and alluring gains frequently offered to induce members to violate cooperative agreements or withdraw from the organizations. In fire insurance, however, the local cooperative company, as above indicated,

has been able to effect so large a saving, especially in the operating expenses necessarily incurred by the more complex commercial company, that even temporary competition on the part of the larger concern has been exceedingly difficult. In recent years, moreover, uniform rate laws have in many States made local and temporary competition impossible.

It is by no means surprising that cooperation should have been resorted to in supplying the need for insurance protection. In a broader sense all insurance may be said to be cooperative. It implies the assumption of the loss burdens to which the individual is subject, by a collective body of which all the insured are in effect members, even where they do not share in the management. The sum total of the burdens which have been lifted from the individuals insured rests ultimately, in all cases, not on the management but on the membership of the body. Under the mutual plan, however, the cooperation is more conscious and direct. Especially is this true when the company operates in a limited territory or when the risks assumed belong, broadly speaking, to a single class. In the farmers' mutuals both of these conditions may be found.

POSSIBILITIES OF YET GREATER SERVICE.

The full possibilities of direct and conscious cooperation in farmers' mutual fire insurance have not as yet been realized. At least one group of mutual companies in this country has far outstripped the farmers' mutuals in bringing about effective cooperation for the prevention of losses. This group is known as the factory mutuals, and consists of 19 companies mainly located in the New England States. Thev insure large factories only, and have so far limited themselves to that part of the United States east of the Mississippi River. Not only have these companies succeeded in securing the effective cooperation of their members in working for the prevention of losses, but the organizations as such have freely and generously cooperated with one another. A joint bureau has been maintained for years in the city of Boston for the advancement of the science of safe construction and for the frequent and thorough inspection of their risks. Their efforts have been highly successful. The oldest of these companies, for example, was organized in 1835. During the first 10 years of its existence the average cost per \$100 of insur-

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ance was 84 cents. Such has been the reduction in the insurance cost that the average for the last 10 years has fallen below 6 cents. This means that the cost of insurance in this company has been reduced to approximately 7 per cent of what it was three-quarters of a century ago.

Besides farmers' mutuals and factory mutuals, our insurance reports reveal an increasing number of grain-dealers' mutuals, lumbermen's mutuals, implement-dealers' mutuals, hardware-dealers' mutuals, grocers' mutuals, and druggists' mutuals. All of these so-called class mutuals owe their existence to the belief that what has been done by the factory mutuals can be accomplished, in some measure at least, by other classes of mutuals. There seems no good reason why in every instance this hope should not be realized.

A group of individuals all engaged in the same business can hardly fail to elect as officers of their company men who are familiar with the particular kind of risks in question. Moreover, the members of a company of this kind know that the improvement of their risks, in response to same requirements on the part of the company, will not merely tend to a reduction of insurance cost, but will immediately result in reduced premium charges or assessments. As a final advantage may be mentioned the fact that a class mutual is likely to have its risks widely scattered, thus reducing the danger of a conflagration loss.

While the farmers' companies, as already set forth, have much to their credit, indications are that the possibilities ahead of them far exceed, in economic and social significance, what already has been accomplished. Not only is the greater part of the field of insurable farm risks in most States still untouched, but the possibilities of further reducing the cost of insurance by the application to fire losses of what may be called the principle of stoppage at the source, are believed to be great. Hitherto the economies of the farmers' mutuals have consisted largely, as has been stated, in a reduction of the expense item and the lessening or the removal of the moral hazard. The old ratio of losses from a variety of other more or less readily removable sources has continued practically undiminished.

Many of the farmers' companies have emphasized the reduction in the expense item of their cost of insurance to the neglect of the larger possibilities in the reduction of the

loss item. They have failed, in some cases at least, to take into consideration the fact that every thousand-dollar risk saved from destruction not only saves the company \$1,000, but further saves the individual who owns the property from \$300 to \$500 on that part of the property not covered by the insurance. This important item should not be overlooked by a mutual company in a calculation of possible saving through efforts at loss prevention. One farmers' mutual insurance man recently described the situation by saying that many a director of a farmers' mutual has been holding a penny of expense so close to his eye that it has obscured a dollar that easily could have been saved in the annual fire loss. The inconveniences and privations as well as the danger to human lives that fires frequently involve, in spite of insurance, should also be considered.

It has been demonstrated that in the case of country risks as well as in that of other classes of insured property careful periodic inspection will prevent a considerable percentage of the losses that otherwise would have occurred. A group of New England companies have reduced their losses on country risks materially in the last few years by means of a system of inspection. Companies and groups of companies in other localities recently have begun activities of this kind. Most of the farmers' mutuals could well afford to double their expenses if by so doing they could reduce their losses by 25 per cent.

All risks should be thoroughly inspected at least every second or third year by a well-qualified representative of the company, and the members duly warned against any dangerous conditions or practices that may be found. When necessary, continuance as a member of the company should be made conditional upon compliance with recommendations for the removal of needless fire dangers.

The safe construction of farm buildings as well as their maintenance in a safe condition should be encouraged by a reasonable classification of risks, worked out with special reference to the particular locality. Justice as well as expediency suggests this plan. It is hardly fair to charge a man who builds carefully and guards his property against dangerous conditions the same rate as is paid by one who builds carelessly and gives little heed to the safety of his property after it is constructed. Moreover, unless the desirable features of the better risks are recognized in this way, there is danger that, in spite of the lower average cost, the very best risks in the territory occupied by a local mutual may be picked up by larger insurance concerns that do classify.

Reasonable efforts should be made by every farmers' mutual to spread information among its members not only concerning the safe construction and upkeep of their property, but also concerning devices for the checking of a fire if one should occur. Thus the value of conveniently located water supplies in tanks, barrels, or buckets, of ladders by which the roof can be reached readily, and of chemical extinguishers should be duly emphasized.

The causes of fires should be more thoroughly studied and more carefully tabulated, and the loss reports, which should be placed before every member of the company, should group the losses experienced according to these causes. By concrete and near-at-hand examples of this kind can the members be warned most effectively concerning the dangers of defective flues, of dilapidated and weather-beaten shingle roofs, of the want of lightning protection on buildings and on fences, of soot accumulations in chimneys, of the careless disposition of ashes, of rubbish accumulations in garrets or elsewhere, of the use of the so-called parlor match, and of the careless use of kerosene, gasoline, and other inflammable substances.

There is no organized private agency more directly concerned with the elimination of our needless fire waste, either in the country or in the city, than the insurance company. Where such a company is organized on the mutual plan and operates in a limited territory, or is composed of persons who have similar risks to insure, it has a special opportunity for effective service. There is then no excuse for a conflict of interests. The welfare of the company is the welfare of the insured. By more generally taking advantage of this opportunity to become vital agencies for the conservation of property, as well as for the distribution of unavoidable loss burdens, the farmers' mutuals will further promote the welfare of their members and will strengthen their position as insurance companies.



DEVELOPMENT AND LOCALIZATION OF TRUCK CROPS IN THE UNITED STATES.

By FRED J. BLAIR, Truck Crop Specialist, Bureau of Crop Estimates. TRUCK-GROWING REGIONS.

THE area devoted to the commercial production of truck crops may be divided advantageously into five sections-the Atlantic Coast States, from southern New Jersey to Florida: the Gulf States: from Alabama to Texas: the Pacific Coast States; the Southern States, including the inland territory of the Atlantic Coast and Gulf States, and Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona, and Nevada; and the northern belt of States east of the Rocky Mountains. It appears desirable to take up only that phase of the subject that relates to commercial or truckfarming areas-areas growing for shipment to more or less distant markets, leaving out market-garden communities which exist in the neighborhood of all cities and whose products are disposed of by the individual growers in the home markets. Another phase of the subject is the acreage grown for manufacture, the product of which, while it does not come upon the market as truck, is very important because of its magnitude.

The Atlantic coast, the Gulf, and the Pacific coast sections are preeminently the winter gardens of the north and from early winter to late in the spring supplies of practically every variety of green vegetables are shipped to northern markets from these sections. Florida, California, Texas, and Louisana take the lead in winter vegetables, the other States falling into line as the season advances. The Norfolk section, owing to its peculiarly favorable location, also ships certain varieties of hardy vegetables, such as spinach and kale, throughout the winter. Conditions are reversed in the late summer and the North sends its vegetables to southern markets.

Successful truck farming depends upon reasonable proximity to large centers of nonagricultural population and reasonable proximity is expressed in terms of transportation.

Previous to 1860 truck farming was unknown, except to a very limited extent along the steamboat and railway lines leading out 50 miles or so from a few of the larger northern cities. Long Island, New Jersey, Delaware, and southern Illinois appear to have been at that time the leading truck centers of the country. (Census of 1890, Agriculture, page 592.)

The early development of the northern Atlantic seaboard as a trucking section was due largely to the low altitude of the land and the modifying effect on climate of the presence of large bodies of water. Southern New Jersey and the Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia peninsula are protected by the Atlantic Ocean on one side and the Delaware and Chesapeake Bays on the other. This protection enables the planting of truck crops much earlier than in other localities in the same latitude. In addition to the above this region is in close proximity to several of the largest cities of the country, has the advantage of both water and rail transportation, and a soil peculiarly adapted to the production of early vegetables.

It is to be expected, therefore, that the earliest development of areas of commercial truck production will be found in southern New Jersey (Burlington, Camden, Gloucester, Salem, and Cumberland Counties) and in Delaware, these regions having had access to the markets of New York and Philadelphia from the earliest times, and that this fact will be clearly shown in the more rapid development of the trucking industry in territory lying farther south.

GROWTH OF THE TRUCKING INDUSTRY FROM 1890 TO 1915.

The census of 1900 was the first to make a detailed report on truck crops, but published by counties the acreage of potatoes and onions only. The acreage of all other vegetables was published by States. The census of 1910 collected this information, but did not publish it, and it has not been available to the general public. The census of 1890 enumerated among truck crops the acreage of Irish potatoes only, and as that crop was carried through the two succeeding census enumerations, and as it is more widely grown than any other, it seemed to be the most available for the purpose of illustrating the general growth of the trucking industry. In considering the figures given in the following it should be borne in mind that the census of 1910 is not strictly comparable with the census of 1900, for the reason that in making the enumeration of truck-crop acreage in 1910 areas of less than 1 acre were not enumerated, while in the enumeration of 1900 all areas considered commercial areas were included. This difference would operate to decrease the percentage of increase for 1910 as compared with 1900.

Potatoes, sweet potatoes, and strawberries were not included in figures for miscellaneous vegetables.

The production of early Irish potatoes in the five counties of New Jersev mentioned above had already become large in 1890, the census of that year enumerating the area at 18.888 acres. or more than 40 per cent of the entire acreage for the State. In 1900 the area was given as 20,399 acres, or about 38 per cent of the acreage for the State, and in 1910 at 35,118 acres, or about 48 per cent of the acreage for the State. In 1915 the area for the State was estimated to be 93,000 acres by the Department of Agriculture. The average increase shown by the three census enumerations is 42 per cent. and the estimated area for the five counties in 1915 may, therefore, be stated at 39,060 acres. The increase for the 20-year period covered by the census was about 90 per cent. The area of other vegetables in 1900 in the counties under consideration was 45,951 acres, and in 1910, 52,666 acres. an increase of about 14 per cent. The census of 1890 did not report the acreage of other vegetables, and the comparison is, therefore, for the 10-year period from 1900 to 1910.

The area of early Irish potatoes in Delaware in 1890 was 4,870 acres, in 1900 the area was 5,755 acres, and in 1910 9,703 acres, or an increase for the 20-year period of about 100 per cent. The area in 1915 was estimated by the Department of Agriculture to be 11,000 acres, an increase of about 13 per cent for the 5-year period. The area of other vegetables was 23,987 acres in 1900 and 22,939 in 1910, a slight decrease.

The principal increase, it will be noted, in both New Jersey and Delaware has been in the acreage of potatoes, the increase amounting to 90 and 100 per cent for the period from 1890 to 1910, respectively. There was a small increase in the production of other vegetables in New Jersey (14 per cent), and a slight decrease in Delaware. Large quantities of all vegetables are, however, grown for market in home cities, i. e., Philadelphia and New York, and for sale to canneries.

ATLANTIC COAST STATES.

THE EASTERN SHORE OF MARYLAND AND VIRGINIA.

The territory under consideration in Maryland is comprised in the counties of Somerset, Wicomico, and Worcester, which counties in 1890 had 1,388 acres, in 1900 3,681 acres, and in 1910 7,414 acres in early Irish potatoes, an increase of 434 per cent for the 20-year period. There appears to have been a decrease during the 5-year period ending with 1915. The acreage of all other vegetables in these three counties was 8,745 in 1900 and 11,127 in 1910, an increase of over 27 per cent.

It remains to consider the two Virginia counties-Accomac and Northampton-forming the southern end of the Maryland and Virginia peninsula, and it is in these two counties that the most remarkable development in the production of potatoes for the early spring market has taken place. In 1890 these counties had 4,262 acres in potatoes, in 1900 the acreage had grown to 11,475, in 1910 the acreage was 30,688, and in 1915 it was estimated by the Department of Agriculture to be 90,000 acres, an increase of over 2,000 per cent as compared with 1890. This remarkable growth in potato production places the Eastern Shore counties of Virginia far in the lead of all other early potato-growing sections. This district has more than double the acreage of the New Jersey district, the district next in rank, nearly four times the acreage of the Norfolk section, and more than six times the acreage of any other early-potato district.

THE NORFOLK SECTION OF VIRGINIA.

In the fifties the raising of vegetables for northern markets began at Norfolk, Va. In 1854 the steamer *Roanoke* carried the first shipment of 200 barrels of garden truck to New York. To secure proper ventilation, however, it was necessary that these should be carried on deck, so that the quantity which might be transported on any trip was not

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large, 400 packages being about the limit. The boats then in use required at least 36 hours to reach New York, and hence the shipment of even small quantities of highly perishable articles was attended with great risk. At the present time forced ventilation allows of loading between decks, increased tonnage enables a vessel to carry as high as 25,000 packages, and the trip is made in 19 hours. * * * The first all-rail shipment of garden truck was made from Norfolk, Va., in 1885. (Census of 1900, Vol. V, Part I, p. 304.)

The entire coast line from Norfolk south to Beaufort, S. C., is very much broken by bays, sounds, and the estuaries of many rivers and creeks, through the means of which tidewater enters far into the land area, exerting a marked influence upon climatic conditions, which is further aided by the presence of the Gulf Stream at no great distance from the coast line at any point. The climate of the Norfolk section is so modified and controlled by these influences and the low-lying altitude of the land that it enjoys a winter climate as mild and little subject to sudden changes and to the influence of destructive frosts and freezes as may be found many miles to the southward. It is, therefore, possible to grow such hardy vegetables as spinach and kale throughout the winter without protection, and to plant a cabbage crop in November to be harvested for the early spring market.

The Norfolk section in Virginia includes Isle of Wight, Nansemond, Norfolk, Princess Anne, and York Counties. In 1890 there were 8,218 acres of potatoes in these counties, in 1900, 12,875 acres, and in 1910, 16,077 acres, an increase of about 95 per cent for the 20-year period. In 1915 it is estimated there were 26,500 acres in the district, an increase of about 64 per cent for the 5-year period.

In 1900 there were 14,537 acres of other vegetables, and in 1910, 16,593 acres. In the latter year there were 4,281 acres of strawberries grown, from which 122,157 sixty-quart crates of berries were shipped. The increase in other vegetables for the 10-year period from 1900 to 1910 was about 14 per cent. The area in other vegetables is estimated for 1915 at 23,150 acres, an increase of nearly 40 per cent for the 5-year period. The area in strawberries for that year is estimated at 4,000 acres, from which 134,959 sixty-quart crates were shipped.

The census of 1900 gives the total number of pieces (barrels, boxes, and crates) shipped from the Norfolk section of Virginia in 1889 at 2,789,557. This estimate excludes small

fruits, but includes potatoes and sweet potatoes. In 1910 the total number of pieces and packages of vegetables shipped from the district was 3,030,856, an increase of nearly 9 per cent. The shipments from the district in 1911 were 2,907,-848; in 1912, 3,777,282; in 1913, 3,898,159; in 1914, 3,928,384; and in 1915, 4,501,894. The increase for the 5-year period was nearly 50 per cent.

The total area in vegetables for the district in 1915, including potatoes, sweet potatoes, and strawberries, is estimated at 54,500 acres. It will be noted here that the total estimated area in all vegetables, including strawberries in 1915, is only about 2,000 acres larger than the area for the five counties in New Jersev in 1910, with potatoes, sweet potatoes, and strawberries excluded. The five counties in New Jersev increased at the rate of 14 per cent for the 10-year period 1900 to 1910, and if the increase maintained itself for the following five years, the total of all vegetables, excluding potatoes, sweet potatoes, and strawberries, would be 60.039 acres. Add to this total 39.060 acres of potatoes, about 19.000 acres of sweet potatoes, and 5,000 acres of strawberries and the grand total is 123.099 acres of all truck crops for the five counties of New Jersev, more than double the acreage of the five counties comprised in the Norfolk district.

NORTH CAROLINA.

The census of 1890 included eight northeastern counties of North Carolina in the Norfolk district. Since that time an important center of production for truck crops has developed at Wilmington, N. C., in New Hanover County, and lesser centers at Elizabeth City, Washington, Aurora, and Newbern.

The first all-rail shipment of garden vegetables was made from eastern North Carolina in 1887.

The three counties of North Carolina—Camden, Currituck, and Pasquotank—bordering on and practically a part of the Norfolk district of Virginia, are estimated to have had 4,800 acres in early potatoes in 1915, as compared with 862 acres in 1890, 1,415 acres in 1900, and 3,421 acres in 1910, an increase for the period covered of over 456 per cent. A decrease of about 29 per cent in the production of other vegetables occurred during the period from 1900 to 1910.

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The counties lying to the south—Pamlico, Washington, and Beaufort—planted 4,285 acres of early potatoes in 1915, 3,585 acres of which were in Beaufort County. The same counties planted 384 acres in 1890, but with the exception of Beaufort County, have made no material increase in acreage since 1910.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

'Two important trucking centers have developed in Charleston and Beaufort Counties. S. C .- at Meggetts and Beaufort, respectively-where exchanges are maintained through which a large percentage of the crops produced are marketed. The first all-rail shipment was made from Charleston in 1888, but Charleston had long been in touch with northern markets through the medium of water transportation. The Beaufort district covers all that territory tributary to the Charleston & Western Carolina Railway. from Port Royal to Yamassee, a distance of about 25 miles. and embraces practically all of Beaufort County engaged in the truck-farming industry. The trucking industry first became important with the advent of the railroad about 1889 and has steadily developed in magnitude, as is indicated below. At one time asparagus was the principal crop, but was abandoned for early Irish potatoes and cabbages. Cabbage not proving satisfactory, has been replaced by lettuce: this and Irish potatoes are now the principal crops produced. The area in tomatoes, however, is increasing steadily.

In 1890 there were 921 acres in early potatoes at Charleston and but 30 acres at Beaufort. In 1900 the area at Charleston was 2,127 acres, and 934 at Beaufort. In 1910 there were 1,238 acres at Charleston and 1,678 acres at Beaufort. In 1915 the area at Charleston was 3,000 acres and at Beaufort 2,145. The area of other vegetables in 1900 was 3,140 acres at Charleston and 1,016 at Beaufort. In 1910 the area at Charleston had increased to 3,474 acres, and at Beaufort to 1,785 acres. In 1915 the area of miscellaneous vegetables was estimated at 5,500 acres at Charleston and 2,000 acres at Beaufort.

FLORIDA.

Florida, the far-south member of the Atlantic Coast division, is perhaps the most general trucking community in the United States. A long, comparatively narrow peninsula, protected by the warm waters of the Gulf of Mexico on the west and the Atlantic Ocean on the east, with the Gulf Stream rounding its southern end and flowing northward in close proximity to its coast line, it possesses a very equable climate. Although Florida is not wholly free from frosts and freezes, such conditions are rare. Florida is not uniformly blessed with the advantage of good soil, but this defect frequently is offset by the use of fertilizers, and her nearness to the great markets of the North, and the fact that she can produce her crops without irrigation, places her in an advantageous position for the successful promotion of truck farming for the winter and spring market.

For the year 1890 the comparison is limited to the potato crop. But 1,218 acres of potatoes were enumerated for the State in 1890 and 3,752 acres in 1900. In 1910 the area had increased to 8,509 acres, or nearly 600 per cent for the 20year period. Of the area grown in 1910, 5,089 acres, or about 60 per cent, were in the East Coast North region, and a large proportion of the area in what is known as the St. Johns district. This region had increased from 218 acres in 1890, or 2,235 per cent for the 20-year period. In 1915 the area of potatoes grown in the State is estimated at 16,000 acres, and 11,505 acres of the total was grown in the East Coast North region, of which 10,000 acres, or nearly 87 per cent, were grown in the St. Johns district.

The area of potatoes in Florida is comparatively small when compared with that devoted to the production of miscellaneous vegetables, and no figures for vegetables other than potatoes are available for the census year 1890. In 1900 the area in miscellaneous vegetables was 29,815 acres. In 1910 it had increased to 57,579 acres, or more than 93 per cent, and in 1915 the area is estimated at 79,672 acres, a further increase during the period of five years of about 38 per cent. The total area in miscellaneous vegetables in Florida in 1910, including potatoes and strawberries, was 67,452 acres, and in 1915, 99,162, an increase of 31,710 acres, or about 47 per cent for the five years.

THE GULF STATES.

The Gulf States division contains two very important truck-producing regions—southern Louisiana and southern Texas. Others of less importance exist in Alabama and Mis-

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sissippi. Such a region developed early around Mobile, Ala. The census of 1890 gives the following table showing the shipment of vegetables from Mobile, Ala., in 1888, 1889, and 1890:

Vegetables shipped from Mobile, Ala., in 1888, 1889, and 1890.

Vegetable.		1890	1889	1888
Cabbage	crates	58,309	66, 950	46, 592
Potatoes	barrels	78,924	46,508	66, 287
Beans	boxes	46, 178	24,949	33, 487
Peas	do	1,278	. 8,923	5,928
Cucumbers.	barrels			132
Tomatoes	boxes	2,695	7,590	6,578
Watermelons		10, 881	3,395	4,470
Various packages		785	1,409	264

The total value of the above shipments is given as follows: 1888, \$393,295; 1889, \$371,113; 1890, \$458,065. The following statement is added: "For shipments from Mobile County 33.3 per cent should be added, not included above, making a grand total for the three years of \$1,629,964 for this small section."

There were 780 acres of early potatoes in the Mobile district, including Mobile, Baldwin, and Washington Counties, in 1890; 1,966 acres in 1900; 2,265 acres in 1910; and 1,568 acres in 1915.

Shipments in car lots from Mobile in 1915, as estimated by the Bureau of Crop Estimates, were as follows: Cabbages, 556 cars; potatoes, 83 cars; snap beans, 35 cars; and miscellaneous, 21 cars; total, 695 cars. It, therefore, appears that about 80 per cent of all shipments from Mobile in 1915 were cabbages, of which there were 921 acres in 1910. The acreage for 1915 is not known.

There is an important truck-farming district around Crystal Springs, in Copiah County, Miss. The census for 1900 gives this district 3,483 acres of miscellaneous vegetables, which increased to 6,502 acres in 1910. Figures for 1915 are not available.

There were 6,325 acres of early potatoes in selected parishes in southern Louisiana in 1890; 6,546 in 1900; 11,116 in 1910; and it is estimated that there were 14,808 acres in 1915. an increase for the 25-year period from 1890 to 1915 of about 134 per cent. This is an old and well-settled trucking region and rapid development is not to be looked for in the production of miscellaneous vegetables. Lafourche Parish is perhaps the most notable for the production of potatoes. Creole onions, and garlic. This parish had 4.065 acres of potatoes in 1890: 1.817 acres in 1900: 2.318 acres in 1910: and it is estimated there were 3,000 acres in 1915. Lafourche Parish grew 762 acres of Creole onions in 1900: 2.514 acres in 1910: and it is estimated there were 2.750 acres in 1915. The parish also grew about 1.000 acres of garlic in 1915. The development of certain parishes in the production of strawberries is particularly notable and will be taken up later in connection with that crop.

The truck-farming industry has developed most rapidly in the southern districts of Texas, comprising 32 out of her 250 counties. Taking the district as a whole, there were 2.238 acres of potatoes in 1890, as compared with 4.331 acres in 1900; 10,797 acres in 1910, and 18,188 acres in 1915. The most remarkable development of the early potato industry was in Colorado and Wharton Counties, known as the Eagle Lake district, where there were 147 acres of potatoes in 1890. as compared with 2.639 acres in 1910, and 7.530 acres in 1915. The development of the Bermuda onion industry has been quite as remarkable. The census of 1900 enumerated 63 acres of onions in the 10 counties comprised in the onion district. In 1910 there were 3,514 acres, and in 1915 the area was estimated to be 9,343 acres. Similar development has taken place with other crops, such as strawberries, tomatoes, cabbages, and lettuce. The production of miscellaneous vegetables in the district under consideration in 1900 was 16.801 acres, and in 1910, 32,885 acres, an increase of nearly 100 per cent. Complete figures for 1915 are not available, but the development of practically all crops has been rapid in the last five years, as is indicated by the increase in potato and onion acreages as stated above.

PACIFIC COAST STATES.

The development of the early potato industry in southern California has been slow. In 1890 there were 7,385 acres; in 1900, 6,612 acres, and in 1910, 8,885 acres. The production

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of miscellaneous vegetables, however, increased rapidly. In 1900 there were 8,053 acres, and in 1910, 26,187 acres.

The area in potatoes in central California in 1890 was 22,490 acres; in 1900, 27,994, and in 1910, 50,688, an increase of about 125 per cent over 1890. With regard to southern California it may, perhaps, be taken for granted that the potato acreage is practically all for the early market, but in the central district of the State this is not the fact. It appears, however, that about 50 per cent of the total crop for the State is marketed in April, May, June, and July. The estimated crop for the State in 1915 is 78,000, which would give 39,000 acres as the total acreage in early potatoes in 1915, 33,844 acres in 1910, 21,049 acres in 1900, and 19,089 acres in 1890. The area of miscellaneous vegetables in the central district was 14,523 acres in 1900 and 41,640 in 1910.

The trucking industry in Oregon is centered in Clackamas, Marion, Multnomah, and Washington Counties. In 1890 these counties grew 8,106 acres of potatoes, 14,683 acres in 1900, and 22,113 acres in 1910. The area of miscellaneous vegetables in 1900 was 4,204 acres, and 6,778 acres in 1910. It is not known what per cent of the crop of potatoes is harvested in May, June, and July.

Clarke, King, Pierce, Spokane, Walla Walla, Whitman, and Yakima Counties of Washington grew 5,910 acres of potatoes in 1890; 11,136 acres in 1900, and 32,311 acres in 1910. There were 5,502 acres of miscellaneous vegetables in 1900 and 10,667 acres in 1910. About 20 per cent of the potato crop is harvested in May, June, and July.

THE INTERIOR SOUTHERN STATES.

Of the interior belt of southern States not already reviewed, there remain Kentucky, whose trucking center is Louisville, in Jefferson County, where onions and early potatoes are produced in large quantities. Strawberries are an important crop also, the principal center of production being at Bowling Green, where about 60 per cent of the crop of the State is produced. Tennessee is one of the most important States in strawberry production, and also produces cantaloupes and tomatoes in considerable quantities. Large quantities of cantaloupes and strawberries are grown in the western tier of counties of Arkansas, and strawberries in

White County. There is a considerable acreage in early potatoes in the Fort Smith district. Oklahoma produces a large quantity of early potatoes in the Arkansas Valley, and there is a large acreage of watermelons around Chickasha and in counties south of that point to the Texas line at Terrell. New Mexico, Arizona, and Nevada also have considerable acreages in cantaloupes.

THE NORTHERN STATES EAST OF THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS (INCLUDING COLORADO).

The two great staple truck crops produced in the northern States, potatoes, sweet potatoes, and strawberries not considered, are cabbages and onions. Other truck crops are grown in large quantities, but with the exception of tomatoes, lettuce, celery, cucumbers, watermelons, and cantaloupes, large quantities of which are grown in certain localities for shipment, it is a home-supply market. Early potatoes are produced in considerable quantities in the Orrick district of Missouri and the Kaw Valley of Kansas. Good roads, automobiles, autotrucks, and electric lines have greatly increased the territory in which the operations of the market gardener may be carried on, and the summer markets of the great northern cities are almost wholly supplied with green vegetables from tributary territory.

ONIONS.

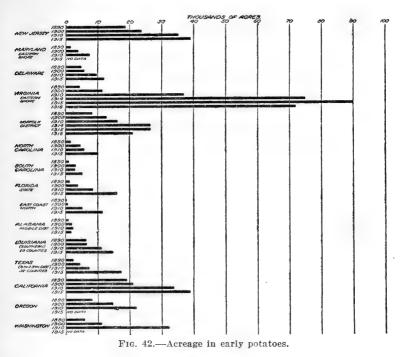
The principal onion-producing States in the northern and western groups are: Colorado, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin. The census of 1900 gave the area in onions for these States at 23,093 acres, in 1910 the area was 23,087 acres, and, as estimated by the Department of Agriculture, 36,161 acres in 1915.¹

The Pacific Coast States are properly included as to onion production with the northern and western belt. In 1900 the area in onions in these States was 3,530 acres; in 1910, 5,527 acres; and in 1915, as estimated by the Department of Agriculture, 10,376 acres.

¹ The area planted in onions in 1915 in the principal producing States was estimated by the Department of Agriculture to be 49,573 acres. Thirteen thousand four hundred and eighty-one acres were abandoned because of blow-outs, floods, blight, thrips, etc.

CABBAGES.

The principal cabbage-producing States in the northern and western belt of States are: Colorado, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, and Wisconsin. There were 52,256 acres in 1900, 66,147 acres in 1910, and 101,157 acres in 1915, in these States, an increase of over 93 per cent for the 15-year period.



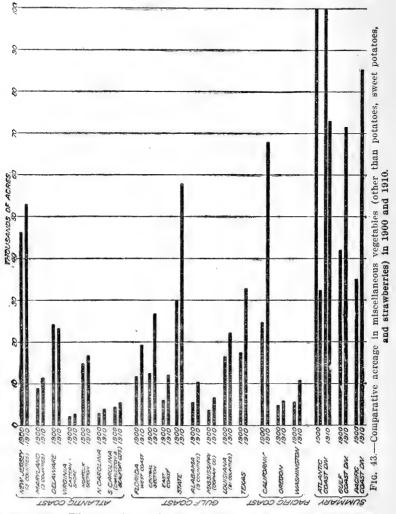
EARLY POTATOES.

Considering the Atlantic coast, Gulf coast, and Pacific coast districts together, there were 83,693 acres of early potatoes in 1890; 126,033 acres in 1900; 229,417 acres in 1910; and 324,519 in 1915, as estimated by the Department of Agriculture, an increase for the 5-year period from 1910 to 1915 of about 41 per cent.

For the districts mentioned the total area in miscellaneous vegetables in 1910 was 329,877 acres, as compared with 209,149 acres in 1900, an increase of more than 57 per cent.

STRAWBERRIES AND MISCELLANEOUS VEGETABLES.

The only important truck crop not included in miscellaneous vegetables is strawberries. This crop is produced in large quantities in the Atlantic coast, Gulf, and Pacific coast



groups. The territory in these groups, together with Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, Oklahoma, and Arkansas, grew 69,984 acres of strawberries in 1910; 93,155 acres in 1915; and 111,543 acres in 1916, an increase for 1916, as compared with 1910, of nearly 60 per cent in the territory estimated for.

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Other important crops included in miscellaneous vegetables are: Asparagus in New Jersey, South Carolina, and California: cabbages in all of the States, the five leading States being New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, Florida, and Texas: cauliflower in California and Louisiana; celery in Florida and California: cucumbers in Virginia, Florida, Texas, and California; lettuce in North Carolina, South Carolina Florida, Louisiana, Texas, and California; onions in Louisiana, Texas, and California; peas in Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Florida, and California; tomatoes in all of the States mentioned, but most heavily for the markets in Florida, Mississippi, New Jersey. Texas. and California; cantaloupes in California. Delaware, Georgia, North Carolina, Marvland, and Florida; watermelons, Texas, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Alabama, these States being the principal centers of production in 1910. The total acreage for these six States was 68,059 in 1910. In 1915 the acreage of watermelons in the States named was estimated to be 81,198. an increase of over 19 per cent for the 5-year period.

SOME NOTABLE EXAMPLES OF LOCALIZATION AND RAPID DEVELOPMENT.

ASPARAGUS.

Asparagus presents an example of localization and rapid development as an industry. In 1900 but two States, California and New Jersey, grew more than 1,000 acres each. In 1910 six States grew more than 1,000 acres each. The total for the six States was 7,034 acres in 1900 and 20,755 acres in 1910, an increase of about 195 per cent. During this period the single State of California increased its area to 9,399 acres, as compared with 7,034 acres for the six States in 1910; New Jersey was second in 1910 with 5,148 acres; Illinois third with 2,241 acres; South Carolina fourth with 1,773 acres; Pennsylvania fifth with 1,191 acres; and New York sixth with 1,003 acres. The total area for the United States was 25,607 acres.

CAULIFLOWER.

Of all truck crops cauliflower is the most restricted in area. In 1910 New York grew 1,720 acres, or nearly 50 per cent of the total production for the United States. Cali-

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fornia grew 790 acres; the two States including more than 72 per cent of the total for the United States.

CELERY.

The production of celery was practically confined to six States in 1910, those States growing 12,413 acres, or more than 78 per cent of the total acreage for the United States. New York was first with 2,926 acres; California second, 2,881 acres; Michigan third, 2,850 acres; Ohio fourth, 1,473 acres; Massachusetts fifth, 1,187 acres; and Pennsylvania sixth, 1,096 acres. The same six States grew 7,148 acres of celery in 1900. The total area for the United States was 9,315 acres in 1900 and 15,852 acres in 1910.

LETTUCE.

But two States grew more than 1,000 acres of lettuce in 1910. and the total area for the United States was 5,450 acres. Florida led with 1,450 acres, and New York was second with 1.012 acres. California was third with 595 acres. and Louisiana fourth with 515 acres. The total for the four States aggregated 3,572 acres, or more than 65 per cent of the total acreage for the United States. In 1915 it is estimated that there were 4.164 acres of lettuce in Florida: 500 acres in the Beaufort district of South Carolina: 300 acres in the Wilmington district of North Carolina; and 750 acres in the Norfolk district of Virginia, aggregating 5,714 acres, or about 300 acres more than were reported for the United States in 1910. During the same period Texas with but 61 acres of lettuce in 1910 had increased its area to 2,800 acres in 1915, as estimated by the Department of Agriculture, while 1,000 acres are reported as grown in southern California in 1915.

GREEN PEPPERS.

The total area in green peppers reported by the census of 1910 was 3,483 acres. Of this area 1,882 acres, or more than 54 per cent of the total for the United States, were grown in New Jersey.

MARKET GARDEN, CANNING, AND OTHER TRUCKING CENTERS IN 1900 AND 1910.

It is not possible to secure any reliable data regarding truck grown in market-garden communities other than as furnished by the census. The census of 1900 described the territory tributary to New York City by counties, as follows: New York—New York County, Orange, Richmond, Rockland, and Westchester; Long Island—Kings, Nassau, Queens, and Suffolk; New Jersey—Bergen, Essex, Hudson, Middlesex, Monmouth, Morris, and Warren; Connecticut—Fairfield County.

The total area in truck crops embraced in this territory in 1900 was 35,581 acres. In 1910 the area in these counties was 40,371 acres, an increase of about 13 per cent. Eighteen crops were included.

The census of 1900 (Table XXIII) reported "118 canning, pickling, and trucking or market-garden centers in the United States," and gave the counties included in each district with the total acreage for each. It was, therefore, possible to compare these districts by counties with the census of 1910. From this comparison it appears there were 456,066 acres in the 118 districts in 1900 and 765,105 acres in 1910, an increase of nearly 68 per cent.

The following table shows the area tributary to 10 of the largest cities, as shown by Table XXIII of the census of 1900, above referred to, compared with the same territory in 1910:

City.	Area in specified vegetables.		City.	Area in specified vegetables.	
	1900	1910		1900	1910
	Acres.	Acres.		Acres.	Acres.
New York	35,581	40,371	Detroit	3,086	6,050
Philadelphia	43,023	58,640	St. Louis	9,917	9,334
Baltimore	49,882	45,905	Galveston and Houston	2,317	7,267
Cleveland	1,892	3,666	San Francisco	4,819	10,474
Cincinnati Chicago	9,397 11,871	9, 794 15, 043	Total	171, 785	206, 544

Area in vegetables in territory tributary to 10 cities, 1900 and 1910.

THE CANNING INDUSTRY.

The total area in corn, peas, and tomatoes reported to the Bureau of Crop Estimates of the United States Department of Agriculture in 1913, 1914, and 1915, as contracted for by canneries, is shown on the following page.

Crop.	1913	1914	1915
Corn	A cres, 137, 561	A cres. 190, 178	A cres. 190, 106
Peas	108,066	126, 177	101,698
Tomatoes	129,068	187,077	139, 837
Total	374, 695	503, 432	431, 641

Area in corn, peas, and tomatoes contracted for by canneries, 1913, 1914, and 1915.

The quantity bought outside of contracts reported to the Bureau of Crop Estimates of the United States Department of Agriculture in 1914 was 28.914 tons of corn. 5.864 tons of peas, and 199.081 tons of tomatoes. The total number of factories which may be engaged in canning one or more truck crops. as shown on the list of the National Canners' Association for 1915, is 2.412; of this number 735, or about 30 per cent, rendered no report and 405 of these are located in the States of Maryland and Virginia and were probably largely small canners of tomatoes. Of the 1,677 factories reporting in 1915, 365 reported idle, leaving a total of 1,312 factories reporting acreage under contract for one or more of the above crops. Eighty-four factories reported idle in 1913. 249 reported idle in 1914, and 365 reported idle in 1915. Of the factories reporting idle in 1915, 139 were located in Maryland and Virginia.

From a statement issued by the Bureau of the Census concerning the canning industry for 1914 it appears that the total value of vegetables canned in 1914 was \$84,413,667, as compared with a total value in 1909 of \$53,307,791, an inincrease of 58.4 per cent. This does not indicate an equal increase in acreage, but supports the increase in acreage indicated in the table above.

At least 14 vegetables are canned in greater or less quantities, corn (sweet), peas, and tomatoes taking the lead. A very heavy increase has occurred in the acreage of cucumbers grown for pickling, but complete figures are not available. The acreage in Michigan in 1915 may be cited as an example. The United States census of 1910 gave the total area in cucumbers for the United States as 32,310 acres, and the area for Michigan as 7.061, more than twice that of any other State. In 1915 the area for Michigan was estimated by the State field agent of the Bureau of Crop Estimates, Department of Agriculture, after a careful canvass, at 34,260 acres, or about 6 per cent greater than the total area for the United States in 1910. It is not supposed that this ratio of increase has been maintained throughout the United States, but a heavy increase is indicated for this industry. It is estimated by the department that the product of about 16,000 acres of cabbage was manufactured into kraut in 1915.

The great extent of the area devoted to the production of truck crops would lead the uninformed to suppose the industry to be one comparatively certain to produce satisfactory results, but it is, in fact, attended with considerable risk. vielding the grower heavy returns in money one year and proving almost a total loss the next. Truck crops are generally very easily damaged by frosts, freezes, droughts, excessive moisture, and floods, and replanting at high cost is sometimes done several times before a crop is secured, or the crop is so damaged and delayed that it fails to bring a remunerative price in northern markets. A case in point is to be found in the early potato crop of 1915, which was harvested from the largest acreage ever grown in the South up to that year and was forced to compete with the largest northern crop ever produced for the early spring market. The result was that the price per barrel in many cases was below the cost of production to the southern grower. Floods in the same year completely destroyed 5,000 acres of onions in Hardin County, Ohio, and 2,000 acres of onions in Jasper County, Ind., the total abandoned acreage for that year amounting to more than 13,000 acres.

In fact, the year 1915, because of the unusually cold and backward spring, was very disastrous to truck crops in all sections of the country, with few exceptions. The exceedingly warm fall and winter of 1915–16, on the other hand, cut the production of lettuce almost one-half from North Carolina to Texas, and a number of frosts and freezes damaged all tender crops seriously.

The acreage devoted to truck crops has increased rapidly, and never so rapidly as during the last five years. This persistent increase is due largely to an urban population ever increasing in numbers and wealth, that demands green vegetables throughout the winter months. The total urban population in 1889 was 22,720,223, or 36.1 per cent of the total population of the United States. In 1909 it was 42,623,383, an increase of about 87.6 per cent, and was 46.3 per cent of the total population. This was a gain in numbers of 19,903,160 in 20 years, or nearly 1,000,000 per year. The significant fact is the gain for the urban of 10.2 points over the rural population of 1889, as compared with 1909, thus reducing the producing element proportionately while the consuming element increased heavily.

Transportation facilities have been improved to cater to this increasing demand, and the products of California and Texas are delivered in good condition in New York. Precooling plants at points of origin prepare the crops for shipment, and refrigerator cars in solid trains are rushed across the continent to deliver the green vegetables of the Pacific coast in the markets of the East. No section of the country is now too far away to market some portion of its winter and early spring crops in the great consuming centers of the East.

The maps accompanying this article were prepared by Middleton Smith, of the Bureau of Crop Estimates.

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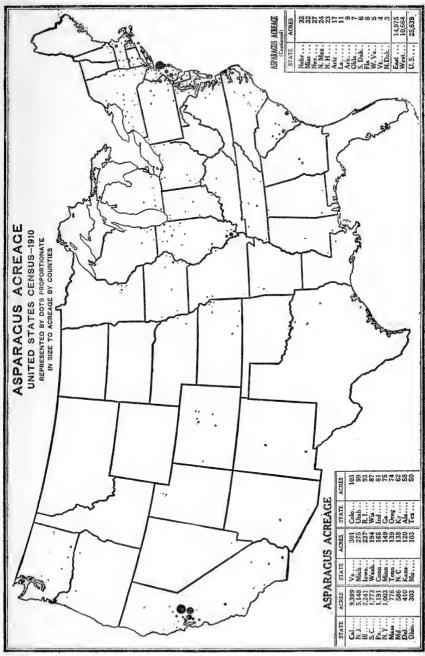


FIG. 44.



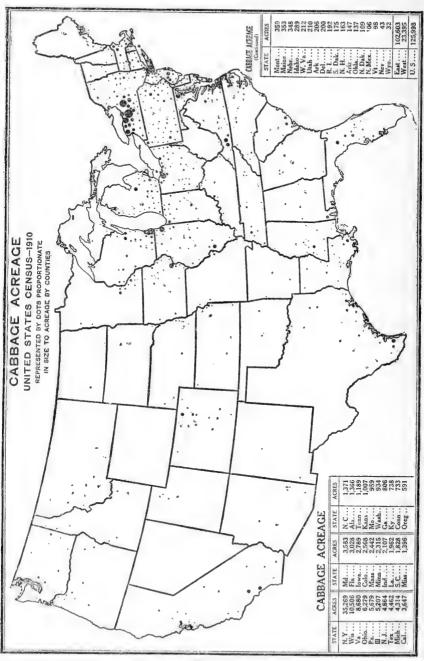


FIG. 45.

Development and Localization of Truck Crops. 457

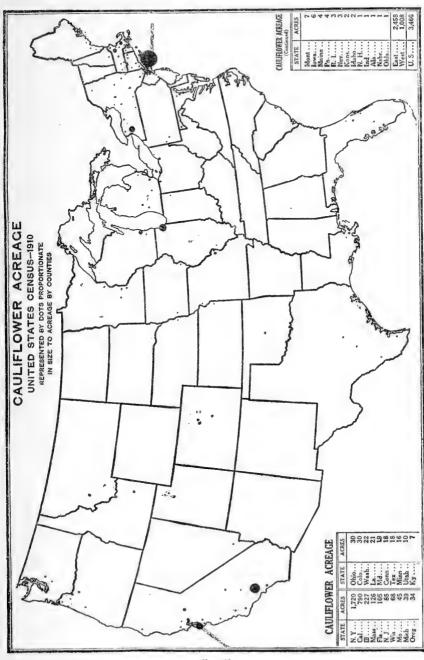
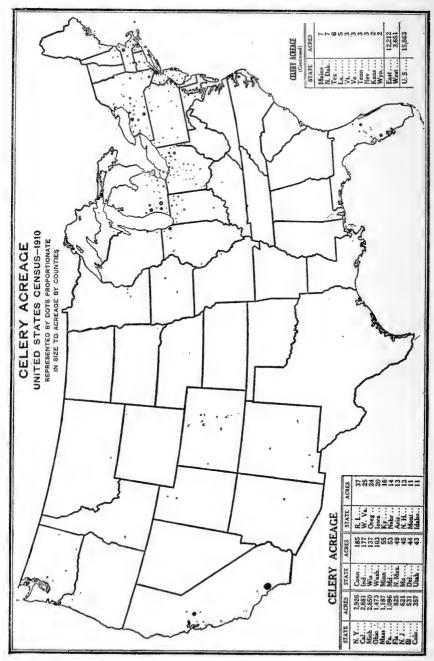


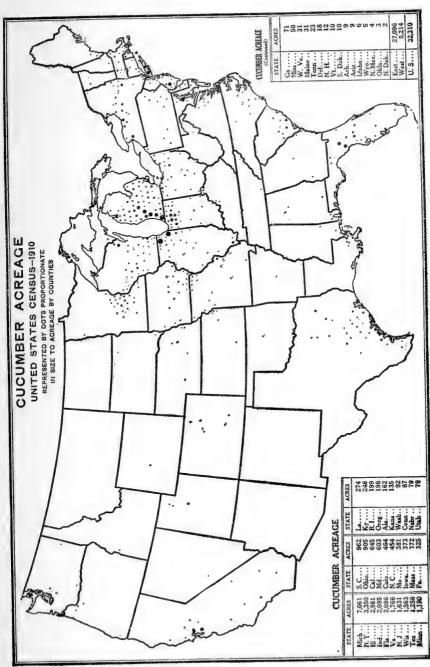
FIG. 46.



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FIG. 47.





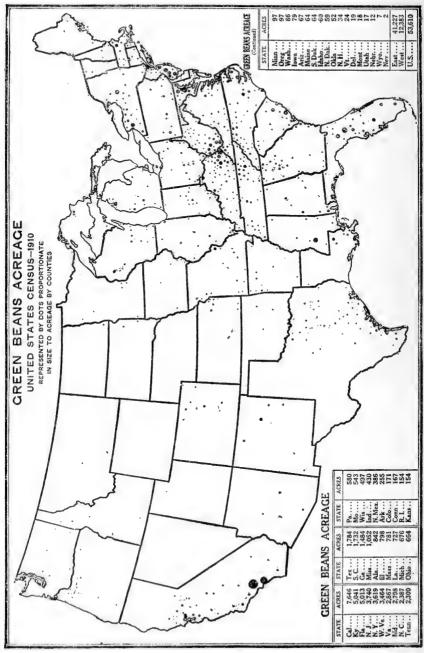


FIG. 49.

Development and Localization of Truck Crops. 461

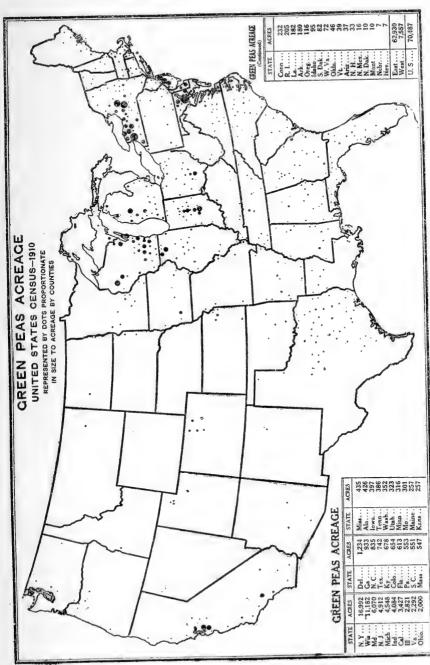


FIG. 50.

462 Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

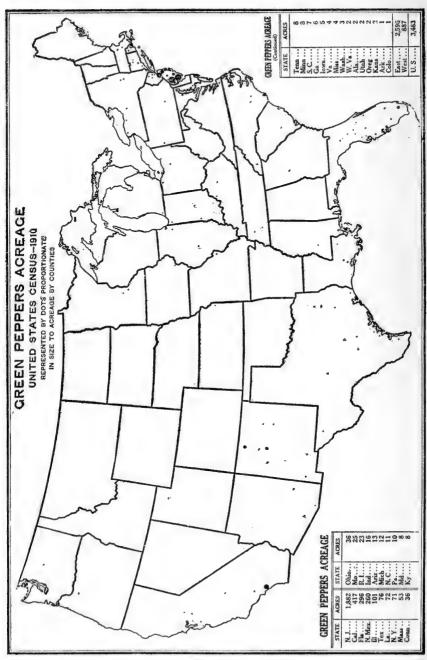


FIG. 51.

Development and Localization of Truck Crops. 463

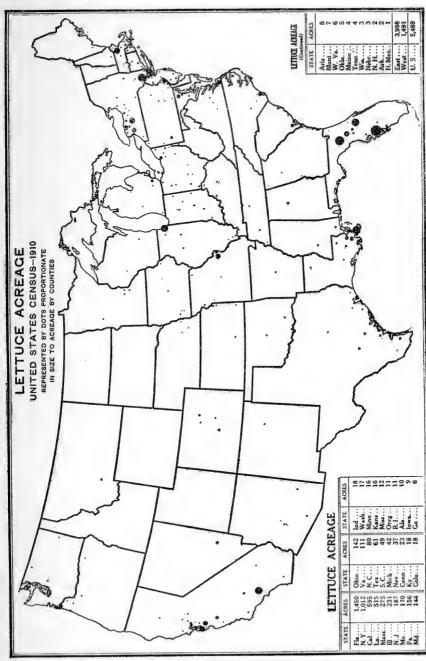


FIG. 52.

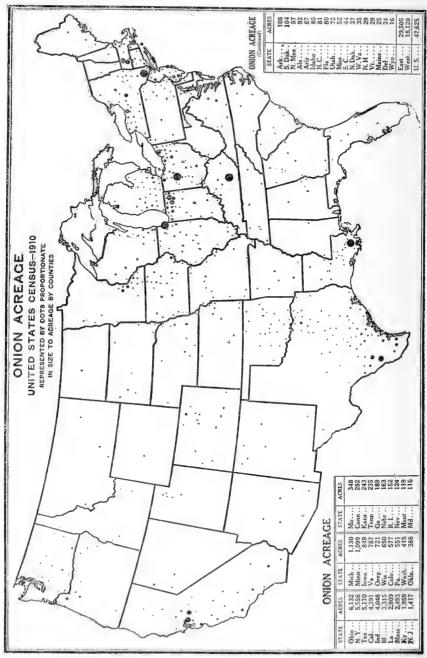
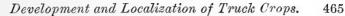
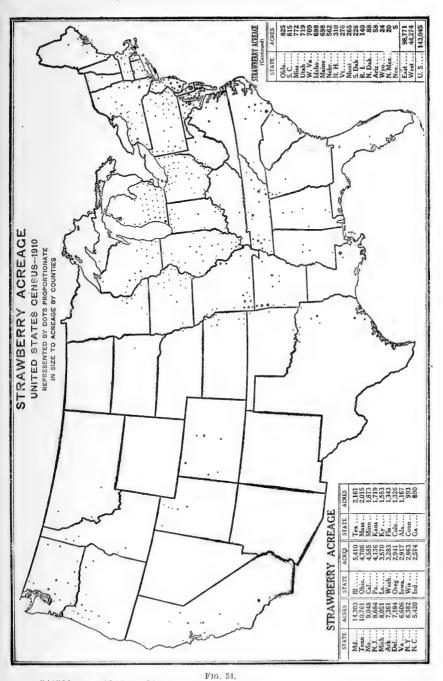
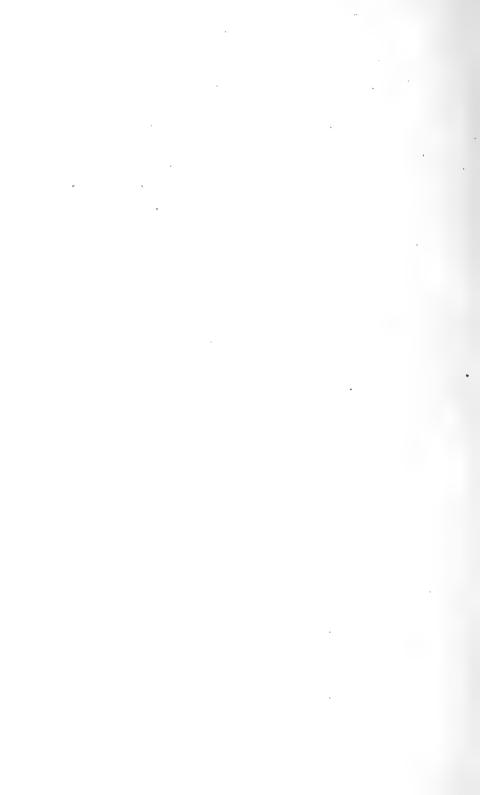


FIG. 53.







THE FUNCTION OF LIVE STOCK IN AGRICULTURE.¹

By George M. Rommel,

Chief of the Animal Husbandry Division, Bureau of Animal Industry.

THE animal industry is the most important branch of the agriculture of the United States. With a total value so great that one can not visualize it, it has an annual production of two and three-quarters billions of dollars, which is greater than the cereal output in an ordinary year. It is three times as valuable as the annual cotton production or the hay crop, and the latter largely depends on the animal industry for its value.

All have read Ingalls's brilliant apostrophe to grass, and recall how he said that "should its harvest fail for a single year, famine would depopulate the world." Poetic and beautiful as that sentiment is, it is economically and hygienically sound.

Some form of forage is essential, fundamentally, to the maintenance of animals; the animal industry is essential to the well-being of a prosperous and permanent agriculture; and a diet in which animal products form a part is essential to human health.

The function of live stock in agriculture rests on seven main points.

THE MAINTENANCE OF SOIL FERTILITY.

The first and most important is the maintenance of soil fertility. An elaborate development of this point is not possible in this place. It may, however, be illustrated by citing the report of the Thirteenth United States Census on Agriculture. Of the 10 States which lead in the value of animals sold and slaughtered on farms, all but two, Oklahoma and Kentucky, are among the first 10 in the value of all products. The two which appear in their places are New York and Minnesota. New York, by reason of leading in dairy production and hay and forage, holds a place among the first 10 in all products and Minnesota wins her place by reason of her prominence in dairying and cereals. Of the 10 leading

¹ This paper was presented at a meeting of the Second Pan-American Selentific Congress, Washington, D. C.

cotton States, only 2, Oklahoma and Texas, are also among the first 10 in value of animals sold and slaughtered; Texas alone is among the first 10 in value of all products.

Taking St. Louis as the center, let a circle be described with a radius of 500 miles and it will include part or all of the 10 leading States in animal production, part or all of 9 of the 10 leading States in value of all products, and part or all of 9 of the 10 leading States in cereal production.

Surveys covering a period of years, made by the Iowa State College, show that the live-stock farms of the State produce much larger grain and hay yields per acre than the strictly grain-producing farms. To maintain soil fertility, humus is necessary. It can be obtained from two sources—green crops plowed under, or barnyard manure. In view of the fact that a large proportion of the fertilizing value of forage and feed appears in the manure, it is more economical to feed than to plow under without feeding. Therefore, the most economical and practical source of humus is stable manure. No fertilizer equals it in completeness and lasting qualities. The farmer who has an abundant supply of this fertilizer and who balances it with phosphates, and supplements it with nitrates for forcing crops, need never fear the approach of decreasing soil fertility.

THE MANUFACTURING FUNCTION.

The second function of live stock is to enable the farmer to carry out an important manufacturing process, thus completing a manufacturing cycle. He takes the lean, unfinished cattle, sheep, or hogs, and his grain and forage, all raw products, and by the application of intelligent supervision. skillful labor, and adequate equipment converts them into finished beef, mutton, pork, or dairy products. This is the process familiarly known as "marketing the farm products on four legs," and is much to be preferred to marketing on four wheels. With intelligent management the farmer thus obtains in terms of meat and dairy products a much larger profit than he could possibly derive by selling his crops in the raw state. This doubtless accounts largely for the fact that in most farming sections the most prosperous farmers are those who pay a great deal of attention to live stock. It is of the greatest importance, especially in those sections of

the country which are just beginning to diversify their agriculture. In the Great Plains region and on most of the Federal reclamation projects it is, after the question of water for the crops, the most vital problem which farmers have to solve.

In the regions of settled farms, where cereal production leads all other forms of agricultural production, farmers have a difficult problem to adjust the necessity for live-stock raising with the high price of grain. We therefore see a second phase of this function in the use of live stock to convert into salable products those crops which for one reason or another have a low market value. At times the farmers of the northern part of the corn belt are at a loss to know what to do with the soft corn which early frost leaves on their hands. It is not marketable, and its only value is as a feed. Not knowing just how to dispose of it in this manner, farmers at such times send large numbers of immature pigs to market and curtail their cattle-feeding operations. The soft-corn problem, however, is an occurrence of only occasional importance. The constant problem of the farmer on high-priced land is how to keep his live stock economically. He can not afford to feed grain with a lavish hand. He must measure it by weight, not by volume. He must feed it at the time and in the manner to obtain from each bushel the maximum of gain in weight of milk produced or of work done. To the fullest extent possible he must utilize unsalable roughage. The cornstalks go into the silo or into the shock as cut fodder. The straw and coarse hay are utilized to the last calorie of energy value to supply the maintenance requirements. Crops that animals such as hogs and sheep can harvest will be utilized.

MOTIVE POWER.

The third function of live stock in agriculture is to supply most of the motive power used on the farm. This is the most important engineering problem with which the farmer has to deal. In the aggregate our farmers have to determine every year the efficient application of about 25 million horsepower, an amount equal to about half the total available water power in the entire country, excluding Alaska. The proper hitches to use, the adjustment of harness, whiffletrees, etc., are problems which for successful solution

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call for the correct application of some of the fundamental laws of physics. How to feed his work animals to get the maximum efficiency when at hard work, how to maintain them without serious deterioration when idle, are problems just as important and just as difficult as those of the engineer in charge of the furnaces of a manufacturing establishment.

What the effect of mechanical power on the future use of horses on the farm will be can not be predicted. Slowly but surely the auto-truck is driving dray horses from the city streets. Already the cheap automobiles have effectually put the driving horses off the country roads. The farm demand for several years has been the mainstay of the horse market. and the present tremendous exports have prevented a period of great depression of horse prices. If the farm demand hereafter is to be the chief outlet of the horse market, as no doubt it will, the question of the suitable horse for this market is highly important. The great ton drafter has been the aim of the farmer-breeder of the corn belt. That has been the horse which the city market demanded when in its prime. These horses are most valuable for moving heavy loads. With the increase in the weight and draft of farm machinery they have been also most useful for farm work, especially on heavy soils. The position of these horses on the farm is being attacked by the small tractor, and the tractor manufacturers believe that in time they will displace them. It has been observed time and again, however, that for each displacement of the horse has come an enlargement of industry which calls for further uses for horse-drawn apparatus. The question therefore is what type of horse the farmers of the future will need. This question can be answered only by speculation. Except for the heaviest farm work, such as plowing and hauling, the ton horse is not so suitable an animal as a smaller, more active one.

With the disappearance of the city demand for the heavy drafter, the farm demand will be met by breeding a lighter, more active animal. Therefore the next 25 years probably will witness, in the Percheron, for example, a return to the type of the French "diligence" horse, which was the early Percheron type, and an increase in the size and weight of the American breeds of horses, the Standardbred, the Saddle Horse, and the Morgan.

The Function of Live Stock in Agriculture.

THE PRINCIPAL SOURCE OF INCOME.

In diversified farming regions live stock as the money crop of the farm is a specialty business. In dairy districts it is, of course, the main activity, and every phase of farm management is bent toward it. Where farming has been long established, however, and the principal function of livestock feeding is to maintain soil fertility, those farms on which the live stock are the main source of income will be breeding centers for purebred animals. Only the most skilled animal husbandman can make a success of this business, and of those who engage in it successfully only the occasional man becomes really eminent, just as in any other profession. The great live-stock ranges pass with the approach of the homesteader or are limited to areas unsuitable for crop production. The large feeding stations in turn disappear with the increase in the price of land, and the Nation's supply of live stock is drawn from the production in small units, which in the aggregate make a total larger than was possible under more extensive conditions.

LIVE STOCK INCREASES THE INTEREST IN AND THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF FARM LIFE.

The fifth function of live stock is to make farm life more attractive and to increase the interest in it. The problem of how to develop agriculture by using for that purpose the best of the human life which has been developed on the farms is being attacked to-day as never before. The boys and girls who are born on the farm and have behind them the inheritance of generations of sturdy physique, clear thinking, and clean morals, and who come from life on the soil and in the fresh air, are the most valuable asset of the republic. How to encourage these young people to make farming their vocation in life transcends in importance all other problems of future agricultural development. The great Federal agricultural extension act has for its purpose bringing directly to the farmers the fruits of the last 30 years of research in agriculture, but this act will fail of its purpose if its operations stop with the training of the adult farmer. In a generation the adults are gone. Their places must be taken by their own sons and daughters. Therefore the corn clubs, canning clubs, potato clubs, poultry clubs, calf clubs,

and pig clubs have been organized among children of both sexes of school age. This movement promises more for the Nation than does the work with adults. Children are plastic; they adopt suggestions; they can learn. Too often the adult has become fixed in habits of thought and action, and try as he may, he nearly always lacks the adaptability of his children to grasp new ideas and methods.

The innate love of children for animals is one of the most potent forces which an agricultural-extension worker has at his command, and when the development of this trait is encouraged and the child thereby taught the importance of live stock in agriculture, something of the most fundamental importance to the agricultural development of the Nation is accomplished.

The organization of poultry clubs and pig clubs among boys and girls is one of the most important features of the club movement. They are found in all sections in many States. Probably most of the members are among the clubs organized by the Federal Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with the State agricultural colleges. On January 1, 1917, there were about 10,000 young people in the poultry clubs in 8 States, and 25,000 in the pig clubs in 14 States. This movement was started as an outgrowth of the organization of canning clubs among girls and corn clubs among boys. It was found impossible, however, to keep the boys out of the poultry clubs or the girls out of the pig clubs. Therefore no discrimination is made as to sex.

The plan of the Government, briefly, is as follows: On application from the State, the Federal department stations at the State agricultural college a specialist whose entire time is devoted to the direction of the club organization. At first this agent selects certain counties in which to work, and for the first year or two supervises most of the work himself. His aim, however, is to train the county agents and school teachers so that in time they can take full charge of the work, leaving the State agent's time for new work in other sections. The schools are a most fertile field for the organization of this work.

Each member of a poultry or pig club is required to hatch a setting of eggs or raise and fatten a pig, and render regular reports of his work. At the end of the year the members

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usually have an opportunity to compare the results of their efforts by exhibition at the county fairs or other places, and the winning animals at these exhibitions go to the State fair for further competition.

This work has been in progress ever since 1910, and since 1912 the Federal Department of Agriculture has been engaged in it. Already the exhibition of pigs and poultry from the clubs has become a prominent feature of some of the State fairs, especially in the South. Many of the members of the earlier years are now bona fide breeders, and many a boy is paying his way through college by the earnings from the animals in which he became interested as a club member.

METHOD, SYSTEM, AND BUSINESS ORGANIZATION.

The sixth function of live stock in agriculture is to improve the method, system, and business organization of the farm. The farm on which live stock are successfully raised must be managed in a methodical, systematic, businesslike, and sanitary manner. Farming is first of all a business operation, and no kind of farming calls for more business sense than live-stock farming. A grain farmer does not suffer seriously if his cultivating or harvesting is delayed a few hours, but the stock must be fed promptly, rain or shine. Therefore the efficiency of labor assumes great importance. If the live stock is a herd of pure-bred animals, accurate records are absolutely necessary and clerical ability of a high order is required.

The importance of sanitation on the live-stock farm is fundamental. The live-stock farmer need not be a trained veterinarian (though the more he knows of veterinary science the better), but he must be by instinct a sanitarian. He must recognize clearly the difference between things that merely appear to be clean and those which are actually, bacteriologically clean.

In the great majority of known cases human carelessness has been the most fruitful cause of the spread of contagion. In at least one county in which the Department of Agriculture has carried on work on the control of hog cholera, it was found that the most common known way in which the disease was spread was by visits to neighbors' herds. It is a prevalent custom, in some sections, to drag dead animals

out to a field without burial. Birds and dogs devour the carcasses and, if death was caused by a contagious disease, spread it over a wide area. Streams and irrigation canals also are common sources of contagion. In every case of carelessness such as this the community suffers, and every member of the community sooner or later pays his share of the cost.

With the increase in population and the cost of land, and the attendant cost of raising domestic animals, sanitation assumes a constantly growing importance on the live-stock farm. It is not alone with regard to direct profit, however, that the farmer must pay strict attention to this matter. This subject may be left with the simple reference to the fact that some of the most serious human diseases have their origin in the barnyard. Their existence not only affects the health of the families that come into immediate contact with them, but they may spread with disastrous results to neighboring towns and villages.

The farmer needs education on the matter of sanitation. He needs to appreciate more fully his obligation, not only to his own family, but to the community. By realizing the fact that insanitary methods will diminish or entirely inhibit the profits from his animals he will in turn the better fulfill his obligation to safeguard the health of the community.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE DIET—THE REDUCTION OF LIVING EXPENSES.

The last function of live stock in agriculture to which attention is invited is to reduce the family living expenses and introduce variety into the diet. It is a remarkable fact that a large number of farms produce only a small part of the food used by the family. The annual meat bill of the farmers of some of our Southern States, for example, is enormous. Their purchases are largely carried on credit, and the year's crop goes for the most part to meet the expenses incurred during its production. Debts accrue only to be replaced by accounts newly opened. That such a practice is wasteful and depressing is apparent. With chickens and pigs, a cow, and a few sheep, but little capital is required to reduce in great measure the annual money outlay of such farmers. This production of home-grown food can be made without in the least limiting the crop output of the farm. It simply requires planning and a little more careful management.

The value of live stock in agriculture has been greatly emphasized by the announcement of the United States Public Health Service that the cause of pellagra is a dietary deficiency attributable to the excessive use of carbohydrate foods. This dreadful disease has been spreading with alarming rapidity, and the determination of its cause is a triumph of medical research. To an animal husbandman it is of especial interest to note that among the means of prevention advised are the keeping of a cow and the use of more milk, butter, and cheese; the keeping of a flock of chickens so as to have fresh poultry and eggs, and the increase of live-stock raising so that meat may form a larger part of the diet.

To recapitulate, the function of live stock in agriculture is fundamental. Soil fertility, the business success of the farmer, his happiness and contentment and that of his children, the health of the community, and the well-being of the farm family depend on the maintenance and proper management of as much live stock as the farm can economically support.



POSSIBILITIES OF A MARKET-TRAIN SERVICE.

By G. C. WHITE and T. F. POWELL,

Transportation Specialists, Office of Markets and Rural Organization.

IF the statement be true that more than one-half of the industrial and commercial energy of the civilized world is expended in the provision and preparation of food, it becomes all the more important, as the density of population and the economic conditions of the United States approximate those of the Old World, that the producing areas in the vicinity of large consuming centers be utilized to their full capacity, and that the products of such areas be accorded an efficient and economical transportation service.

Conditions controlling the commerce of England have developed a railway freight service characterized by light trains of high speed and frequent movement, cars of small capacity and very low minimum weights. The settlement of the greater part of the United States and its industrial development followed the advent of the railroad. The long distances separating the sources of raw material from the mills and factories utilizing it, as well as the character of the raw material, have developed high minimum weights for large cars of great weight capacity drawn in heavy trains by powerful locomotives. The development of these features of the freight service of the railroads of this country has received relatively more attention than has been given to the improvement of facilities for short-distance local traffic.

SPECIAL MARKET TRAINS.

The greater part of the trading at the principal live-stock markets of the United States is done on certain designated days each week, and special trains carrying nothing but live stock reach these markets in large numbers on those days. From a comparatively small area in the Imperial Valley of California approximately 5,000 cars of melons are shipped to market each year, the bulk of the crop being handled during four weeks in June. During the height of the shipping season special trains carrying nothing but melons move east across the desert. From certain of the Gulf ports special trains

carrying only bananas run on frequent and fast schedules to northern cities. Solid trains of milk daily supply New York City with that commodity. All these may be termed "special market trains," and, for the most part, they are additional examples of the efficient handling of long-distance, high-speed traffic of large volume.

In that section of the United States lying north of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers and east of the Mississippi, known in railroad parlance as official classification territory, has taken place the greatest industrial development of the country. Here is situated much agricultural land in small units, the individual farm yielding dairy products, poultry, small live stock, and fruits and vegetables, which mature at different seasons, and producing less than a carload quantity of any commodity at one time; here are our most populous cities, daily demanding a supply of perishable foodstuffs; and here density of population and economic conditions are beginning to approximate those of the Old World. In this section are presented many opportunities for developing the possibilities of a market-train service along the lines of the service now furnished by milk trains.

Steam and electricity in passenger transportation have relieved some of the congestion of the population of large cities, but the suburban development of residential districts has withdrawn a proportionately much larger area from tillage, until most of the market gardeners have been pushed back beyond wagon range of the city markets, and many of them beyond the range of the auto-truck. Coincident with this development has come the increasing demand for greater quantities of foodstuffs, and it becomes necessary, therefore, that the commutation passenger service of the large cities find its counterpart in a similar freight service. The relatively small number of postal cars as compared with freight cars, or even with express cars, makes improbable any considerable amount of relief by the parcel post at the present time, and express service has not fully met the need.

HISTORY OF THE SERVICE.

The limited market-train service maintained by certain of the roads serving New York City, and the somewhat more extensive service of the same kind maintained by roads serving Philadelphia, were foreshadowed in some of the marketing practices which developed with the construction of the first railroads in the United States. Following the analogy of turnpike operation, the first railroad companies furnished roadway only; horses were the only motive power; farmers furnished their own motive power, paid the necessary tolls for the use of the track, and hauled their produce to market in their own vehicles. An interesting account of the methods of that period has been left in the history of the Philadelphia & Columbia Railroad, which was formally opened for traffic in 1834.

More than 50 years later, in 1888, the reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission disclose a special market-train service by four of the railroads leading to New York City, and doubtless there were other roads that offered a similar service. The service consisted in transporting on the daily milk trains, in the same cars with the milk, such commodities as fresh meat, berries, butter, and eggs, and in returning to the shippers the empty containers, such as meat baskets, berry and egg crates, and butter carriers.

The rapid increase in the milk business and other conditions peculiar to its transportation and marketing in the course of time made it necessary to restrict the milk cars almost exclusively to the transportation of milk. However, many, if not most, of the tariffs covering the transportation of milk to Boston and New York include pot cheese as a commodity which may be included in mixed carload lots of milk, cream, and buttermilk. A railroad in Vermont and another in Massachusetts permit the transportation of butter in milk cars, and a road in Maine includes eggs. One road serving sections of Pennsylvania and New York and participating in the New York City milk traffic handles in its milk cars practically every class of farm produce except fresh meat. Another road serving an extensive section of New York makes tariff provision for a similar service by its milk trains. One of the trunk lines serving New York City has had in operation since 1890 a produce train giving a carload service for farm products on one of its divisions; and on another division the same class of commodities is given a less-than-carload pick-up service by milk trains.

THE PHILADELPHIA MARKET TRAINS.

The examples given of special facilities and service, in the transportation of less-than-carload quantities of farm products, are merely some of the best-known examples and, of course, do not include all the cases throughout the country to which attention might be called. The most conspicuous examples are the market trains running to Philadelphia over the rails of two of the carriers serving that city. A brief description of the service furnished by these two roads to near-by producing sections is of interest, both as showing what is actually being done and as suggesting the lines along which it would be possible for railroads that serve other large cities to inaugurate a similar service.

The first road runs its market trains over the several divisions only once a week. The trains leave the most distant stations, some 60 miles from Philadelphia, about 7.30 a. m. and reach Philadelphia about 2 p. m. Some of the cars used are box cars fitted with adjustable ventilators in the doors and in the side walls. Some of the cars are equipped with hooks along the walls for hanging fresh meat, a fact which makes it easier to keep the meat both clean and cool. Some of them are combination stock-and-poultry cars, one end being slatted for small live stock and the other end of the solid, box type for the reception of coops of poultry. Refrigeration by means of ice bunkers built into the cars is unnecessary because of the short time of transit. Some of the cars are assigned to the more important stations and are lettered with the name of the station to which they are assigned.

The rates named are any-quantity rates, and range from 10.5 cents to 28.4 cents per 100 pounds. They apply on "marketing," which is defined as including dairy products (except milk or cream); poultry-yard products; products of the orchard, garden, or farm; fresh or dried fruits or vegetables; and such small live stock as calves, sheep, lambs, pigs, and hogs. The charges must be prepaid or guaranteed; and the rates apply only on shipments handled on designated market trains.

The railroad disclaims responsibility for loss or damage resulting from neglect on the part of marketmen to comply with its instructions, which read as follows: All marketing must be properly packed for safe transportation and protection against loss, theft, or damage to contents of packages, plainly marked with consignee's name, and promptly and properly claimed upon arrival of market train at destination.

The suggestion is made that, for obvious reasons, shipments should be accompanied by the owners, but the freight rate does not include the transportation of the owners; they have to pay passenger fare.

The facilities are excellent for handling and taking care of the shipments on the arrival of the market trains at Philadelphia. The terminal station for the market trains is centrally located, directly adjacent to a wholesale market, and is itself equipped with a cold-storage plant. Immediately on the arrival of the trains the shipments are unloaded. Thev can be transferred directly from the cars to the station coldstorage rooms, or to stores of dealers in the wholesale market. If it is desirable or necessary to take them to other parts of the city, it is possible to unload them directly from the cars into wagons backed up to the cars. Apparently the one thing lacking to make the facilities complete is a retail market or a row of farmers' stands along the sidewalk in front of the station. Under the plan of this railroad, the freight is handled and delivered in the same way as general merchandise.

The second road inaugurated its market-train service more than 25 years ago. The trains are run daily, except Sundays and holidays, and the speed is that of the average passenger train. The farthest point served is not more than 75 miles distant from Philadelphia; consequently there is no need for car-lot refrigeration, although some shippers at times do ice their own packages.

The rates charged the shippers are slightly higher than the first-class freight rate, ranging from 15.8 cents to 31.5 cents per 100 pounds and applying on "marketing" "carried on market or milk trains, when accompanied by shipper holding trip or excursion ticket." The tariff naming the rates is an intrastate tariff, and does not give a list of the articles or commodities included in the general term "marketing." The charges must be prepaid, and the rates include the return of empty containers.

The principal retail market of Philadelphia occupies the street-level floor of the passenger terminal of this company,

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but this is not the terminal for its market trains. Freight arriving by market trains is delivered at freight stations at other points. On the whole, the facilities at these stations are not so good as those of the other road whose service has been described. Shippers or their representatives must be on hand, on the arrival of the trains, to claim and unload the consignments, as the carrier does not perform this service. The transportation is at owners' risk, the carrier disclaiming responsibility for count or condition of the packages on delivery.

A GENERAL SURVEY.

Any comprehensive discussion of a market-train service must include an account of the results and advantages of existing service, the probable advantages of a prospective service, the obstacles to be overcome to avoid failure, and the factors of cooperation necessary to success.

RESULTS AND ADVANTAGES.

It must be borne in mind that a market-train service, such as is discussed here, designed primarily for small producers and city consumers, is of equal advantage to the carriers, and is in fact an economic necessity. It is of no interest to growers whose production is sufficiently large to enable them to ship in carload lots; nor would it be of any advantage to those communities where cooperative associations have united to combine into carload shipments the output of many small farms devoted to the production of the same commodity. When the distance to market is so great as to make protection of perishable commodities by refrigeration necessary, shipping in carload lots is essential for that reason alone. Aside from the question of refrigeration, and regardless of distance, producers should combine their shipments into carload lots, whenever it is possible, for economy in transportation charges. But, for farmers living along a single operating division of some railroad, within a hundred miles of a large city, or along a branch line terminating at some large city, who can produce a variety of foodstuffs almost continuously the year round, a market-train service would be of the greatest advantage.

The fruits and vegetables on such farms mature at intervals throughout the summer; the dairy products, eggs, and

Possibilities of a Market-train Service.

poultry, to say nothing of such commodities as apples and potatoes, can be shipped throughout the year as they are ready for shipment or as the market demands. There is not enough of any one commodity on a single day along the entire division or branch line to make a carload, even if it were otherwise feasible to combine it into a carload; and there is not enough of all commodities at one station on a single day to combine into a carload, even if the great variety of products and containers did not make it impossible to load the usual minimum weight into a single car. Such are the products of farms of this kind, and the success or failure of the farmers is in proportion to their ability or inability to market their products at a profit.

Other things being equal, the market nearest to him is the best market for the small farmer who produces a great variety of commodities and does not specialize on one or two. As has been shown, distant producers can reach any market with car-lot shipments, while the small producer here described, unable to ship in carload lots, is confined to the near-by market. His nearness to the market enables him to keep in closer touch with market demands, and he can quickly adjust his supply to the demand. To a distant shipper, large quantities in transit may bring loss by reaching destination on a falling market. In comparison with the large producer, the small farmer is doing a retail business. With a retail market adjacent to or in the city terminal of the market train, he would be in a still better position to do a retail business in every sense of the word and to sell directly to consumers.

This is just what was done during a part of the summer of 1912 in the case of a market train run to East Pittsburgh, Pa., by one of the roads serving that point. The farmers shipping by the train were organized in a farmers' exchange association, and the association had a representative at East Pittsburgh, who disposed of the shipments. Some of them were sold to wholesale and retail dealers, but the greater part was sold to factory employees. While the usual facilities of a retail market were wholly lacking, the service quickly developed a retail market, as sales were made in the railroad yard directly from the car to the householder. So popular had the service become and so great a reputation had it attained at the time it was discontinued, that a more affluent class of people was beginning to take advantage of it, some of them coming long distances by automobile to do their daily marketing there.

Apparently all classes of people who bought supplies of foodstuffs here found some advantages over previous methods. It is quite evident that those who came long distances to buy got either a better quality of goods or lower prices, if not both.

This particular service was given for only 46 days during the months of April and May, when it was discontinued. The reason given for its discontinuance was that the terminal facilities were not satisfactory to the health authorities from a sanitary standpoint. The season of the year and the short period during which the train was run did not give sufficient opportunity to make a correct estimate of its probable continued success. Apparently there was no lack of patronage.

FACTORS NECESSARY TO SUCCESS.

Market-train service is not a panacea for all the ills that afflict the small farmer in the marketing of his products. Every item of labor performed by the farmer in serving the consuming public is from one point of view an element of his cooperation with others. From the standpoint of his returns for the service that he performs he alone is responsible for the efficient performance of many of the items of labor. Sometimes he fails to recognize fully his own responsibility in cooperative effort, and sometimes he is mistaken in the causes to which he attributes the failure to market his products at a profit. Again he alleges cheaper methods of production on the part of his competitor or a disadvantage against himself in the matter of freight rates.

Mention has been made of cooperative associations whose efforts are directed toward consolidating into carload shipments the output of many small farms producing the same commodity. A market-train service with adequate terminal facilities in the way of a retail market offers an ideal opportunity to the producing community served of forming a cooperative association for the sale of its products directly

Possibilities of a Market-train Service.

to city consumers. No better opportunity can be asked for restoring the custom of direct exchange between producer and consumer, as far as it is possible to restore it, in those sections where changing economic conditions coincidentally have brought about the abandonment of that custom and have developed the necessity for a market-train service. With a representative of the association at the terminal to dispose of products directly to householders, all questions of variation of price on account of quality and condition are determined at the time of the sale by an actual joint inspection of the commodities by the seller and purchaser; no vexatious correspondence is afterwards necessary in adjusting claims-correspondence which may terminate established business relations by arousing mutual suspicion of lack of good faith; and, what is by no means the least important advantage, it is a cash transaction and the purchaser avoids the annovance of remittance by letter.

As a step toward the successful marketing of his products, the farmer must be brought to a realization of the justice of many of the criticisms against some of his methods. He must produce the commodities that the consumer wants; and only their superior quality will command prices higher than are being paid for the same commodities shipped from remote sections. If his products are not graded as carefully nor packed in containers as attractive as those of the long-distance stuff, he will not get the prices that are paid for the long-distance stuff. There is little sentiment in the daily replenishing of the family larder, and neither location of production nor short time in transit can long command a premium in the market as against quality. Home industries will be patronized in proportion as they show themselves worthy of patronage.

One of the roads furnishing a market-train service to Philadelphia states that if the service were not already established it is hardly likely that it would be established "in view of the very light yield of revenue therefrom." As the inauguration of the service in the beginning was the result of judgment based on careful estimates, no figures of actual operation being in existence, the statement would seem to indicate a desire to withdraw the service. The road that served East Pittsburgh in 1912 rendered a similar service at two other

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cities, Butler and Allegheny, Pa., from 1907 to the close of 1914, when the service was discontinued. The service to East Pittsburgh was inaugurated under the jurisdiction of the passenger department, as it was intended at first to handle the shipments on passenger trains. Later it became necessarv to transfer it to the freight-traffic department. This road handles a large volume of heavy traffic to and from the iron and steel mills in the Pittsburgh district. Eightv-eight per cent of its entire tonnage for the fiscal year 1915 consisted of products of mines, while its total tonnage of agricultural products and products of animals was less than fourtenths of 1 per cent of its entire tonnage. Under the circumstances it readily can be seen that a market-train service would be of little interest to its freight-traffic officials from the standpoint of either tonnage or revenue, while requiring proportionately much more attention and supervision.

It is true that some producers have begun to utilize the parcel post to some extent and that the reduction in interstate express rates which became effective in the early part of 1914 has attracted some shipments by express. In some sections freight service by interurban electric lines has afforded a slight measure of relief, but the advantages of that kind of service are too frequently offset by the lack of adequate and centrally located city terminals and the restrictions imposed on the running of freight cars through city streets. In some cases the growth of intermediate towns has attracted a considerable portion of the commodities that formerly went to the large city terminal. City boards of health have imposed restrictions making it necessary to exclude other commodities from milk cars, which increases the cost of performing the transportation service on lines where one car would hold all the shipments. This competition is pointed out by roads now giving a market-train service; and roads that do not now give such a service offer these and other facts as objections to its inauguration.

The small farmer is dependent on either local freight-train service, which is too slow, or on express service, which relatively is too expensive. The slowness of local freight-train service was pointed out in the Report of the Mayor's Market Commission of New York City, submitted in December, 1913, where it was said that it took from 10 days to 2 weeks to get

Possibilities of a Market-train Service.

freight from some places distant for passengers only 2 hours from New York. The same conditions that now prevail with reference to the transportation of small quantities of miscellaneous foodstuffs formerly prevailed with reference to the transportation of milk to the large cities. The problem was solved in the case of milk, and it would seem that it can be solved as readily in the case of the other commodities. To cut off a city's supply of milk produces a crisis quickly; attention is called sharply to the situation, and a remedy is devised promptly. Lack of marketing facilities for the small farmer affects the producer more vitally than the city consumer, but the bad effects, while they make themselves felt more slowly, are none the less sure and none the less harmful to the community at large.

CONCLUSIONS.

A market-train service affords an excellent method of restoring, as far as it can be restored, where it has been abandoned, the custom of direct dealing between producer and consumer. It contemplates the shipper loading his products into the car at point of shipment and taking possession of them immediately on arrival of the train at destination. There should be a retail market, or at least a wholesale market, in or adjacent to the city terminal. The service is more valuable to the shipper than ordinary local freight-train service. The time in transit is practically that of trains carrying express matter, but collection and delivery is made by the shipper. Such a service, to be successful, depends on the organized effort of the producing community intelligently directed in sympathetic cooperation with the carrier.

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PLATE LXXXV.



FIG. I.-FISHER.



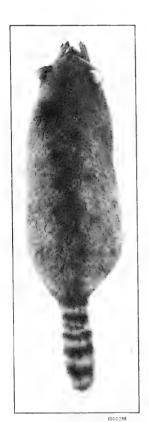


FIG. 2.- A RACCOON SKIN.



FIG. 3.-FEEDING A MINK.

B653



FIG. 4.- A FRIENDLY FOX.

Yearbook U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1916.

PLATE LXXXVI.



FIG. I.-MINK PENS.



FIG. 2.-PET BEAVERS.

B651M



FIG. 3. - A PAIR OF OTTERS.

B457

FUR FARMING AS A SIDE LINE.

By NED DEARBORN, Assistant Biologist, Bureau of Biological Suraey

A LL domestic animals originally came under the control A of man by appropriation from the wild state in time of need. As cattle, horses, sheep, and poultry have been domesticated, distributed to the ends of the earth, and differentiated by careful breeding for specific purposes, so too will it be with our wild and valuable fur animals. The great problem now confronting the fur industry is how to obtain from a waning source the necessary stock for its permanent development. To this there is but one solution: Domesticate the fur bearers and farm them, as has been done over and over with other animals. The killing pressure on those remaining in the wild state will then be reduced, the fur trade supported, and a new farm product developed. Believers in economy and diversification will utilize the beef and chicken heads, the horse flesh, and the milk they have heretofore been wasting, in taking up fur farming as a side line, profitable as a by-product of the regular farming operations and pleasurable in the care of lively and beautiful pets.

The demand for fur has existed since primitive man first sought skins to shield his naked body from the cold. It is fundamental and will endure while man inhabits the earth and furs are to be had. Its strength can be judged by the volume of trade it supports. In 1913 the dressed and manufactured furs imported into the United States were valued at more than \$15,000,000. North American furs annually marketed in the United States and England have an approximate value of \$60,000,000. These figures show the commercial importance of fur, and in addition to this the fur trade furnishes a livelihood for many thousands of workers in the factories and stores of this country.

In the history of the fur trade, two facts are prominent: (1) The finer and more durable kinds of furs, as beaver, otter, mink, and marten, have become so scarce as to be largely replaced by the coarser and thinner grades which

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formerly were regarded as of little or no value; (2) the choicest furs are now bringing fabulous prices. Although the whims of fashion influence prices of furs, the fluctuations thus produced are compensatory. When one kind is cheap because fashion temporarily neglects it, another is dear because of her temporary favor. The dark, thick, soft, and glossy furs, however, like rare jewels, are scarcely affected by passing styles.

The demand for fine furs and their scarcity have made possible the introduction of fur farming, either as a special business or as a side line. It is open to all who love animals and have at least a back yard in which to keep them. Several species have been tested in captivity, and when rightly managed have yielded satisfactory returns. Several other species may do equally well, especially since the production of superior strains is always possible by selective breeding. The food required is mainly the same as that fed to dogs and cats, and may include table refuse, milk, butcher's waste, and horse meat. The labor of attending the animals is light. Professional men and women, as well as the mistress of the farmer's household, may take just pride in wearing furs of their own raising.

FUR ANIMALS ALREADY DOMESTICATED.

Among the score or more of different kinds of fur-bearing animals native to North America about a dozen seem to be suitable for domestication. Of these, the skunk, the mink, and the silver fox have been bred successfully in captivity in widely scattered localities.

The skunk family is peculiar to the Western Hemisphere, and those members having valuable fur belong mainly within the limits of the United States. Notwithstanding its extraordinary means of defense, which has caused it to be generally regarded with abhorrence, the skunk is coming to be recognized as a very useful animal when at large and one of the most easily domesticated when captive. Its common occurrence in settled districts and the remunerative prices offered for black skins encouraged some of the friends of the skunk to undertake its domestication about 30 years ago. To-day the number of skunk breeders in this country is greater than that of all other breeders of fur bearers combined. The animal tames quickly, is gentle, and is easily managed. The fact that it remains in its den during the severe weather of winter makes it more easily cared for than most other animals. Its fur is of medium length, erect, and possesses a brilliant sheen. These qualities make it very attractive. Unfortunately, protracted use causes it to fade from a glistening black to a dull reddish brown. The average of New York quotations for the best skunk skins during the past 12 years is \$3.

Minks appear to have been the first of the wild fur bearers to be domesticated in this country. Nearly 50 years ago a resident of Oneida County, N. Y., began to breed them. and for a considerable period exhibited his tame pets at fairs and sold them for propagation. At that time the high prices incident to the Civil War made mink raising profitable. Skins were high, and live animals for breeding stock brought \$30 a pair. The period of financial depression which followed made mink farming unprofitable and for many years it was abandoned and forgotten. Recently it has taken on new life, and where conditions of management and food supply are favorable, has been decidedly satisfactory to those engaged in it. Mink fur is exceedingly durable, ranking in this respect among the very best. With care it will last a lifetime. It is rather short, but very thick and soft. The guard hairs do not break readily, nor has the underfur a tendency to become matted. Although sunlight gradually gives its original dark brown color a warmer tone, its beauty is but slightly lessened. New York quotations for prime No. 1 northern mink skins during the years 1905-1916 range from \$1.25 to \$9 each, the average being about \$6.75.

Among the progeny of a pair of red foxes it occasionally happens that one or more markedly differ in color from their parents. The underparts are black instead of white, and the upperparts also are more or less black. When the dark areas on the upperparts are concentrated in two stripes, one along the middle of the back and the other across the shoulders, and the sides are covered with a varying mixture of red and black hairs, the animal is known as a cross fox. When the red hairs of the upperparts are entirely replaced by black, the white hairs remaining as usual, it is a silver fox.

When all but a few of the white hairs are replaced by black. it is a silver-black fox. A prime silver fox skin is a rare and beautiful object, and, as such, commands a high price. Breeding silver foxes was first undertaken upward of 20 vears ago on Prince Edward Island, Canada. There are now many successful fox farms in Canada and a considerable number in several of the more northern States. Foxes are naturally timid, but, if taken in hand when quite young, can be made very tame, although tameness does not seem to be an essential to success in breeding them. Fox fur is soft and rather long. Its beauty is entirely in the long guard hairs which overlie the underfur. It is not very durable, as the guard hairs break after a few seasons' wear, leaving the less attractive underfur exposed. The average of quotations for the best grade of silver fox skins during the past 12 years is about \$600 each. Numbers have been sold for less than \$100. while very many have brought far more than the average quotation here given.

FUR ANIMALS WHICH MAY BE DOMESTICATED.

That foxes, minks, and skunks, although presenting great differences in habits and temperament, have been brought into domestication indicates that other kinds of fur bearers also may eventually be tamed and bred in inclosures. Among the species that have been partially tested for this purpose are the marten, fisher, otter, blue fox, raccoon, and beaver, each of which is adapted to definite environmental conditions and to specific purposes.

Martens naturally inhabit the northern coniferous forests from coast to coast, extending northward to northwestern Alaska and southward along the mountain ranges to California, Colorado, and Pennsylvania. They are nervous, active creatures, but bear confinement well and are not difficult to tame. They have been bred on fur farms in Alaska and in several places in Canada. Their size is about twice that of minks. The fur, which is very soft, somewhat resembling that of foxes, is about 1½ inches long when prime. The color varies, individually, from pale gray to orange-brown and dark brown. The average of quotations for the best grade of marten skins during the past 12 years is about \$20 each.

The fisher, a member of the same family as the marten, is found over much the same range of territory, although it does not extend so far north. Its weight is about the same as that of the red fox, but its short legs give it an altogether different aspect. Although able to climb trees, it spends much of its time on the ground. Being no longer common, few efforts have been made to domesticate it. It has been tested sufficiently, however, to demonstrate its ability to thrive and increase in confinement, a sufficient reason for assuming that it will ultimately be bred regularly for its pelt. The color of fishers varies from grayish brown to nearly black. The fur when fully developed measures about 24 inches in length. It is used mainly for muffs and neck or shoulder pieces, the large, bushy tails . being particularly effective. The average of New York quotations for fisher skins during the past 12 years is about \$20 each.

One of the most promising fur bearers for propagation in localities having an abundance of water is the otter. When captured young this animal tames readily and makes an engaging pet. It is said that the otter found in southern Asia is sometimes trained to catch fish for its master. A pair of otters in the National Zoological Park, Washington, D. C., have recently reared a litter of four young. Although essentially aquatic and very fond of disporting in water, they do not require a great quantity of it. Otter fur is about an inch long, erect, and very thick. It is very durable, ranking with mink fur in this respect, and is used chiefly for trimming garments. The average of prices quoted for the best grade of otter skins in the past 12 years is about \$20 each.

Another animal that has attracted considerable attention in this connection is the blue fox, a dark slate or brown phase of the white or arctic fox. It is more docile than the red fox, but for some unknown reason has not been bred in inclosures with nearly the degree of success achieved with varieties of the latter species. It has, however, been propagated satisfactorily on several of the Alaskan islands, where the only limits to its movements are those set by the sea. Whatever the nature of obstacles encountered by those who have attempted to raise this animal in confinement, it is

probable that eventually they will be overcome, and that persons living in the colder portions of the country will be able to wear blue fox skins of their own raising. Blue fox fur is nearly 2 inches long, and is very fine and thick. The average American quotations for the best grade of pelts for the past six years is about \$44.

That the raw material for handsome and comfortable raccoon-skin coats can be produced in a spare corner of one's back yard seems to be an established fact, judging from the results attained by the few who have undertaken to raise the raccoon. This animal is distributed over the greater part of the United States, being absent only in desert and high mountain regions. It is nocturnal, and at home both on the ground and in trees. Water is essential to its welfare, but large quantities are not needful. Its nightly range is often along the shores of ponds or streams, and its food is generally washed before being eaten. In a number of instances raccoons have been bred successfully. From a strictly commercial standpoint they are not likely to become popular, however, for the reason that if their food must be purchased its cost will be prohibitive. On farms where there are milk. fruit, and corn meal in plenty raccoon raising is well worth a trial. When taken young raccoons become very tame and make quaint and interesting pets. Their fur is mottled gray in color and about 21 inches long on animals from northern States. In the South the fur is shorter. The average price for the best pelts is about \$2.50.

Judging from the few experiments made with it, the beaver may be raised in any region containing alder, aspen, cottonwood, willow, or other trees upon which it feeds. Unlike the species hitherto considered, it subsists entirely on vegetable food. Although armed with enormous cutting teeth suitable for felling trees, beavers are tolerant among themselves and docile with their keepers. Fully grown specimens trapped wild become so gentle within a few weeks that one may handle them without danger of being bitten. Beaver fur has long been extensively used in making muffs, stoles, collars, trimmings, and the finest quality of felt hats. The average price in recent years has been about \$8 a skin.

CHOICE OF SPEICES.

In making a deliberate choice of species to be propagated for fur, one should give due consideration to climate, the character of his immediate surroundings, his available space and capital, the nature and quantity of food materials at hand, and the convenience of securing breeding stock. The climate best suited to each animal is indicated by the natural distribution of that animal in the wild state. Thus, skunks, which are not found north of the temperate belt, are not likely to do well in Alaska, nor would one think seriously of attempting to breed arctic foxes in a southern climate.

The climate in the northern tier of States and southward along the mountain ranges to northern California, Colorado, and West Virginia is favorable for all of the animals that have been mentioned. Alaska is not suitable for raccoons and skunks, nor, excepting the warmer timbered part along the southern coast, for fishers. The arid Southwest and the Great Basin, between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevadas, are entirely too dry and sunny for fur raising. In the Central and Southern States one may raise minks, skunks, otters, and raccoons, although it should be clearly understood that the farther south fur is produced the thinner, shorter, and less valuable it is.

Next in importance to climatic conditions are those of capital, situation, space, and food supply. The capital necessary to build a two-pair fox ranch and stock it with four choice silver foxes will be not less than \$2,000, according to prevailing prices, and it is likely that considerably more than this will be required. If stocked with cross foxes the cost will be much less, but even in this case it probably will amount to \$600 or more. The cost of installing a blue-fox ranch will generally exceed that required for cross foxes. It may ultimately appear that blue foxes are not adapted to live in captivity, but this can not be determined until they have been subjected to extensive tests. Foxes can not be kept in thickly settled communities, as they have an objectionable odor and do not breed well when frequently disturbed.

The cost of installing and stocking a mink or skunk ranch is comparatively small, depending somewhat on location. Material for a single pen for either of these animals can be bought for about \$2. Minks usually sell at from \$8 to \$12 each, and skunks at from \$2 to \$8, according to quality. Minks and de-scented skunks can be kept in an ordinary back yard, provided it is partially shaded. Ranch-bred minks and skunks are regularly advertised in publications devoted to fur interests.

Fishers, martens, and raccoons, although not requiring nearly so much outlay as foxes, must be confined in strong inclosures and be given room for enough activity to keep them healthy. Shade is essential to all. Most of those offered for sale have been caught wild. Prevailing prices for fishers range from \$50 to \$75 a pair, for martens from \$35 to \$65 a pair, and for raccoons from \$5 to \$8 a pair. The materials for a pen to accommodate one of these animals costs about \$25.

One should not attempt to raise otters or beavers unless a constant supply of running water is at hand. Moreover. there should be an unfailing source of fish which can be obtained at slight expense for otters, and fresh leaves and bark of trees for beavers. The best locations for these animals are among the mountains, where brooks run swift and clear, and trees cover the slopes. There is no regular trade in either of these species. Otters are rarely offered for sale, as those caught by fur gatherers usually die in the traps. In most of the States where beavers are still found wild it is unlawful to capture them. It is generally necessary, therefore, to import beavers that are to be used for propagation. In Canada they have been sold at about \$50 a pair. The cost of pens for otters or beavers can not be definitely stated, as they will vary with the location and character of the site.

INCLOSURES.

The first step in preparing to propagate fur animals is to construct suitable inclosures. In selecting a site for an inclosure it must be borne in mind that a certain amount of shade is essential to the comfort of the animals and to

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the development of flexible, dark-colored fur. Young deciduous trees are preferable for making shade, as mature trees are likely to be shattered by storms and in falling to demolish pens and injure or kill the animals. Evergreen trees are undesirable from the fact that they shut out sunshine in winter as well as in summer. Water is an essential, and, if possible, pens should be so located that an abundant supply can be brought by gravity to each. Materials for inclosures consist mainly of lumber and galvanized-wire netting: and in larger and more permanent structures concrete is sometimes used for foundations. Each animal requires individual quarters, particularly during the breeding season. Every complete inclosure comprises a vard or runway, usually of wire netting, although boards or galvanized sheet iron are sometimes used, and a lightproof and waterproof den, usually made of wood. Dens are often made with two compartments, the one entered from outside being designed for a shelter and feeding place, the other, opening into the first, being the sleeping compartment. A sliding door is placed at the outside entrance. Wooden dens should be raised a few inches from the ground to keep them dry. Glazed tile has been successfully employed for dens. The facility with which tile can be disinfected is a point in its favor. All dens should be made so as to be readily opened for cleaning.

The best fox yards are about 50 feet square. The walls extend well into the ground or to a concrete foundation and are from 9 to 12 feet high, depending on the snowfall. They are generally built of $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 inch poultry netting, No. 15 or 14 wire, and provided with an overhang at the top to prevent the animals from scaling them.

Inclosures for otters, raccoons, and beavers may be built on the same general plan as for foxes, but need not be more than 5 or 6 feet high nor more than 15 or 20 feet square.

Minks can be kept in pens as small as 4 feet square, though it is better to have breeding pens about twice this size. An excellent style of pen suitable for minks and skunks can be made on the same plan as ordinary portable chicken coops, having a double-compartment den 15 or 18 inches wide and high and 3 or 4 feet long, to which is attached a runway of

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1-inch mesh, No. 16 gauge, poultry netting. This runway has floor, sides, and top of netting. The top is made in a separate piece, as a door, and is hinged to the top rail of one side and hooked or locked to the top rail of the other. Such pens are inexpensive and, when the woodwork is kept painted, are very durable. The ease with which they may be moved from place to place is particularly advantageous.

Pens for martens and fishers must be constructed of the strongest wire obtainable and have the top and floor, as well as the walls, made proof against their strength. Although 1-inch mesh, No. 16 gauge, poultry netting will generally hold them, such has not invariably been the case. The style of netting known as chain netting, while more expensive, is safer and more lasting than the regular style of poultry netting. Such pens should be at least 8 feet square and 8 feet high and contain branches or the tops of trees to allow the animals to exercise their propensity for climbing.

It is always advisable to surround each group of inclosures with a high fence which can neither be scaled nor undermined, as almost inevitably, sooner or later, some of the animals escape from their pens.

FOOD.

Beavers in their native haunts eat grass, herbs, roots, foliage, and the bark of aspens, alders, birches, maples, willows, and other deciduous trees. When in captivity they readily accept bread, grain, and garden vegetables. In addition, it is thought necessary to supply them with foliage and bark of trees to the extent of perhaps a third of their food. Wild otters live mainly on birds and such aquatic creatures as fish, frogs, and crawfish. In captivity they are usually fed on fish, but when this fails they readily accept raw and cooked meat. It is not known to what extent they may be fed on other kinds of food. Minks, martens, fishers, skunks, foxes, and raccoons thrive on the diet ordinarily given to dogs and cats. While young they are fed mainly milk on bread, crackers, and graham or oatmeal mush, to the exclusion of meat, which is likely to give them rickets. Meat or fish must be included in the diet of adults, but whether extensively or sparingly depends upon its cost

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rather than upon any exacting requirements on the part of the animals. A variety of food is necessary, however. Fruit, boiled carrots, mashed potato, and all sorts of table refuse can be mixed with regular cooked rations to excellent advantage. The meat used may be beef, mutton, horse flesh, chicken heads, or other butchers' waste, or the flesh of rabbits, woodchucks, or ground squirrels. Food that has begun to ferment or decay should not be used. There is no economy in giving animals unwholesome food.

Surplus meat may be preserved by salting or drying. Salt meat or fish should be sliced and freshened, preferably in running water, before being used. Meat for drying is sliced and exposed to air and sunshine or the heat and smoke of a small open fire. Where conditions are unfavorable for rapid drying, the meat may be dipped in a saturated solution of hot brine before being put on the drying racks. Ice is useful in keeping food from spoiling for a few days, but should not be relied upon to preserve large quantities of meat unless used in carefully constructed refrigerating houses.

Meat suspected of being infested with parasites or disease germs should be boiled. Rabbits and other rodents should be eviscerated, as their internal organs often contain tapeworms or other parasites. Rabbits intended for young animals must be skinned to avoid the formation of stomach balls of felted hair. Adults are not likely to eat enough rabbit fur to injure them. A certain quantity of hair, feathers, and other roughage is probably beneficial. Bone is undoubtedly an essential element of food for growing animals. By passing meat containing small bones through a grinding machine such as poultrymen use, the bone is made digestible and danger of choking is avoided. Large bones bearing fragments of meat are useful for strengthening teeth, and for quieting nervous animals by giving them something to do.

Only as much food as can be eaten immediately should be given at a time; otherwise it is likely to be stored in the nest and become offensive. In regulating the diet of fur animals, it is important to remember that they must be made fat before being killed for their pelts, and kept lean when they are to be saved for breeding.

BREEDING.

As success or failure in fur farming hinges largely on the course of events during the breeding season, it is important that the instinctive habits and the temperamental characteristics of the animals, as well as the location and arrangement of pens and the manner of feeding, be carefully considered. In the wild state foxes and beavers have but one mate, while raccoons, otters, fishers, martens, and minks are polygamous. Although in rare instances male foxes in captivity have been mated with two or three females in the same year, such matings as a rule are unproductive. On the other hand, breeders of minks and skunks regularly mate a single male with from four to six females. In all cases it is well to allow the individuals proposed for mating opportunity to become acquainted by occupying adjoining vards a few days before being allowed to run together. is not practicable to attempt to mate animals that disagree, and when first paired they should be watched in order to prevent violent guarrels which may result in serious injuries or death. Foxes and raccoons may be kept in pairs from the time the young are weaned until the succeeding litter is a month old, providing the male is good natured; if inclined to be snappish, however, the male should be removed to his own pen before the young are born. The other carnivorous species are best kept singly except for a short time in spring. An animal that has killed its mate should never be trusted again unless deprived of its canine teeth.

Breeding pens should be thoroughly cleaned and disinfected throughout shortly before the young are expected. Foxes do not care for nesting material, but the smaller animals need it. If soft dry grass or leaves be placed in the yards, the animals will carry the material into their dens and arrange it to suit themselves. Unless the dens are shaded they will become very hot in the middle of the day and the young are likely to suffer. Special care should be taken to prevent unnecessary disturbances to the young while unable to leave the den, as these may cause the mother to carry her babies about in search of another den, and thus to maltreat and expose them beyond the limit of their endurance. An important point in the care of brood animals is to avoid anything that is out of the ordinary run of their existence. If possible, they should have the same treatment and the same keeper at all times. The keeper should see how the young are getting on from day to day, and he should prepare for this long beforehand by practicing, as a part of his regular routine, whatever operations may be necessary to accomplish this. By inspecting the dens daily he can establish an habitual course of action on the part of the animals which will disarm their anxiety when he essays to examine their young.

A useful auxiliary in any fur-raising establishment is the domestic cat, which is ever ready to adopt a family of helpless young animals, regardless of pedigree or relationship. Supporting a few extra cats on a fur farm is, in reality, the premium paid for insurance against loss or damage to the crop. In general, about the time young animals first appear at the entrance of the den they are old enough to drink milk and, therefore, to be weaned if necessary. If it is desired to have them become very tame and to make pets of them, this is the time to take them away from their mothers and bring them up by hand. In no case should they be allowed to remain with the mother long enough to make her very thin in flesh. As young animals are not inclined to be guarrelsome a number of them may be allowed to run together in a large inclosure during summer and early fall if several sleeping boxes and feed pans are provided.

The principles of heredity that apply to ordinary domestic animals apply also to these. Fine animals can not be expected from poor breeding stock. In selecting breeders, size, color, temperament, and fur should be considered. There are great possibilities of improving animals by selective breeding, and the common policy of culling the poorer specimens and keeping the best, if consistently practiced, will unquestionably result in breeds of much greater value than that of the wild stock from which they originated.

DISEASES.

The more common diseases affecting fur animals are enteritis or inflamed intestines, pneumonia, diarrhea, and degenerated kidneys, all of which may largely be prevented by judicious care in housing and feeding. Pneumonia results from exposure and is likely to attack animals that have recently been trapped or shipped. It rarely occurs when they are kept in dry and well-ventilated quarters. The symptoms of pneumonia are loss of appetite, dry nose, and rubbing of throat and chest on the ground. Very little can be done for animals suffering with this disease beyond giving them clean, dustless bedding and keeping them in pens that are warm and airy but free from direct drafts. Diarrhea is caused by improper feeding. It should be the invariable duty of keepers to take note daily of the excreta of animals under their charge, and to change the diet of any showing signs of this disease. An excessive proportion of vegetable food, fats, and impure water; fermented or putrid food; and over-feeding are among the causes of this malady. A diet of milk, eggs, and fresh lean meat, given in moderate quantities, if begun promptly, is usually sufficient to correct any kind of bowel trouble. Animals that are allowed to become fat and remain so are almost certain sooner or later to die from degeneration of the kidneys. In its later stages this disease is characterized by emaciation, nervousness, and a bloodless appearance of the tongue and gums. When an animal has reached this condition there is very little chance of saving its life. This disease may be avoided by not allowing animals to become fat and by keeping those showing a tendency to do so mainly on lean meat, fish, and milk.

The peculiarities of individual animals will not be neglected by alert keepers. The moment one departs from its ordinary behavior, the reason should be sought. If a regular meal is refused or neglected, a day's fast followed by a change of food should be tried at once or sickness is likely to follow. Particular pains should be taken to give ailing animals a varied diet, clean water, and surroundings that are sanitary in every particular. Sick animals and those newly purchased should be kept in quarantine apart from the main yard for at least three weeks. There is very little use in dosing the smaller species. The tax on their vitality caused by their struggles outweighs the effects of medicine. Those the size of a fox can be treated with better prospects of success.

Injuries usually demand treatment. Shattered limbs should be amputated. Simple fractures will usually knit

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satisfactorily if the limb is set with splints. Wild animals taken in steel traps have survived, although maimed, after having had the injured member bathed with spirits of turpentine. An excellent antiseptic for fresh wounds is a 3 per cent solution of carbolic acid. Hydrogen peroxide is useful in cleansing sores and old wounds.

In handling animals requiring medical attention studious care and tact should be exercised. Minks, martens, skunks, and fishers, which are very strong and lithe, may be treated either in a small wire cage or in a slightly tapering funnel or cone of wire netting, into which they are driven until they reach a point where they fit so closely they can neither advance nor turn about. They can be held there by a stick thrust across the funnel behind them. Larger animals are usually picked up by the base of the tail or by means of special tongs made to clasp the neck. They are frequently rolled in a blanket or gunny sack to keep them from biting or scratching. Whatever is necessary to be done should be undertaken quietly after due preparation.

CARE OF SKINS.

The first step in the care of skins is involved in the killing. Skins of animals slaughtered by a blow are thickened and bloodshot at the spot where the blow falls. A bullet through the brain from a .22 caliber rifle kills an animal instantly, causes no swelling of the skin, and results in very little blood stain on the fur. The best results, however, are to be obtained by means of an anesthetic, as carbon bisulphide or chloroform, introduced into a clean, well-made box having a tightly fitting cover. This method of killing is humane and leaves the skin perfect. The more valuable animals, at least, ought always to be killed in this manner, as blood stains detract from the value of fur.

There are two ways of skinning fur animals, depending upon the shape in which the pelt is to be marketed. Beaver skins are always stretched flat, in a nearly circular shape, both the hair side and the flesh side being thus made available for inspection. They are cut on the underside from chin to tail and from each foot along the inner side of the leg to intersect the main opening nearly at right angles. The customary way of stretching a beaver skin is to lace the edges to a wooden hoop having a diameter somewhat larger than that of the skin. This produces what is called a flat skin. Pelts from the other animals under discussion are cut only along the underside of the tail and from heel to heel across the posterior end of the body, the skin being turned inside out as the body is withdrawn. The tail, feet, and bases of the ears are skinned out with care.

Such skins are drawn, flesh side out, over a tapering piece of board, the shape and dimensions of which permit them to dry in their natural size and proportions without wrinkles. The forward end of a stretching board should be reduced to a narrow tip that will project through the mouth of a skin half an inch or more. When a skin is dry and shrunken. a blow from a hammer on this projecting tip will loosen the board, which otherwise could be removed only with difficulty and danger to the skin. Stretching boards are sometimes cut lengthwise in three pieces, or strips, the middle one being a wedge, which makes them adjustable to skins of different size and easily removed after the skins Skins thus prepared are called "cased skins." They drv. should be dried in a cool, shady, airy place without artificial heat, unless in a climate so damp that drying without heat is impossible. Even then care should be taken to prevent overheating. Fox skins are removed from the boards and turned hair side out before they are entirely Other kinds of cased skins are sold flesh side out. dry. All skins should be divested of loose fat while they are fresh, and those impregnated with fat, as skunk skins, should be disposed of promptly. The effect of fat on skins is to harden and break down the tissue, making them brittle and worthless. Fox skins and others that are thin, firm, and not greasy may be kept safely in cold storage or in insect-proof cabinets lined with sheet metal, tarred roofing paper, or other suitable material. The cabinets should be kept in a cool place and so built that the skins may be hung by the nose, and not laid in piles, as piling has a tendency to lessen the fluffiness of fur.



FIG. 1.-ALFALFA LAND PREPARED FOR IRRIGATION BY THE BORDER METHOD.



FIG. 2. ONE OF TWENTY-TWO PUMPS USED FOR IRRIGATING ALFALFA AT DEMING, N. MEX.

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If one wishes to dress his own furs the following recipe for a tanning liquor may be used, but time and patience are required to produce soft, pliable skins, as the process is largely one of manipulation: To each gallon of water add one quart of salt and a half ounce of sulphuric acid. This mixture should not be kept in a metal container. Thin skins are tanned by this liquor in one day; heavy skins must remain in it longer, and will not be harmed if left in it indefinitely. When removed they are washed several times in soapy water, wrung as dry as possible, and rubbed on the flesh side with a cake of hard soap. They are then folded in the middle, hung lengthwise over a line, hair side out, and left to dry. When both surfaces are barely dry and the interior is still moist they are laid over a smooth, rounded board and scraped on the flesh side with the edge of a worn flat file, or a similar blunt-edged tool. In this way an inner layer is removed and the skins become nearly white in color. They are then stretched, rubbed, and twisted until quite dry. If parts of a skin are still hard and stiff, the soaping, drying, and stretching process is repeated until the entire skin is soft. Fresh butter or other animal fat worked into skins while warm and then worked out again in dry hardwood sawdust, or extracted by a hasty bath in gasoline, increases their softness.

COOPERATION OF BREEDERS.

Breeders of fur animals should bear in mind that cooperation is the keynote of progress. If breeders of ordinary domestic animals find it advantageous to form associations for mutual help and encouragement, how much more will it be to the advantage of fur farmers, who are dealing with a group of animals new to domestication, to contribute their individual discoveries to the common fund of information, meet one another, discuss methods, adopt breeding standards, and unite in an effort to place their specialty in a proper light before the public, for there is considerable misapprehension regarding the character of their work.

Much of the improvement that has taken place in the various kinds of live stock has been due to the object lessons

afforded by public exhibitions. The breeders of fur-bearing animals can help themselves individually and collectively by consistently preparing their finest specimens for exhibition at fairs and shows where people interested in animals assemble.

Too often the project to domesticate fur-bearing animals has been judged superficially. For example, the possibility that persons having animal pens may become poachers and capture young animals in the close season simply for the purpose of killing them for their pelts later in the year has frequently outweighed in many minds the palpable impossibility of satisfying the demand for fur by any means other than the domestication of fur bearers, and the practical certainty that as fur farming develops the present tireless pursuit of wild fur animals will decrease. As a result, fur farmers in certain States have been obliged to pay annual license fees, to give bonds, and to submit to various restrictions in the sale of breeding stock. In other States, however, the owner of a fur farm has exactly the same property rights in his animals and the same freedom in the conduct of his business as the owner of a sheep ranch or of a poultry farm. The cause of the fur farmer is intrinsically sound, and those interested in it have only to unite and fairly state it to gain popular support.

PUMPING FOR IRRIGATION ON THE FARM.

By P. E. FULLER,

Irrigation Engineer, Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering.

THE most common method of supplying water to the irrigated lands of the United States is by gravity flow from streams. A small but increasing area is supplied by pumping plants, each of which serves a single farm from a well. A gravity supply of water has increased so much in cost that in many instances it is cheaper for a farmer to pump his own water from a well than to buy it delivered from a ditch by gravity. For this reason, principally, there will be a greater development of individual pumping. Added to it are the facts that in a great part of the Great Plains region a supply from streams is not available and pumping from the ground water is the only means of obtaining a supply, while throughout the humid section of the East both natural conditions and the laws relating to water are such as to make pumping the almost universal means of procuring water for irrigation. Many large pumping plants are lifting water which is delivered through canals to supply whole communities, but the plants supplying single farms are much more numerous, and it is this type which is discussed in this paper.

In obtaining a water supply for irrigation, cooperation has many advantages, but the individual pumping plant also has many advantages and few drawbacks. The owner of an individual plant need not wait his turn to receive water from a community source, but can obtain it when he wants it; no vexing conditions are imposed upon him by contracts or regulations, and his supply is not liable to be cut off through the negligence or cupidity of others. If a farmer has a dependable supply and a well-designed plant properly installed, he has only himself to blame if he does not get water when he wants it and when his crops need it.

In computing the costs of pumping it is necessary to include interest on first cost, depreciation, fuel, and cost of operation and maintenance. Mechanically it is possible to pump water through lifts of hundreds of feet and in almost any quantities desired, but what is commercially feasible depends upon nearness to supplies of equipment and fuel, cost of these items, the crops which can be grown, and the markets for these crops. Consequently no limits of lift and cost within which pumping is feasible can be fixed. What is feasible at one time or place may not be so at another time or place. In certain sections of California water is lifted more than 300 feet, while in other sections lifts of 25 feet can not be deemed practicable.

SIZE OF PUMPING PLANT.

The size of pumping plant needed to supply a given farm depends primarily on the area to be irrigated and the water requirements of the land, but is influenced largely by other considerations. The plant must be of sufficient capacity to supply to the land during any period of time the water needed during that time, but where areas are small it may be necessary to have a plant much larger than would be required by the above considerations, since in applying the water a very small stream can not be used to advantage. Two methods of overcoming this difficulty are used-one to install a pump of sufficient size to deliver an economical stream, and the other to use a smaller pump and provide a reservoir for storing the water until sufficient has accumulated to make such a stream. A small pump may be operated continuously, night and day, while water is used only during the day or only on occasional days. In view of fixed charges, it is the part of economy to put in a small plant and operate it for the maximum time possible, because interest on the investment, and, to a large extent, depreciation, vary with the size and are about the same whether a plant is idle or in use. In most instances it is a question of the comparative cost of larger pumping equipment and the reservoir. Where electric power is purchased on a flat rate per horsepower per year, the decrease in cost of power made possible by the use of reservoirs permitting continuous operation is a strong argument in their favor. Water stored in reservoirs is subject to loss by percolation, however, and unless reservoirs are lined to prevent such waste much of the water pumped will be lost.

Pumping for Irrigation on the Farm.

It has been stated that a pumping plant must be large enough to supply to the acreage to be irrigated the quantity of water required by that acreage within a given time. In the arid region it is customary to estimate the depth of water needed during the whole irrigating season of say, 5 months, on the land to be served, and provide a pump that will deliver this quantity. If, for instance, a pump is to serve 80 acres in alfalfa, and it is estimated that the land should receive water enough in 5 months to cover it to a depth of 3 feet, it will be necessary to deliver 240 acre-feet in 153 days, or 1.57 acre-feet per day, or 356 gallons per minute, operating continuously throughout the season of 153 days. An allowance should be made for necessary shutdowns, and it is probable that a pump having a capacity of 400 to 450 gallons per minute would be recommended for such conditions. A stream of this size, however, is not large enough to use to best advantage in irrigating alfalfa and it would be necessary to install a larger pump or build a reservoir for storing water during the night. A stream of 800 to 1,000 gallons per minute could be used to much better advantage, would not require storage, and would not require continuous operation of the pump.

In the semiarid and humid regions, where irrigation water is used to supplement the rainfall and to tide over periods of drought, the quantity of water likely to be needed during some short period rather than during the whole season governs the size of plant. It should be possible to give the entire acreage one good irrigation within a period of two weeks. As a broad general average, a good irrigation requires sufficient water to cover the surface to a depth of from 4 to 6 inches. Taking 5 inches as the average and 80 acres as the acreage, again, this will require a pump discharging 540 gallons per minute if operated continuously for two weeks, or 1,080 gallons per minute if operated one-half the time.

As a rule, reservoirs are more adaptable to the semiarid sections than to the arid, since in the former a large quantity of water may be required to fill in a period of drought, in which instance, if the reservoir were of sufficient capacity, a small plant might be operated continuously during possibly several weeks, thereby holding in the reservoir a large volume

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to be applied when needed in a relatively short period of time.

Plate LXXXVII, figure 1, shows an alfalfa field of 150 acres at Deming, N. Mex., with plats or lands 20 by 330 feet which are irrigated from a centrifugal pump delivering 2.5 cubic feet per second (1,125 gallons per minute). Plate LXXXVII, figure 2, illustrates the exterior of this plant. It is but one of 22 similar pumps, ranging in capacity from 800 to 2,000 gallons per minute, irrigating 4,000 acres. One pump is situated at the highest point of each 160 to 200 acree tract, the largest pumps supplying more than 160 acres. The pumps are vertical centrifugal, direct-connected to 3-phase, 60-cycle, 220-volt motors ranging in size from 35 to 50 horsepower. The average depth to water level in that section is 48 feet. The total pumping head, which includes the drawdown head, is from 60 to 70 feet.

TYPES OF PUMPS.

Three types of pumping plants, distinguished by the kind of pump, are used for irrigation. The first type is that in which some form of plunger or cylinder pump and driving head is employed. In the second type some form of centrifugal pump, either horizontal or vertical, is employed. The third type is what is known as an air lift. Other types of pumps, less commonly used for irrigation, are elevators or chain pumps, rotary or cycloidal pumps, and screw pumps, the latter after a modification of the principle of the Archimedean screw.

The plunger or cylinder type of pump may include a single-acting cylinder or a double-acting cylinder, or may be a single-acting double plunger, a single-acting three plunger or even a four plunger, all operating in one cylinder, or it may be double, triplex, or quadruplex, employing two, three, or four cylinders with single plungers.

When the single-cylinder type is employed it usually is installed in a cased well, while the use of more than one cylinder requires a pit or dug well. In both cases the working head or that part of the pump operating the plangers is situated upon the surface of the ground with the cylinders and plungers below water level.

Pumping for Irrigation on the Farm.

The single-cylinder pumps, whether they have one or more plungers, usually are employed for pumping against high heads-that is. where the water level occurs at 100 or more feet below the surface. As a rule the quantity pumped does not exceed 200 or 300 gallons per minute, although if a large quantity be desired such pumps may be used by employing the two or three plunger arrangement. The pumping head in such instances usually is massive and is an expensive part of the equipment. A cheaper installation, where quantities of water up to 1,000 gallons per minute or more are desired. is the vertical centrifugal pump, for which a pump pit may be dug or a 24-inch or larger casing may be installed to a depth sufficient to permit putting the pump within suction distance of the lowest point to which the water level will be drawn down by pumping, the well proper being continued from the bottom of this pit to the required depth. Where the water plane does not undergo material fluctuations and occurs at a moderate depth, a pit, either rectangular or circular, may be sunk to water level or below, and properly timbered or concreted. At the bottom thereof and connected with the well extending below may be installed a horizontal centrifugal pump, direct-connected to an electric motor or (if the depth is not excessive) belted to some form of prime mover installed upon the surface of the ground.

The air lift is utilized often for recovering water from great depths, especially where considerable sand or sediment is delivered with the water. There are two types of air lifts—the direct displacement and the expansion types. In either of these, however, the water is raised by compressed air, which requires some form of compressor.

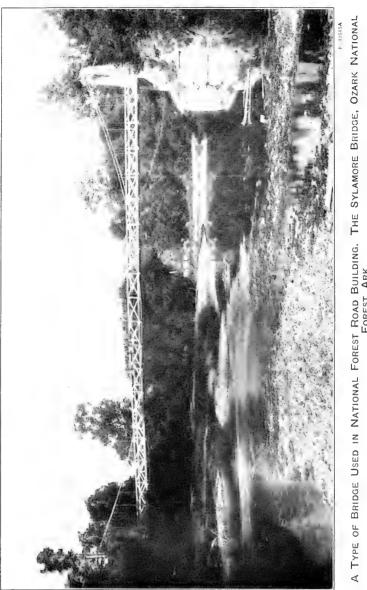
It is impossible to recommend a particular type of pumping plant that will fit all conditions equally well, since a factor influencing the choice of one type for one section might be absent in another section. In some sections a preference is shown for the deep-well pump of the plunger type, even for large quantites of water, notwithstanding their higher first cost and the fact that the centrifugal type would be more suitable and give equal, if not better, results.

The choice of a type of pumping plant is often influenced by the fact that a pump salesman has succeeded in selling a plant which operated satisfactorily. Further installations follow without regard to whether that type is the most practical and feasible. In every case where a new installation is contemplated, the matter should be submitted for competent, impartial engineering advice before a particular type of plant is adopted.

As a general rule the plunger type of pump is well suited for lifting quantities of water from 100 to 500 gallons per minute from depths beyond 50 feet, whereas the vertical centrifugal pump is better suited for quantities of from 500 to 2,000 gallons per minute at depths beyond 50 feet. A horizontal centrifugal pump is preferable for depths of from 10 to 50 feet, where electric power is available, even for quantities as low as 100 gallons per minute; and where the depth to water is as great as 50 feet and electric power is not available, a horizontal centrifugal pump, located in a dug pit and belted to an engine upon the surface with the belt running at an incline, is to be preferred.

As a rule, the plunger pump will give a higher mechanical efficiency than the vertical centrifugal pump, often as great as 80 per cent when new, though where considerable sand and grit is encountered the wear upon the plunger leathers and valves often increases the slip or loss of water around the plungers, so that the efficiency decreases rapidly, the average operating efficiency being about 65 per cent. Under such conditions the vertical centrifugal pump, if arranged for ample lubrication of all vertical bearings by the use of inclosed line shafting, will give less trouble and a higher, more constant efficiency, and is more suitable. The ordinary stock pumps of this type seldom attain efficiencies above 50 per cent; therefore a properly designed and constructed, though more expensive, pump is to be preferred.

The horizontal centrifugal pump, if of the turbine type for high heads or of the volute type for moderate heads and correctly designed, is preferable to either of the other types of pump, and always should be used where the depth to water level is not so great as to make it impracticable. The efficiency of such pumps usually is quite high, often 70 per cent, and since there is practically no wear upon the hydraulic parts the efficiency may be maintained for a long time.



FOREST, ARK.

The towers are of reinforced concrete, and the roadway, which is of wood, is suspended by wire cables. A suspension bridge is cheapest and best where the span is long, or where, as over a canyon, the depth to be crossed is such that piers are impracticable.

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PLATE LXXXVIII.

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PLATE LXXXIX.



F-25314A

FIG. 1.—How EVEN GRADES ARE SECURED ON NATIONAL FOREST ROADS. A switchback and fill on the Sedalia-Decker Springs road, Pike National Forest, Colo., with retaining wall of broken rock.



F-1405A-OCM

FIG. 2.-CROSSING A ROCK SLIDE ON THE PAYETTE NATIONAL FOREST, IDAHO.

A retaining wall of broken rock is built on the upper side of the road to protect it from slides, and another on the lower side to prevent washing.



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PLATE XC.

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Pumping for Irrigation on the Farm.

The centrifugal pump usually is compounded; that is, a stage is employed for each 50 feet in head to be contended against, though in some instances where high speeds are permissible a single-stage pump may handle water against 100 feet or more. However, the slip and short-circuit losses tend to increase with the increase in head per stage; hence it is desirable to limit that head to 50 or 75 feet.

The air lift, even under the most favorable circumstances, is not an efficient means of pumping water, for the reason that the air compressor which is a necessary part of either the expansion or the direct-displacement type is not, nor can it be, made highly efficient where air must be used at high pressures, and, since the air pressure is proportionate to the height the water is lifted in all but one form of lift, it is seldom that conditions will warrant such low pressures as will give even average high efficiencies in the compressor, and though the efficiency of the air jet be relatively high, the loss in the compressor, in combination with the loss in the jet, seldom gives a combined efficiency above 35 per cent. The direct-displacement air lift usually is more efficient in the water-expelling part than in the expansion system.

By "efficiency" is meant the ratio of the amount of work accomplished to the amount of work expended. For example, if the theoretical power required to elevate a given quantity of water in a given time were 50 horsepower, and to accomplish that work it required the expenditure of 100 horsepower, the combined efficiency of the apparatus would be 50 per cent. Evidently, then, upon the efficiency of the plant depends the cost of the water pumped. But efficiency is not the only factor to be considered, for the reliability of the equipment is of great importance and may justify a sacrifice of efficiency. Why combined reliability and high efficiency do not seem possible in the vertical centrifugal pump is not explained easily. Nevertheless, this seems to be the case, whereas in the horizontal centrifugal pump high efficiency and reliability are characteristic. Nor are efficiency and reliability jointly possible in the air lift, where efficiency is sacrificed to reliability. The plunger type of pump approaches closer to the standard of the horizontal centrifugal pump in efficiency and reliability, provided the water is relatively free from sand or grit.

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The efficiency of the centrifugal pump (either vertical or horizontal), unlike that of the plunger, is influenced very greatly by fluctuations in head, and, unless the speed of the pump can be varied to meet any variation in head from that for which the pump was designed, its efficiency may be lessened considerably. For this reason it is important that a test be made upon the well to determine its capacity at a given draw-down, the exact head to be contended with thus ascertained, and its value included in the specifications of requirements submitted to the pump builders.

In ascertaining the draw-down a well need not be tested to the full capacity desired, since the draw-down is proportional to the quantity delivered, except when it affects more than one-half of the inflow area of the well. That is, if a well under test supplies 500 gallons per minute and lowers the normal water plane 10 feet, then in delivering 1,000 gallons per minute the water plane would be lowered 20 feet if the water level is not drawn down more than one-half of the total depth through which water enters the well.

FEATURES OF PROPER INSTALLATION.

Proper installation of a pumping plant is important if reliability is to be assured. Massive and well-built foundations are necessary for proper operation of the pump as well as the engine, since weak foundations permit vibration, which leads to loss of power and unnecessary wear and tear on the machinery.

Foundations should be of concrete, thoroughly mixed and comprised ordinarily of 1 part of cement to 2 parts of sand and 3 parts of gravel, and should be kept thoroughly wetted for at least seven days after completion. The machinery should be leveled by the use of iron wedges after alignment, and the bases should be grouted thoroughly into place by the use of cement grout composed of 1 part of cement to 1 part of clean, coarse sand. After this grout has become set thoroughly the foundation bolts should be tightened into place.

The matter of belt centers, that is, the distance from the center of the engine shaft to the center of the pump, is of prime importance. Short belt centers require very tight belts, resulting in loss of power and efficiency. Where vertical centrifugal pumps are used a quarter-twist belt is required, and such a belt should not require the use of idlers to provide belt tension or proper belt alignment. Therefore the belt centers in such instances should be from 30 to 35 feet, so that the weight of the belt may provide the necessary tension.

In some instances there is a tendency of the belt to climb the pump pulley when the plant is being shut down, and if the belt becomes slack there also is a tendency for the belt to run off the pulley at the lower side. To prevent this trouble it is well to provide four guide idlers close to the pump head, two at the top and two at the bottom edges of the belt, which will come into play only when needed. Where an open belt is used, as in belting from the engine to a horizontal pump located in a pit, belt centers of 25 feet will be ample, although this will be determined largely by the depth of the pit, since the pulling side of the belt should be on an incline of 45° with the horizontal. Where plunger pumps are employed an open belt is used and the centers may be 20 to 25 feet.

An effectual means of sight feed lubrication should be provided for both the engine and the pump, for, while the engine usually inherently has provision for such lubrication, the pump sometimes requires a separate oiling system.

Large internal-combustion engines, of sizes above 25 horsepower, should be arranged for starting by air. This requires a small air compressor arranged for driving from the main engine or from a small auxiliary engine. The air for starting is stored in tanks, which should withstand pressure up to 250 pounds per square inch.

Probably the most important item in connection with a pumping plant is the engine-cooling system, and great care should be exercised in supplying the feed water so as to eliminate sand or sediment. The best plan for cooling is one in which a large tank is provided and connection from the bottom of the tank is had with the lowest point upon the engine circulating jacket, the tank being placed so that its bottom is on a level with the bottom of the engine cylinder. The small circulating pump should be so connected as to deliver water into the connection at the bottom of the cylinder and permit a flow of water from the pump around the engine cylinder or into the bottom of the tank, or both. The outlet from the top of the cylinder jacket should be arranged so as to discharge into the tank or into a waste pipe

discharging into the main pump discharge bay. The small pump should be piped so as to permit also connecting in series with the circulating system. In this way failure of the main pump to furnish an immediate supply, or failure of the small pump to operate, would permit circulation of cooling water by siphon action. Figure 55 shows an excellent arrangement of the circulating system. Provision should be made for draining the entire system in case of freezing temperatures.

The plant should include a galvanized-iron fuel-oil storage tank having a capacity of from 2,500 to 10,000 gallons, depending on the size of the plant. It should be installed in a curbed well so as to make possible its removal in case of needed repairs. It is important that the tank have a tight cover to prevent evaporation of the oil.

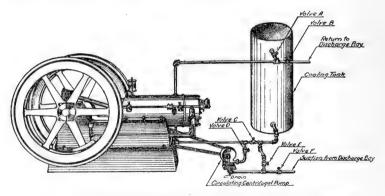


FIG. 55.—Small internal-combustion engine, with cooling system.

Careful attention should be given to housing the plant. Dust must be kept out. Concrete foundations are best, while brick, adobe, and concrete blocks are better than lumber or galvanized iron for the building materials. Galvanized iron is satisfactory for roofing if the joints and corrugations are brought to a tight fit by the use of a filler between it and the wall plate. The engine room always should have a concrete floor. The belt-race housing may be of corrugated iron. A substantial derrick should be over the well and pump and should be fitted with cable blocks and crab for lifting the heavy pump parts in case immediate repair should be necessary in the midst of an irrigation period, when delay in irrigating might prove disastrous to the crop.

Pumping for Irrigation on the Farm.

Such breakdowns should be anticipated and every facility be immediately at hand so as to permit quick pulling of the pump and immediate repairs thereto, without the necessity of improvising some form of derrick or hoisting apparatus.

There are four kinds of belting which may be used for driving the pump—leather, rubber, canvas, and composition. For dry, arid climates leather is to be preferred; rubber will give excellent results under moist conditions, but is not nearly so long lived as leather; canvas is cheaper than either the leather or rubber, but is very susceptible to climatic conditions; composition costs as much, wears as well as leather, and is not affected by moisture.

WELLS.

Regarded in the proper light, the pumping plant is the heart of the farm. Upon it is dependent the value of the land as well as the successful cropping. It should be well installed, and include only the best of efficient machinery. capable of withstanding heavy and continuous strain. But without an ample and dependable water supply the best of pumping-plant equipment would be valueless, and a dependable and ample water supply could not be obtained if the proper type of well were not employed, notwithstanding the underground water-bearing material might be adequate. Two types of bored wells are in use generally-one in which the strainer is perforated before the casing is inserted, and another in which the perforations are made after the well casing is in. There are several kinds of perforated casing. such as the strainer in which rectangular slots are punched in galvanized sheet-iron which is formed into sections and riveted together as it is inserted; the shutter strainer, of heavy sheet steel with slits punched around the casing and formed at the top of the slits so as to produce a shelter, as it were, over each slit; and a strainer of steel piping liberally drilled with one-half inch holes and wrapped with a trapezoidal or triangular section wire, the width of the spaces between the wires being varied to correspond with the formation in which the strainer is to be used. Casing perforated after being inserted in the well may be either screw casing or what is known as "stovepipe" casing, the latter being

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employed more commonly because of the ease with which it may be perforated.

Generally, for sand or small-gravel formations, one of the perforated strainers will give the better results, whereas if the formation be of coarse bowlders and large gravel very satisfactory results will be obtained with casing perforated after it is inserted with slots 6 to 8 inches long, four each around a given section, each set from 4 to 6 inches above the other. Where stovepipe or screw casing is used it is installed as the well is drilled by the use of what is called a cable rig, or commonly a churn drill, whereas where perforated strainers are employed they usually are set in the well after it has been drilled, and a rotary drilling rig is employed for such purposes.

In drilling wells it is best to penetrate the entire depth of water-bearing material, since the greater the inflow area within the well the less will be the draw-down for a given quantity of water.

Quite as important as the well itself is the matter of developing it after it has been drilled and the casing installed. The flow of water depends upon the effective size of the soil grain comprising the water-bearing material, which may be very greatly increased by removing all of the fine sand or finer gravel. This would be justified even if the expense were one-half the initial cost of the well. There are several methods of developing wells, the more common of which is the use of a wood plunger bolted to the end of the drill stem, which is churned up and down so as to force the water outward and inward through the perforations. Special forms of water-developing jets are available which are really more effective than the wood plunger. Very frequently the flow from a well may be increased several hundred per cent by such development. In all of the 72 wells installed in connection with the Portales, N. Mex., irrigation project the flow into the wells when the wells were installed and tested seldom exceeded 300 to 400 gallons per minute, but after persistent development the flow was increased to from 1,000 to 2,000 gallons per minute. While a well will develop to some extent under ordinary pumping, it is not best to depend upon that alone.

Pumping for Irrigation on the Farm.

It also is a wise provision to have chemical analyses made of the water recovered from a given section before large investment is made in a pumping plant, since the water often may contain harmful salts.

COST OF PLANT.

A first-class pumping plant, including well, may be installed, under average conditions of head and capacity, at a cost of from \$5,000 to \$7,000, with ample capacity to irrigate 160 acres of average forage crops. A smaller plant with a capacity of several hundred gallons a minute may be installed complete, including the well, for \$2,000 or less if water-supply conditions are favorable. The cost of a reservoir may be \$500 or even \$1,000 if it be concrete lined. As heretofore stated, the operation of a pumping plant should extend over as great a period of time during an irrigation season as possible, so as to reduce the unit overhead cost.

COST OF OPERATION.

Efforts are being made continually to construct pumping-plant machinery with a view to operation without the necessity for constant attention, but while many plants are so operated, the only attention given being an occasional visit each day during operation, this procedure is hazardous, and if any part of the equipment were to fail during operation the engine or pump might be destroyed and the cost of repairs exceed the cost of continuous labor and attendance which might have been supplied. If, on the other hand, the distribution system is so laid out as to permit diversion of water to a given number of plats and the system be of concrete pipe or concrete-lined ditches (which, of themselves, do not require attention), the operator of the plant may set the gates for certain delivery and then return to the plant and devote the greater part of his time to its operation.

An engine that will use a low grade of fuel oil is desirable, since the cost of such oil usually is about one-fourth or onethird that of gasoline. The better type of semicrude-oil engines will deliver from 8 to 10 horsepower hours per gallon of semicrude oil known as "tops" and having a density of from 25° to 30° Baumé. This fuel may cost on an average of from 3 cents to 7 cents per gallon, delivered.

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Lubricating oil is an important factor in the cost of operation of gas engines. Particularly is this true of a large engine, though if it be kept in proper repair, so that the lubricating oil does not pass by the piston rings and into combustion with the fuel oil, a much lower consumption of lubricating oil may be obtained.

Interest and depreciation always should be included as an item in the cost of the operation of a pumping plant. Further, a maintenance charge should be made so as to provide funds for repairs and maintenance of the plant up to the highest standard. Usually the depreciation on internal-combustion engines is as high as 15 per cent. The interest charges vary with the prevailing rates in the particular locality. Using 15 per cent for depreciation and 8 per cent for interest and adding the cost of fuel and lubricating oil (the former at 3 to 7 cents per gallon and the latter at 40 cents per gallon) as well as a continuous supervision labor charge. the average cost per acre-foot of water for each foot of head it is elevated may vary from 4 cents to as much as 15 to 20 cents. Thus, if the pumping head were 100 feet, the total cost would be \$4 to \$20 per acre-foot. This cost will be varied, depending upon the amount of time charged against plant operation.

In comparing such costs with the cost of water under a gravity project, interest and depreciation must be charged similarly against that source, as well as cost of ditch cleaning, maintenance, cultivation against weeds, etc., when the comparison between the two projects would not be so greatly to the disadvantage of the pumping plant as might appear. Where electric power is available, considering the high depreciation and possible annoying shutdowns for repairs incident to gas-engine plants, together with the fact that operative labor may be almost entirely eliminated, a cost of 2 cents or even more per kilowatt may be comparable to the cost of the same amount of power from a gas-engine plant.

OPENING UP THE NATIONAL FORESTS BY ROAD BUILDING.

By O. C. MERRILL, Chief Engineer, Forest Service.

COME day in the not far distant future the farmer in Kansas, Oklahoma, Nebraska, the Dakotas, or indeed N in any of the great farming States, may, when the work of harvesting is over, pack tent and camp equipment in his automobile and, with his family, seek needed rest and recreation almost anywhere in the mountain reaches of the National Forests, east or west. He will be able, if he so desires, to journey at his leisure, camping where fancy leads him and untroubled by the need for making a town or settlement each night. He may go by wavs hitherto closed to all but the adventurous tourist with saddle horse and pack outfit, through the mountains of Colorado, with their snowcapped peaks and green parks, or into the beauties and health-giving air of the high Sierras of California, the coast ranges of Washington and Oregon, the northern Rockies, or the cool altitudes of the Southwest. Should the matter of distance or his own fancy turn him eastward, he will be able to penetrate the Southern Appalachians, with peaks greenclad to the summit and bathed in the soft haze which gives to the southern mountains a peculiar beauty of their own. Similarly, the farmer living within the boundaries of the National Forests may find what now is often lacking-quick and easy contact with markets for his produce and with sources of his supplies. Forest communities. now isolated through lack of good roads or even any roads at all, will be brought into touch with the outside world. All this is made possible by the section of the Federal aid road act, signed by the President on July 11, 1916, appropriating a million dollars a year for 10 years for the construction of roads within National Forests. This sum, however, represents but half, or perhaps less than half, of the amount which will probably be spent for National Forest roads in the next 10 years, over and above the amount ordinarily spent each year by the Forest Service, for the law provides that an equal amount shall be contributed by the States and counties concerned. So as much as \$20,000,000 ought to be available between now and the year 1927 with which to open up the National Forests for the benefit of those who live in or near them, and for the vast number of other Americans who may wish to use them as places in which to find health, rest, and recreation.

When, in 1905, the National Forests were placed under the administration of the Forest Service, they were practically without roads and lacking in trails. They were, moreover, in serious danger of burning up. because there were no means of transporting men and supplies quickly to the scene of fires. Before very much could be done, therefore. in the way of building roads primarily for the use of the public, it was necessary to give the Forests road and trail systems that would make it possible to protect them from the fire menace. In the last 10 years, with the money available from its regular appropriation, amounting in all to about \$1,500,000, the Forest Service has built or repaired about 2,000 miles of road and about 25,000 miles of trail in the National Forests. These, while serving their primary object of administration and protection, have, to a certain extent, made the Forests accessible to the public. But when one considers the vastness of the Forest areas and the lack of roads at the beginning, one can see that, so far as opening up the Forests to the public is concerned, the work which it has been possible to do with the money available from the regular appropriation for the Forest Service amounts to relatively little beside the total road work that needs to be done.

The National Forests total 155,000,000 acres, an area considerably larger than the German Empire. They contain the highest altitudes and the roughest topography in the United States. The greater number of them are in the mountains of the West—the Rockies, the Sierra Nevadas, and the Coast Range—though land has been bought, and still is being bought, for National Forests in the White Mountains and in the Southern Appalachians. Within their boundaries are any number of mining camps, small agricultural communities,

Opening Up the National Forests.

and individual farms. Settlement at first was on the more accessible lands along the margins of the Forests or in the river valleys. Gradually, however, as the remaining agricultural land in the Forests has been classified and opened to settlement, the less accessible areas have been taken up, making the need for roads more urgent than ever. Counties, and even individuals, have built roads when money was available, and the Forest Service has done what it could with the funds at its disposal, but in spite of all this hundreds of settlers within the National Forests still have no means of communication with the outside world better than a pack As other remote areas of agricultural land in the Fortrail ests are opened to settlement, this condition will, of course. become worse instead of better. The convenience and wellbeing of the settlers, and the development and use of the Forests' agricultural resources, call for an adequate system of roads in the shortest practicable time.

And if there is need for giving the population within the Forests an outlet to the rest of the world, there is just as great a need for giving the people of the country in general means for getting into the Forests: for nowhere else can one find such unlimited opportunities for every kind of recrea-The most rugged and impressive of mountain scenery. tion. forests of spruce, fir, and pine, high meadows deep in mountain wild flowers, beautiful lakes reflecting the snow-clad peaks around them, and shaded trout streams are there for the nature lover, the fisherman, or the vacationist who desires only rest and change of scene in the great outdoors. As things are at present, most of these places can be reached only after days of travel on foot or with saddle and pack horse. Roads would make them accessible, by automobile or other conveyance, to thousands of people, at a relatively small expenditure of money and time. Even to-day one of the commonest sights during the summer months on such of the National Forests as are traversed by good roads is the automobile camper with tent and other necessary equipment and with family or friends in his car, seeking pleasure and rest in the mountain country. The licenses which the cars carry show that they come from many States, near and distant-New York and Pennsylvania tags may be seen almost any day in the National Forests in

Colorado or even in California-but chiefly from the Plains States and other farming regions of the West and Middle West. The automobile has solved for many farmers the problem of a means of obtaining a vacation trip for themselves and their families. Hotel expenses there are none. and food may be obtained at reasonable prices from ranches and farms along the way. To take a family of three or four on the railroad would mean a separate ticket for each member: vet scarcely more gasoline, if any, is used when that many persons are in the car than when it carries but one. These are some of the reasons why automobile camping has increased so tremendously in the last two or three years, and why it promises to increase still more in the next two or three. And just as the motor car has met the question of how to make the vacation trip, so before very long will the National Forests answer the one of where to go.

For those who desire to spend more time on the Forest than is ordinarily consumed by a pleasure trip there are almost innumerable sites for summer homes. Such of these as are at present easily accessible have been developed and advertised by the Forest Service, and a large number of permanent camps and cottages have been erected in the Forests by those who wish to spend their summers among the beauties of the mountains. The cost of a permit for a summerhome site ranges from \$10 up, according to location, size of lot, character of building which it is planned to erect, etc., but is very seldom more than \$25, and usually less. New roads will, of course, make many more summer-home sites available for use. Summer communities will grow up along the shores of many of the beautiful lakes in the western mountains, now practically inaccessible, and in other places to which the view or surroundings lend a special attractiveness. Good roads, too, will undoubtedly bring hotels, as they do everywhere else, for those who wish to visit the Forests without the need of camping.

In 1912 Congress stipulated that 10 per cent of the receipts from the National Forests should be expended, under the direction of the Secretary of Agriculture, for the construction of roads and trails; and it was from this date that road building on the Forests, primarily for the benefit of the public, really began. As long ago as 1906 Congress provided that

Opening Up the National Forests.

10 per cent (later increased to 25 per cent) of National Forest receipts should go to the counties in which the Forests are situated, for roads and schools; but little or none of the money thus appropriated, amounting so far to about \$5,000,-000, has been spent for roads inside the Forests, the various counties preferring to use it in the more thickly settled localities outside.

What has been accomplished since 1912 is the repair of 580 miles of road in the National Forests and the construction of 860 miles of new ones-1.440 miles in all-at a total cost of \$1,157,000. Of this sum \$780,000 represents 10 per cent of National Forest receipts for the three years, together with certain moneys available from the regular Forest Service appropriation, while \$337,000 was contributed by States, counties, and private cooperators. Here, specifically, are some of the things that have been done with a few hundred thousand dollars: Twenty-six miles of road. with a maximum grade of 6 per cent, have been built between the Big Basin, in Montana, and the Bitterroot Valley. replacing an almost impassable road, with grades as high as 25 per cent. Work is nearly complete on a road from Jacksons Hole, Wvo., over the Teton Pass to the railroad at Victor, Idaho. The closing link has been built in a road connecting the Flathead Valley, in Montana, with the Inland Empire territory. A road is under construction in California which will open for the first time the agricultural lands along the valley of the Trinity River. Another road in the same State will furnish access to summer camping grounds for residents of the Imperial Valley. A road recently completed across the Powell National Forest, in Utah, has opened communication with a settlement in the vallev of the upper Colorado, hitherto practically shut off from the rest of the world. Roads across the Rabbit Ears Pass and the Cochetopa Pass, in Colorado, will open up large sections of the Routt and Cochetopa National Forests to freighting and tourist travel. These are by no means all of the roads that have been built or on which work has begun since the 10 per cent fund became available, but they serve to show how a start has been made in opening up the National Forests to general public use.

In the actual work of road building the policy is to concentrate available funds on a few projects at a time. and to complete these rapidly, rather than to scatter money among a multitude of projects and get very little in the way of an effective road system. One good road that connects up with an existing road leading to some center of population, or that gives an outlet to a railway. is worth two indifferent roads that lead nowhere in particular. Reconnaissance surveys have been made to determine the approximate location and cost of the roads most urgently needed. and the various projects arranged in the order of their relative In this way it is possible to allot the money importance. for road building, as it becomes available, with the certainty that it will be used to the best advantage. Engineers of the Department of Agriculture have kept in touch with the highway departments of the various States in which National Forests are situated, in order to insure coordination between Federal work and that of the local governments.

The character of traffic on the National Forests has seldom justified the construction of expensive surfaced roads. Medium-width earth roads, well graded and drained, are the kind which have been built. With conditions as they are on the Forests, a single-track road with a low grade has proved much better than a double-track road with a steep grade. Roads which prove to be too narrow can be widened without destroying what is already there, but to change the grade means rebuilding and complete loss of the original Heavy grades on mountain roads that often investment. have a steady upward climb of 10 or 15 miles before the crest of the divide is reached make travel by horse-drawn vehicle, or even by automobile, a slow and difficult pro-Six per cent has been used as the maximum grade ceeding. for National Forest roads wherever practicable. All roads, moreover, are side ditched, with protection ditches as needed and good-sized culverts at frequent intervals.

In one case a road seemed to be urgently needed on a National Forest, though of a kind too costly and of too little economic utility to justify its construction by the Forest Service or by the State or county concerned. This is the so-called Pikes Peak Highway, in the Pike National Forest, completed in the summer of 1916, extending from the town of

Opening Up the National Forests.

Cascade 17 miles to the summit of Pikes Peak. The peak. which attains an altitude of 14,109 feet above sea level, is a Mecca for tourists from all over the United States Before this year, practically the only means of reaching the top, other than on the back of a burro, was by a cog railroad. An opportunity for automobiles to reach the summit was desired by the local people, and accordingly the Secretary of Agriculture gave a permit to a private company to construct a road, after approving the amount of toll to be charged. The permit provides, among other things, that at the expiration of 15 years and at intervals of 5 years thereafter, the company may be required to transfer title and interest in the road to the United States on payment of an amount equal to its physical value, or the Secretary of Agriculture may instead impose an annual rental and have the right to fix toll charges, if necessary, to protect the public. It is not the policy of the Government to sanction the construction of toll roads in the National Forests, but since neither State nor Government. funds were available for this much-needed development of the scenic resources of the Pike Forest, an exception was made in this particular case.

Once a National Forest road is built, everything possible is done to keep it in a proper state of repair. With the long dry spells and the short heavy rains and deep snow, along with alternate melting and freezing, common on most of the Forests, even the best built road would soon be ruined without some effective system of maintenance. With proper maintenance, on the other hand, the kind of material usually found on the Forests will produce excellent roads. On the more important roads patrolmen are being employed during the season of traffic to keep ditches and culverts open and to drag and crown the road whenever necessary. If the cost of maintaining National Forest roads remains as low in the future as it is at present, the system will, it is hoped, furnish an object lesson in the economy of intelligent maintenance over intermittent repairs.

Though much has been accomplished in the way of road building in a relatively short time, it would take a great many years to provide the National Forests with even the skeleton of a road system if dependence had to be placed solely on the 10 per cent of Forest receipts and such other

money as the Forest Service could spare from its regular appropriation. For while it is true that the potential value of National Forest resources is exceedingly great, the money receipts from the sale of timber and from other uses are in many cases at present very small, due mainly to the very lack of roads that the 10 per cent fund was meant to remedy. A Forest that is inaccessible can not be used, and so can produce little or no revenue. Therefore, until the National Forests were given some sort of road system, relatively little increase in receipts could be expected, and correspondingly little increase in the funds available for road building. To meet this situation, the Secretary of Agriculture, in his report for 1914, made the following recommendations:

In such regions [National Forests] the Secretary of Agriculture should be authorized to make a study of the local conditions and to gather all the data necessary to formulate a plan for public-road development based on local needs. These plans should be carried into sufficient detail to provide a reasonably accurate estimate of the cost of the road construction which it is proposed that the Government shall undertake. They should be accompanied by careful and conservative appraisals of the value of the National Forest timber in each locality and a forecast of the future income which the Forests will bring in from all sources. On the basis of the showings of fact regarding the value of the Government's property, its potential incomeyielding capacity, and the needs of the public, Congress should be asked to appropriate for the construction of projects recommended by the Secretary of Agriculture.

The result of this was the clause in the Federal aid road act appropriating \$1,000,000 a year for 10 years for National Forest roads. The Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering, through cooperative agreement with the Forest Service, will make surveys, prepare plans and specifications, and supervise construction. By this arrangement the administrative experience and knowledge of local conditions possessed by the Forest Service is combined with the technical equipment of the Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering to insure the best results in the shortest time and at the least cost.

In deciding between the various projects proposed in each State, a number of things will have to be taken into account. Some of these are the relative public need for each road, to how great an extent it will help to develop resources upon which settlers or communities are dependent, and its relation

Opening Up the National Forests.

to the State or county highway system. The amount of cooperation offered by the State or counties and the amount of Government money apportioned to the State will, of course, also be considered. Once these matters are settled and the aim will be to settle them quickly—the actual work of construction can begin. The money that should be available during the next 10 years will serve to build many miles of road in the National Forests. Many of these new roads, besides serving their economic purpose, will be scenic highways unsurpassed elsewhere on the continent in the views which they will unfold to the traveler. Nearly all of them will lead to places where Nature has wrought in one medium or another—in beauties of mountain, valley, forest, or stream—her finest and most inspiring handiwork.

Viewed in its broader aspects, road building is but part, though a very important part, of the larger work of developing the resources of the National Forests in a way to insure their widest public use. The Forests were set aside, not as a domain locked up and hidden, a far country closed permanently to use and enjoyment, but as a storehouse from which the people of the United States might forever in the future draw wood and water, and where they might find pleasure, rest, and health amid scenes of beauty. In so far as the roads to be built in the next 10 years bring this plan of National Forest development nearer to completion, they will serve a broad public purpose and meet a pressing public need.

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A GRAPHIC SUMMARY OF WORLD AGRICULTURE.

By V. C. FINCH, Formerly Assistant in Agricultural Geography, Office of Farm Management; O. E. BAKER, Agriculturist, Office of Farm Management, and R. G. HAINSWORTH, Head Draftsman, Office of Farm Management.

T HE United States has a greater acreage of land in crops than any other nation, except possibly China, for which statistics are not available. The total acreage of land in crops in the United States is nearly equal to that of all Europe, excluding Russia. The other important agricultural nations, arranged in descending order of importance according to crop acreage, are Russia, India, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Argentina, France, Italy, and Canada.

The United States also has a greater crop acreage per capita of population than any other of the great nations of the world, except the sparsely settled countries of Canada and Argentina. In the United States in 1909 the number of acres of crops per person was 3.5, and of improved land, 5.2; whereas in the Old World the acres of crops per person ranged from about 0.2 acre in Japan and 0.4 acre in the United Kingdom to 1 acre in Germany, 1.5 acres in France, and 1.6 acres in the Russian Empire.

The population of eastern and southern Asia has increased comparatively slowly in recent times, being frequently reduced by famine, but the population of Europe has increased manyfold during the past century and has now in several countries attained a density exceeding that of the Orient. According to the latest statistics, Belgium has a density of population of about 670 persons per square mile, the United Kingdom 380, Japan 370, Italy 330, Germany 320, India (British) 220, Austria-Hungary and China (proper) 200, and the United States 34.

The large amount of improved land per person in the United States and the large amount of arable but less valuable land yet unimproved, probably almost equal to the improved land in area, is in striking contrast to the great density of population across the oceans. Herein lies the basic cause of the difference in economic well-being between the Old World and the New, and of the current of westward immigration. The best statistical evidence indicates that population in the United States is now increasing somewhat more rapidly than the acreage of cropped land. The maximum acreage of improved land per capita, 5.7 acres, was attained in the census years 1880 and 1890 and dropped to 5.5 in 1900 and to 5.2 in 1910. The higher prices of farm products are in part a resultant of this pressure of population upon the food supply, and are in turn an important factor in producing the increased yield per acre and the trend toward more intensive types of agriculture. Although the acreage of cropped land per capita has decreased for 20 years, more intensive methods of agriculture and higher yields per acre have prevented an appreciable decline in the per capita production of crops. Taking as a criterion the six more important food crops, corn, wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, and rye, the average production was higher in the two five-year periods, 1906–1910 and 1911–1915, than in the previous five-year periods for which figures are available.

Estimated	acreage	of	land	in	crops,	and	food	production	of	the	principal
					coun	tries.					

Country.	Estimated acreage of land in crops. ¹	Estimated population. ¹	Esti- mated acres of crops per capita.	Estimated pro- duction of se- lected food crops expressed in terms of bushels of wheat (average of 1911-1913). ²	Estimated production per capita of selected food crops interms of bushels of wheat.
United States	318, 526, 000	91,972,000	3.5	4,170,690,000	45.3
Russian Empire 8	4 275, 569, 000	175, 138, 000	1.6	3,051,135,000	17.4
China (proper) ⁵	400,000,000	302,000,000	1.3		
India (British)	219, 192, 000	244,268,000	.9	1,910,751,000	7.8
German Empire	65,445,000	67, 812,000	1.0	1,442,349,000	21.3
Austria-Hungary	62, 196, 000	49,211,000	1.3	1,035,573,000	. 21. 0
Argentina	60, 829, 000	7,979,000	7.6	6449,086,000	56.3
France	59, 128, 000	39,602,000	1.5	707,815,000	17.9
Italy	51,309,000	36, 120, 000	1.4	346, 757, 000	9.6
Canada		7,180,000	5.1	505, 219, 000	70.4
United Kingdom	19, 413, 000	45, 371,000	.4	251,892,000	5.6
Australia	14,683,000	4,951,000	3.0	122,258,000	24.7

1 Statesman's Yearbook, 1916, except for United States and China.

² The relative value, without reference to protein ratio, of the different food crops per bushel used in compiling this table is based principally on Danish experiments in feeding and is as follows: Wheat, 60; corn, 56; rye, 56; oats, 32; barley, 48; potatoes, 10; clean rice, 60; millet, 48; sugar, equivalent to wheat. ³ Exclusive of Finland.

* Exclusive of 95,756,000 acres of meadows.

5 Rough estimate.

^e Average of 1912-1914.

The following maps of the world's agriculture are designed to furnish a convenient means of comparing the geographic distribution and density of production of the more important crops and farm animals in the United States with the distribution and density in foreign countries, while the graphs at the bottom of the maps visualize the relative importance of the United States in the world's production and markets. The system of uniform-sized dots employed to show distribution does not permit of an easy computation of totals, but the value of the dot is shown for each map, and from the graphs the acreage or production of the important countries can be approximately determined. Since acreage is less subject to fluctuation than crop production, and since it affords better comparison of the importance of one crop with another, statistics of area have been mapped so far as figures were available. In the maps of rice, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and coffee, however, it was found necessary to use statistics of production. All the maps represent an average of the years 1911, 1912, and 1913, compiled from official reports, except in the case of the United States, for which the statistics collected in the census of 1910 were used, and in that for the provinces of Russian Asia, which refer to the two years 1912 and 1914.

Because of the distortion resulting from any attempt to represent the curved surface of the earth on a flat map, the ratio of dot area to land area is not the same in all portions of the map, which is a Mercator projection. The density of dots in any section of the map is strictly comparable only with that of other places in the same latitude.

Data are lacking for some countries or provinces, particularly for China and the native states of India, and in such cases hachuring has been employed to show the probable distribution and density.

The following table provides a summary of the more important statistics graphically portrayed in the maps and graphs:

Country.	Corn.	Wheat.	Oats.	Rye.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
United States	2,701,074,000	704, 995, 000	1,154,134,300	36,721,300
Russian Empire	78, 110, 000	727, 133, 300	1,050,574,700	935, 010, 300
India	87, 526, 700	369, 612, 300		
German Empire		160, 2 36, 700	595,660,700	455,181,700
France	20,557,000	324, 136, 700	309, 380, 300	48,078,700
Austria-Hungary	210,855,300	247, 141, 000	245, 937, 700	163,640,000
Italy	100, 245, 300	190, 840, 000	37, 582, 700	5,390,300
United Kingdom		61, 297, 300	179, 359, 000	1,666,700
Argentina ¹	251,875,300	155,828,300	65,311,000	1,748,300
Canada	17,636,000	228,933,300	387, 159, 000	2,406,700
Australia	10, 432, 000	88,961,000	14, 134, 000	95,700
Country.	Barley.	Potatoes.	Rice.	Sugar.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.2	Long tons.
United States	187, 417, 700	348, 303, 000	11,808,700	1,639,000
Russian Empire	484, 848, 000	1,287,880,700	6, 151, 900	1,630,700
India	38,097,700		1,087,002,300	2,407,000
German Empire	157, 921, 700	1,698,826,000		2,227,000
France	47,608,700	506, 884, 700	39,100	643,000
Austria-Hungary	153, 437, 000	642, 149, 000		1,496,700
Italy	10,029,300	61, 410, 300	11,052,600	186,300
United Kingdom	62, 528, 300	259, 482, 700		
Argentina ¹	5,096,700	38,029,000	410,300	242,900
Canada	47, 370, 700	78,222,300		
	. ,		1	

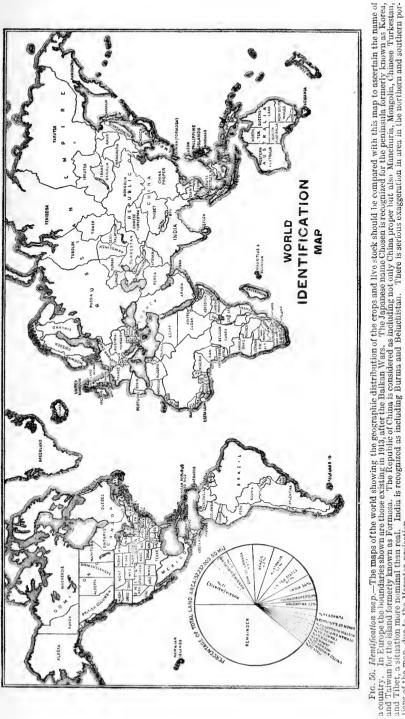
Production of principal crops in the principal countries: Average for 1911-1913.

1 Average of 1912-1914.

³ 60 pounds clean rice.

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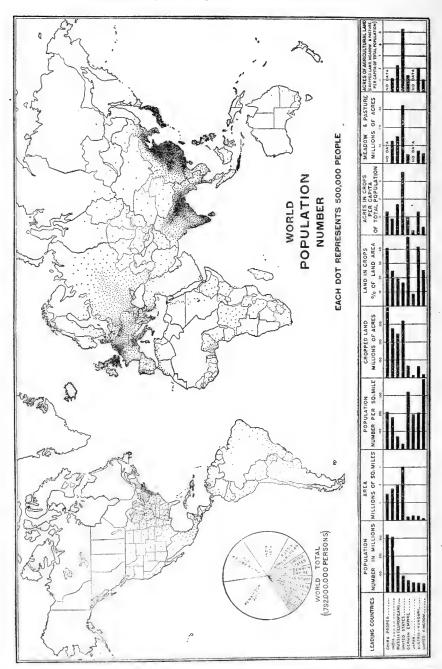


FIG. 57. Population.—Seven centers of dense population may be noted on the map—Japan, China, Java, India, Italy, northwestern Europe, and the coast of the United States from Boston to Baltimore. Among the nations of the world the greatest density is in Belgium, where there were at the last census nearly 700 people per square mile. The density in Massachusetts is about 420, in the United Kingdom about 400, in Germany and in Italy over 300, in China and in India about 200, while the average for the United States is 34. Of more significance is theneres of erops per person, which ranges from about 4 of an acre in Japan, about 1 acre in India and Germany, 14 acres in China, and 34 acres in the United States, to 7 acres in Argentina.

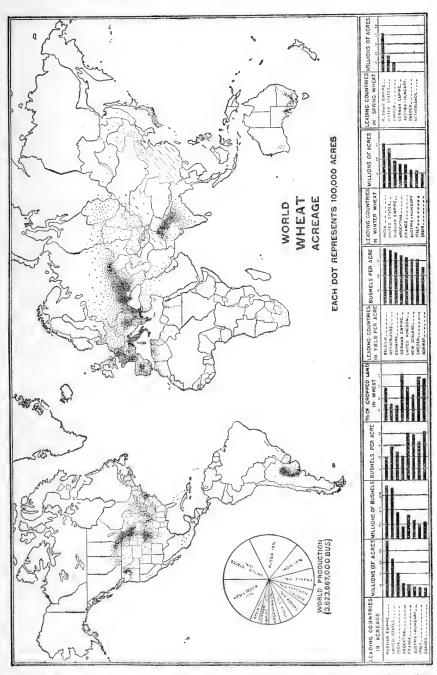
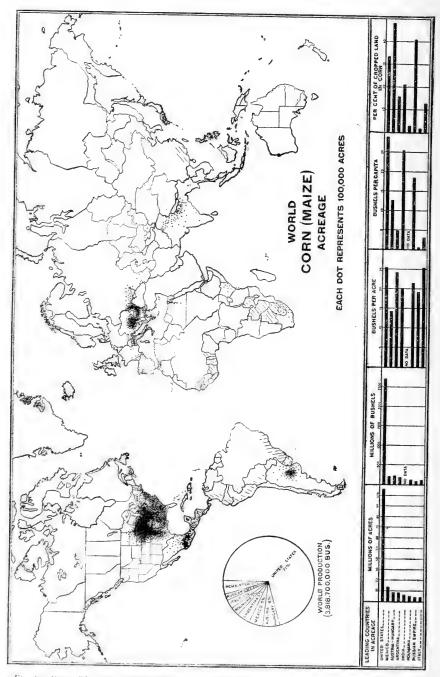


FIG. 58. Wheat.—Four widely separated wheat regions of world importance will be noted—southern Europe, central North Amorica, India, and Argentina. Of these, southern Europe is most important, the combined acreage of all European countries being more than twice that of all North America, which ranks next. The surplus crop is grown principally in subhumid, temperate climates, where the population is sparse, the type of agriculture is extensive, the land is yet cheap, and where wheat is free in large measure from the competition of more productive crops. Most of the important wheat regions of the world have an average annual rainfall of less than 30 inches.



Fro. 5.4. Gom. The corn (maize) acreage of the United States is nearly double that of the rest of the world. The other important producing regions are southern Europe, particularly Roumania and Hungary. Mexico, Arcentina, and India. Relative to the population, corn is a more important crop in the United States than in any other country. Relative to the acreage of other crops, it reaches its highest importance in Mexico, where it is the staple food of the poore classes. The highest yield per acre is found in Canada, a country of inconspicious acreage. The corn acreage of all European countries is about equal to that of Illinois, Iowa, and Missouri.

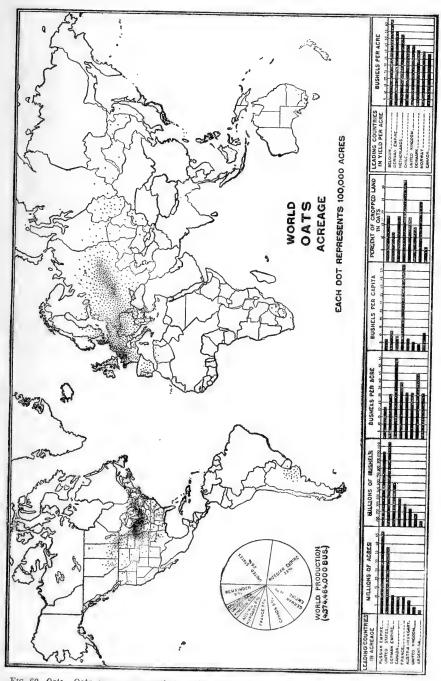


FIG. 60. Oats.—Oats are grown mostly in cooler and moister climates than is oither wheat or barley. The three principal regions of production are in the northeastern United States and adjoining provinces of Canada, in northwestern Europe, and in Russia. The United States leads in production, Russia has the largest acreage, while the local importance of the crop, as measured by the proportion of cropped land it occupies, and the per capita production, is greatest in Canada. In yield per acre Belgium leads, as it is sown in the autumn.

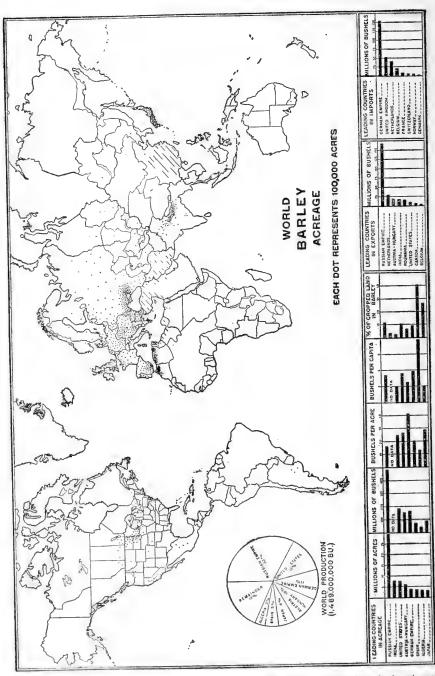


FIG. 61. Barley. – Barley is a less important world crop than wheat or oats. The important centers of production are southern Russia, northern Africa, southern Spain, Austria, Germany, eastern England, the north central United States, California, Japan, China, and India. The geographic distribution of barley is more widespread than that of oats and is similar to that of wheat, though extending somewhat farther north in Europe and slightly farther into the arid regions of northern Africa and America. The wide distribution of the crop results from its ability to mature in a short, warm season in high latitudes and in a short, moist season on the borders of the deserts.

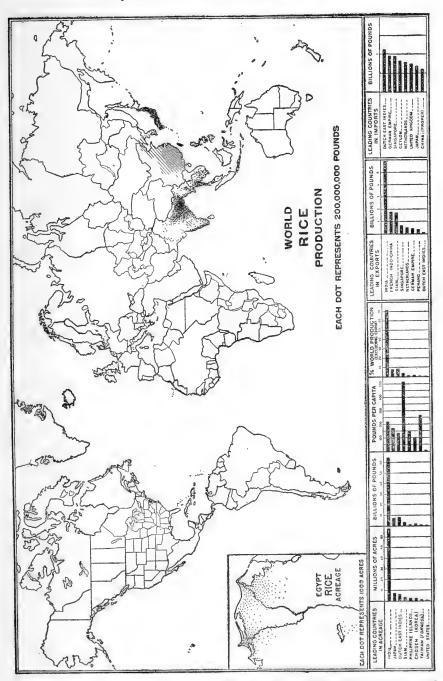


FIG. 62. *Rice.*—Rice is produced in many countries, but it is primarily the food crop of the Orient, 97 per cent of the world's production being grown in southern and eastern Asia and adjoining islands. There are many varieties of rice, most of which require irrigation. In general, rice is grown on level, wetlands, particularly river deltas such as those of the Yangtze, Ganges, Nile, Po, and Mississippi. In some regions the level land is artificially produced by terracing. For this type of agriculture the dense population and cheap labor of the Orient are necessary. The rice production of Africa and the American continents is so small that it barely shows on this map.

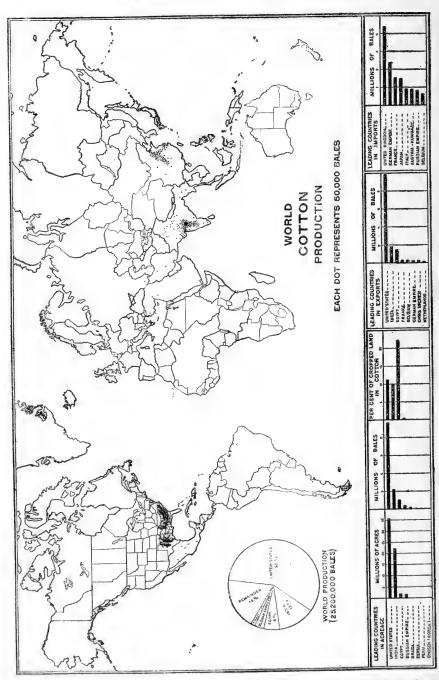


FIG. 63. Cotton.—The United States produces about three-fifths of the world's cotton, India and Egypt being the only other countries whose crop is of much commercial importance. China and Russian Turkestan produce considerable cotton, but the crop is consumed almost entirely within the country of production. A little cotton is grown in eastern Brazil, in Peru, in Mexico, and in Asiatic Turkey. The extensive production of cotton is restricted to regions having an average frestless season of 200 days or more, and 95 per cent of the world's crop is grown south of the 37th parallel of latitude.

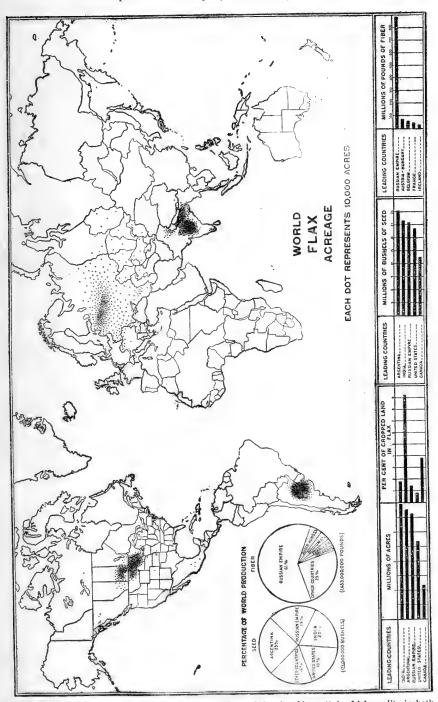


FIG. 64. Flaz.—Flax is grown both for its fiber and its seed, but it seldom attains high quality in both at the same time. Four centers of flax culture are to be noted—India, Argentiaa, Russia, and United States. Of these only Russia is important in the commercial production of flax fiber. Smaller centers of fiber production are located in northern France, Belgium, and northern Ireland. In the American continents the scarcity of labor makes it difficult to produce flax fiber a profit under existing prices. From these western centers comes the bulk of the linseed oil and flaxseed by-products of the world. In India flax is grown for its seed.

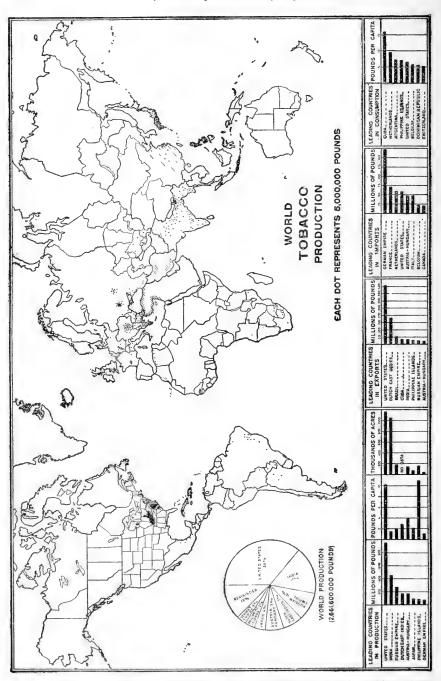


FIG. 65. *Tobacco.*—Although few crops are cultivated under a wider range of climatic conditions, tobacco is produced on a commercial scale in only a few areas situated so favorably as to yield a leaf of superior quality. In the United States, the Connecticut Valley and Florida produce excellent wrapper and binder leaf for cligars, Pennsylvania and Ohio chiefly filler, and Wisconsin binder leaf. Kentucky produces the well-known Burley, Virginia and the Carolinas flue-cured tobacco. Outside the United States, Sumatra and Java produce a famed cligar wrapper type and Turkey the finest cligarcite leaf, while Cuba, especially the noted Vuelta Abajo district, leads the world in the excellence of its cligar leaf.

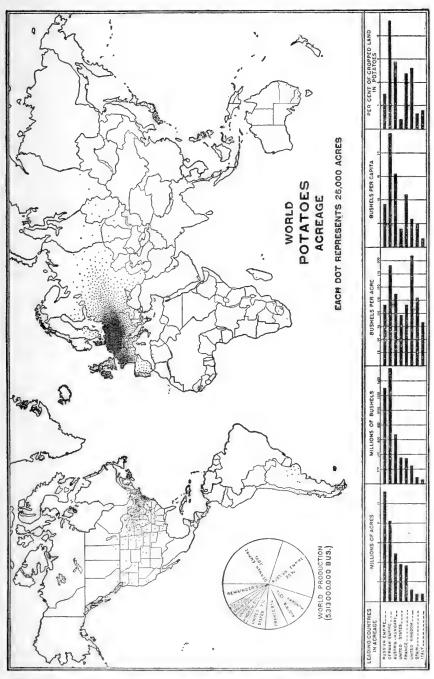
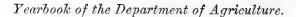


FIG. 66. Potatoes.—Although the potato was in origin an American plant, over 90 per cent of the world's potato erop is now grown in Europe, the production of that continent vasily exceeding in volume and almost equaling in value the wheat crop of the world. Germany has an average potato acreage twice as great and a production four times as great as that of the United States. Nearly 14 per cent of the cropped land in Germany is in potatoes as compared with 1.2 per cent in the United States. Russia and Austria-Hungary also each have a greater acreage and yield of potatoes than the United States. The Southern Homisphere has no important potato-raising centers.



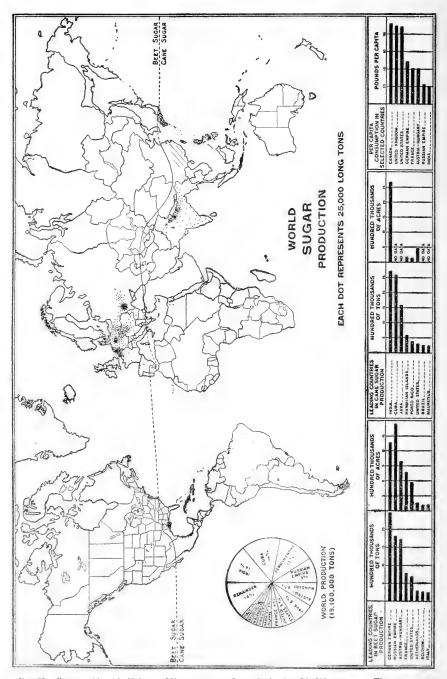


Fig. 67. Sugar.—About half the world's sugar comes from the beet and half from cane. The areas occupied by these two sugar crops are, in general, very distinct. The centers of heet-sugar production are south-western Russia, Austria, central Germany, northern France, southern Belgium, Michigan, Colorado, and California. The centers of canesugar production are the Ganges Valley of India, Java, Hawaii, Cuba, Porto Rico, and Louisham. The course of the dividing line on the map through Asla is merely conventional, since there is no beet-sugar production to the north of the line. The sugar crops of Argentina, South Africa, and Australia are entirely cane.

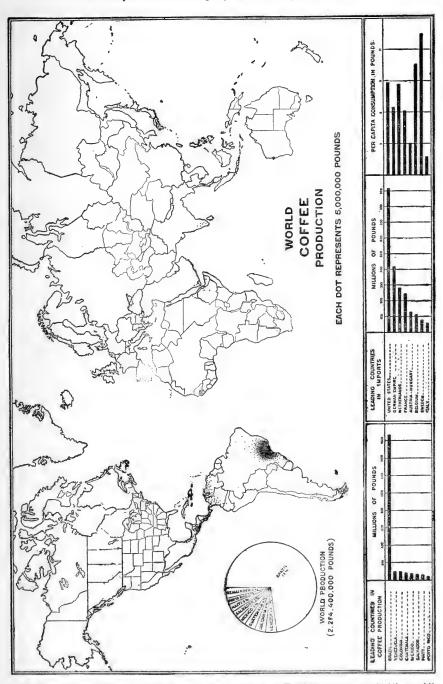


Fig. 68. Coffee.—Although the coffee tree is native to the Eastern Hemisphere, 95 per cent of the world's crop is now grown in South and Central America and the West Indies. The outstanding importance of the Brazillian area on the map distracts attention from other important areas, namely, Venezuela, Colombia, Central America, Mexico, and the West India Islands, Abyssinia, southern Arabia, India, and Java. The large production of Brazil (over 70 per cent of the world crop) makes it impossible to restrict properly the dotted area in Brazil and still show loss important producing regions.

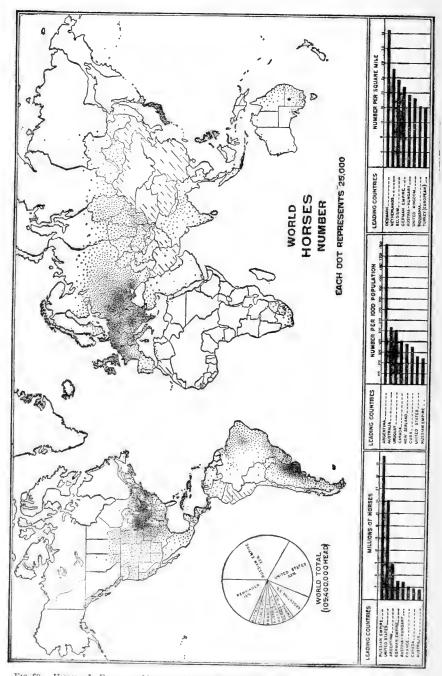


FIG. 69. Horses.—In Europeand in countries settled by Europeans, the distribution of horses corresponds in general to the distribution of the human population. Russia and the United States, the largest agricultural nations, lead in actual number of horses. Relative to the population horses are most numerous in those countries which have extensive agricultural and grazing industries and sparse populations. The number of horses relative to area, however, is greatest in northwestern Europe, where agriculture is highly developed and intensive. In the Orient, where human labor is plentiful and cheap, and cattle are used both in agricultural labor and in transportation, horses are few.

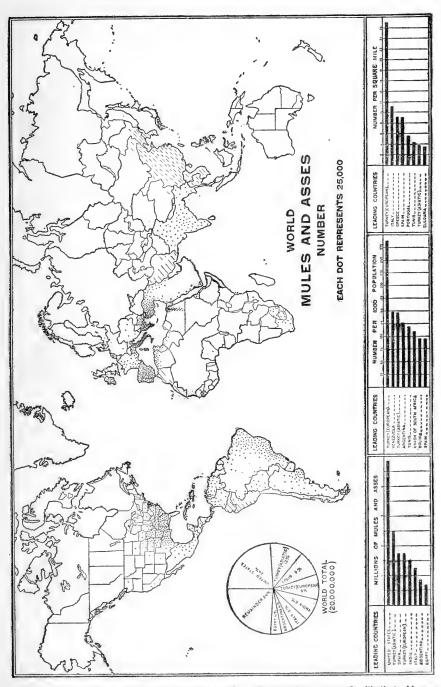


FIG. 70: Mules.—The geographic distribution of mules and asses when compared with that of horses shows striking dissimilarity. Owing to their hardihood, their stolidity, their sureness of foot, and ability to subsist on meager forage, the mule and the ass are the beasts of burden of the dry and rough lands or of poor peoples. Their importance is greatest in southern Europe, in the mountains of South America, in Ireland, and among the negro farmers of southern United States. Asses are more common than horses in China, but their number is not known. The number of mules and asses shown in Brazil is an estimate and is not included in the graphs.

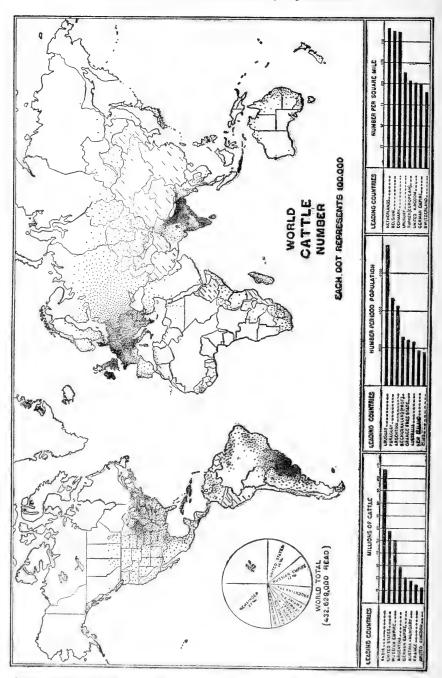


Fig. 71. Cuttle, - The four important cattle-producing regions of the world are Europe, particularly the northwestern portion, India, the United States, eastern Argentina, Uruguay, and southern Brazil. Of these countries. India ranks first in number, although the cattle are used very little for meat or milk but mostly for beasts of burden. It should be observed, however, that owing to the character of the projection the greater density of cattle in India than in Europe is only apparent. Relative to the population the unmber of cattle is highest in these new countries of the Southern Hemisphere where the population is sparse and the grazing industry extensive.

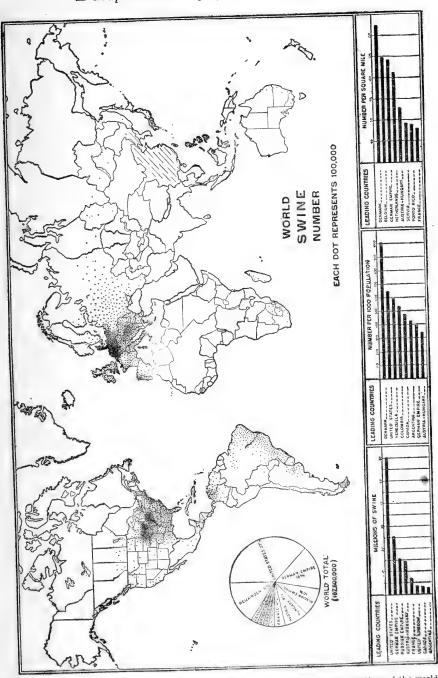


FIG. 72. Swine.—The United States has more swine (hogs) than any other three nations of the world, but in number per square mile it falls far behind many European countries. Swine are most numerous in countries having relatively intensive agriculture and an abundance of certain food products, particularly corn, harley, potates, and dairy by-products. In the United States the geographic distribution of swine corresponds closely with that of corn, but in Europe it follows rather the distribution of potates and dairy cows. Swine are barred from countries under Moslem initience. They are known to be numerous in China, but their number or distribution can not even be approximated.

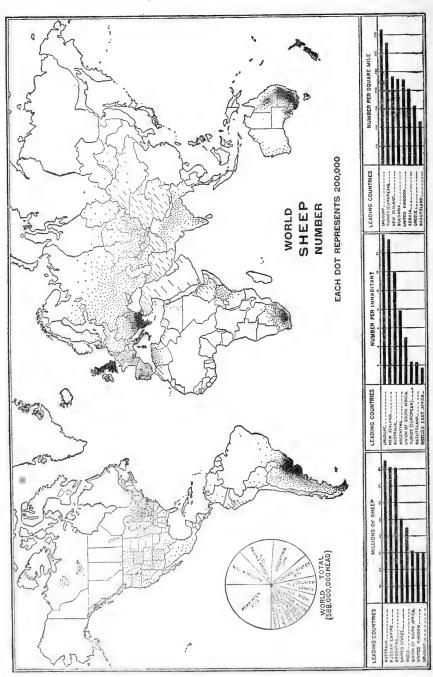


FIG. 73. Sheep. - There are six world centers of sheep raising, of which four—the South American countries, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand—are new lands with sparse population and are all located in the Southern Hemisphere. In Asia Minor and in the Balkan States conditions of topography, climate, and the normadic habits of the people in the recent past cause sheep to be important farm animals. In Great Britam many factors combine to make sheep raising a prominent industry in spite of apparently unfavorable chinatic conditions. The Russian Empire and the United Statemare, owing to large area, far down the list in number per square mile

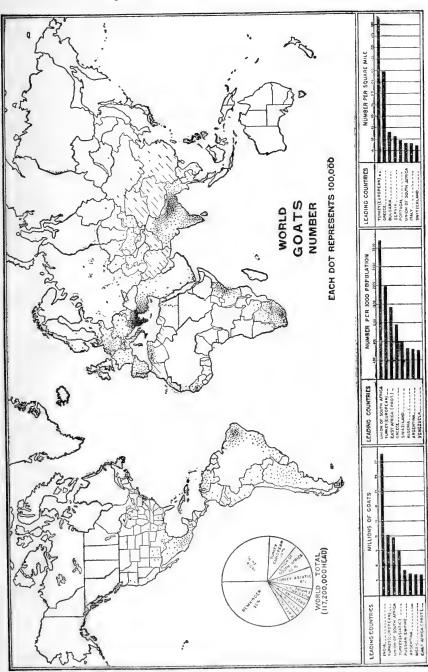


FIG. 74. Goats.—Goats are found in practically all the countries of the world, but their distribution is much the densest in the Balkan States of southeastern Europe. The other principal centers are in Asia Minor, northern Africa, India, East and South Africa, Argentina, Brazil, Venezuela, Mexico, the southwestern United States, and the countries of western Europe. The goat is even hardier than the sheep in its ability to subsist on scant forage and in regions of rough topography. It has the added advantage of a relatively large milk production. The goat is therefore found principally in rough or dry lands or among poor peoples.

A Graphic Summary of World Agriculture.



APPENDIX.

AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES.¹

College instruction in agriculture is given in the colleges and universities receiving the benefits of the acts of Congress of July 2, 1862, August 30, 1890, and March 4, 1907, which are now in operation in all the States and Territories except Alaska. The total number of these institutions is 69, of which 67 maintain courses of instruction in agriculture. In 23 States and Porto Rico the agricultural colleges are departments of the State universities. In 17 States separate institutions having courses in agriculture are maintained for the colored race. All of the agricultural colleges for white persons and several of those for negroes offer four-year courses in agriculture and its related sciences leading to bachelors' degrees, and many provide for graduate study. About 60 of these institutions also provide special, short, or correspondence courses in the different branches of agriculture, including agronomy, horticulture, animal husbandry, poultry raising, cheese making, dairying, sugar making, rural engineering, farm mechanics, and other technical subjects. The agricultural experiment stations, with very few exceptions, are departments of the agricultural colleges. The total number of persons engaged in the work of education and research in the land-grant colleges and the experiment stations in 1916 was 7,066, the number of students (white) in interior courses in the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, 69,075; the total number of students (white) in the whole institutions, 119,628;² the number of students (white) in the four-year college courses in agriculture, 18,525; the total number of students in the institutions for negroes, 10,510, of whom 2,055 were enrolled in agricultural courses. With a few exceptions, each of these colleges offers free tuition to residents of the State in which it is located. In the excepted cases scholarships are open to promising and energetic students, and in all opportunities are found for some to earn part of their expenses by their own labor. The expenses are from \$125 to \$300 for the school year.

State or Territory.	Name of institution.	Location.	President.
Alabama	Alabama Polytechnic Institute	Auburn	
	Agricultural School of the Tuskegee Nor- mal and Industrial Institute.	Tuskegee Institute	R. R. Moton. ³
	Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes.	Normal	W. S. Buchanan
Arizona	College of Agriculture of the University of Arizona.	Tucson	R. H. Forbes. ⁴
Arkansas	College of Agriculture of the University of Arkansas.	Fayetteville	Martin Nelson.4
	Branch Normal College.	Pine Bluff	J. G. Ish, jr.
California	College of Agriculture of the University of California.	Berkeley	T. F. Hunt. ⁴
Colorado	The State Agricultural College of Colo- rado.	Fort Collins	C. A. Lory.
Connecticut	Connecticut Agricultural College	Storrs	C. L. Beach.
Delaware	Delaware College. State College for Colored Students	Newark. Dover	S. C. Mitchell. W. C. Jason.

Agricultural colleges in the United States.

Including only institutions established under the land-grant act of July 2, 1862.
 Not including students in correspondence courses and extension schools.

Principal.

• Dean.

Agricultural colleges in the United States-Continued.

State or Territory.	Name of institution.	Location.	President.
Florida	College of Agriculture of the University of Florida.	Gainesville	P. H. Rolfs. ¹
	Florida Agricultural and Mechanical	Tallahassee	N. B. Young.
Georgia	College for Negroes. Georgia State College of Agriculture Georgia State Industrial College	Athens Savannah	A. M. Soule. R. R. Wright. A. L. Dean.
Hawaii Idaho	College of Hawaii College of Agriculture of the University of Idaho.	Honolulu Moscow	A. L. Dean. E. J. Iddings. ¹
Illinois	of Idaho. College of Agriculture of the University of Illinois.	Urbana	E. Davenport. ¹
Indiana	School of Agriculture of Purdue Univer- sity.	La Fayette	J. H. Skinner. ¹
Iowa	Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Ames	R. A. Pearson.
Kansas Kentucky	Kansas State Agricultural College The College of Agriculture of the State	Manhattan Lexington	H. J. Waters. George Roberts. ³
	The Kentucky Normal and Industrial	Frankfort	G. P. Russell.
Louisiana	The Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored Persons. Louisiana State University and Agricul- tural and Mechanical College.	Baton Rouge	T. D. Boyd.
	Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College of the State of Louisiana.	Scotland Heights, Baton Rouge.	J. S. Clark.
Maine	College of Agriculture of the University of Maine.	Orono	L. S. Merrill. ¹
Maryland	Maryland State College of Agriculture Princess Anne Academy, Eastern Branch of the Maryland State College of Agri-	College Park Princess Anne	H. J. Patterson. T. H. Kiah. ³
Massachusetts	culture. Massachusetts Agricultural College	Amherst	K. L. Butterfield.
Michigan Minnesota	Massachusetts Institute of Technology 4 Michigan Agricultural College College of Agriculture of the University	Boston East Lansing University Farm,	R. C. Maclaurin. F. S. Kedzie. A. F. Woods. ¹
Mississippi	of Minnesota. Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	St. Paul. Agricultural College.	W. H. Smith.
	Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical Col-	Alcorn	L. J. Rowan.
Missouri	lege. College of Agriculture of the University of Missouri.	Columbia	F. B. Mumford.1
	School of Mines and Metallurgy of the University of Missouri. ⁴	Rolla	
Montana	Lincoln Institute Montana State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Jefferson City Bozeman	B. F. Allen. Jas. M. Hamilto n .
Nebraska	College of Agriculture of the University of Nebraska.	Lincoln	E. A. Burnett. ¹
Nevada	College of Agriculture of the University of Nevada.	Reno	C. S. Knight. ¹
New Hampshire	New Hampshire College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts.	Durham	C. H. Pettee. ⁵
New Jersey	Rutgers College (the New Jersey State College for the Benefit of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts).	New Brunswick	W. H. S. Demarest.
New Mexico	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	State College	George E. Ladd.
New York North Carolina	New York State College of Agriculture The North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Ithaca West Raleigh	A. R. Mann. ² W. C. Riddick.
North Dakota Ohio	Negro Agricultural and Technical College. North Dakota Agricultural College College of Agriculture of Ohio State Uni-	Greensboro. Agricultural College. Columbus	J. B. Dudley. E. F. Ladd. Alfred Vivian. ¹
Oklahoma		Stillwater	J. M. Cantwell.
Oregon Pennsylvania	College. Agricultural and Normal University Oregon State Agricultural College The School of Agriculture of the Penn-	Langston Corvallis State College	W. J. Kerr.
Porto Rico	sylvania State College. College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	Mayaguez	R. S. Garwood. ¹
Rhode Island South Carolina	of the University of Porto Rico. Rhode Island State College The Clemson Agricultural College of	Kingston. Clemson College	Howard Edwards. W. M. Riggs.
	South Carolina. State Agricultural and Mechanical Col-	Orangeburg	R. S. Wilkinson.
South Dakota	lege of South Carolina. South Dakota State College of Agriculturo and Mechanic Arts.	Brookings	E. C. Perisho.
¹ Dean. ² Acting de	³ Principal.	s /	cting president.

Agricultural Experiment Stations of the United States. 557

Agricultural colleges in the United States—Continued.

StateorTerritory.	Name of institution.	Location.	President.
Tennessee	College of Agriculture, University of Ten-	Knoxville	H. A. Mor6an.
	Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State Normal School.	Nashville	W. J. Hale.
Texas	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.	College Station	W. B. Bizzell.
	Prairie View State Normal and Indus-	Prairie View	E. L. Blackshear.
Utah Vermont	trial College. The Agricultural College of Utah College of Agriculture of the University of Vermont.	Logan Burlington	E. G. Peterson. J. L. Hills. ¹
Virginia		Blacksburg	J. D. Eggleston.
	The Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.	Hampton	H.B. Frissell. ²
Washington West Virginia	State College of Washington	Pullman Morgantown	
Wisconsin	The West Virginia Collegiate Institute College of Agriculture of the University	Institute Madison	Byrd Prillerman. H. L. Russell. ¹
Wyoming	of Wisconsin. College of Agriculture, University of Wyoming.	Laramie	H. G. Knight. ¹

1 Dean.

² Principal.

AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT STATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES, THEIR LOCATIONS AND DIRECTORS.

Alabama (College), Auburn: J. F. Duggar. Alabama (Canebrake), Uniontown: L. H. Moore. Alabama (Tuskegee), Tuskegee Institute: G. W. Carver. Alaska, Sitka (Rampart, Kodiak, and Fairbanks): C. C. Georgeson.1 Arizona, Tucson: R. H. Forbes. Arkansas, Fayetteville: Martin Nelson. California, Berkeley: T. F. Hunt. Colorado, Fort Collins: C. P. Gillette. Connecticut (State), New Haven E. H. Jenkins. Connecticut (Storrs), Storrs..... Delaware, Newark: Harry Hayward. Florida, Gainesville: P. H. Rolfs. Georgia, Experiment: H. P. Stuckey.² Guam: 3 C. W. Edwards.4 Hawaii (Federal), Honolulu: J. M. Westgate.¹ Hawaii (Sugar Planters'), Honolulu: H. P. Agee. Idaho, Moscow: J. S. Jones. Illinois, Urbana: E. Davenport. Indiana, La Fayette: Arthur Goss. Iowa, Ames: C. F. Curtiss. Kansas, Manhattan: W. M. Jardine. Kentucky, Lexington: A. M. Peter.² Louisiana (Sugar), New Orleans) Louisiana (State), Baton Rouge W. R. Dodson. Louisiana (North), Calhoun.... Louisiana (Rice), Crowley..... Maine, Orono: C. D. Woods. Maryland, College Park: H. J. Patterson. Massachusetts, Amherst: W. P. Brooks. Michigan, East Lansing: R. S. Shaw. Minnesota, University Farm, St. Paul: A. F. Woods. Mississippi, Agricultural College: E. R. Lloyd. ¹ Agronomist in charge. ² Acting director.

Missouri (College), Columbia: F. B. Mumford. Missouri (Fruit), Mountain Grove: Paul Evans. Montana, Bozeman: F. B. Linfield. Nebraska, Lincoln: E. A. Burnett. Nevada, Reno: S. B. Doten. New Hampshire, Durham: J. C. Kendall. NewJersey (College), New Brunswick NewJersey (State), New Brunswick J.G.Lipman. New Mexico, State College: Fabian Garcia. New York (State), Geneva: W. H. Jordan. New York (Cornell), Ithaca: A. R. Mann.² North Carolina, Raleigh and West Raleigh: B. W. Kilgore. North Dakota, Agricultural College: T. P. Cooper. Ohio, Wooster: C. E. Thorne. Oklahoma, Stillwater: W. L. Carlyle. Oregon, Corvallis: A. B. Cordley. Pennsylvania, State College: R. L. Watts. Pennsylvania (Institute of Animal Nutrition), State College: H. P. Armsby. Porto Rico (Federal), Mayaguez: D. W. May.1 Porto Rico (Insular), Rio Piedras: W. V. Tower. Rhode Island, Kingston: B. L. Hartwell. South Carolina, Clemson College: -South Dakota, Brookings: J. W. Wilson. Tennessee, Knoxville: H. A. Morgan. Texas, College Station: B. Youngblood. Utah, Logan: F. S. Harris. Vermont, Burlington: J. L. Hills. Virginia (College), Blacksburg: A. W. Drinkard, jr. Virginia (Truck), Norfolk: T. C. Johnson. Washington, Pullman: I. D. Cardiff. West Virginia, Morgantown: J. L. Coulter. Wisconsin, Madison: H. L. Russell. Wyoming, Laramie: H. G. Knight.

⁸ Address: Island of Guam, via San Francisco.

Animal husbandman in charge.

STATE OFFICIALS IN CHARGE OF AGRICULTURE.

- Alabama: Commissioner of Agriculture, Montgomery.
- Alaska: Agronomist in charge of Experiment Stations, Sitka.
- Arizona: Director of Experiment Station, Tucson, Arkansas: Commissioner of Agriculture, Little
- Rock. California: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture,
- Sacramento.
- Colorado: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Fort Collins.
- Connecticut: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture. Hartford.
- Delaware: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Dover.
- Florida: Commissioner of Agriculture, Tallahassee.
- Georgia: Commissioner of Agriculture, Atlanta.
- Guam: Agronomist in charge of Experiment Station, Guam.
- Hawaii: Secretary of Territorial Board of Agriculture, Honolulu.
- Idaho: Commissioner of Immigration, Labor, and Statistics, Boise.
- Illinois: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Springfield.
- Indiana: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Indianapolis.
- Iowa: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Des Moines.
- Kansas: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture. Topeka.
- Kentucky: Commissioner of Agriculture, Frankfort.
- Louisiana: Commissioner of Agriculture, Baton Rouge.
- Maine: Commissioner of Agriculture, Augusta.
- Maryland: State Board of Agriculture, College Park.
- Massachusetts: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Boston.
- Michigan: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, East Lansing.
- Minnesota: Secretary of State Agricultural Society, St. Paul.
- Mississippi: Commissioner of Agriculture, Jackson.

Missouri: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Columbia.

Montana: Commissioner of Agriculture and Publicity, Helena.

- Nebraska: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Lincoln.
- Nevada: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Carson City.
- New Hampshire: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Concord.
- New Jersey: Secretary of State Department of Agriculture, Trenton.
- New Mexico: Director of Experiment Station, State College.

New York: Commissioner of Agriculture, Albany.

- North Carolina: Commissioner of Agriculture, Raleigh.
- North Dakota: Commissioner of Agriculture, Bismarck.
- Ohio: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Columbus.
- Oklahoma: Commissioner of Agriculture, Oklahoma.
- Oregon: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Salem.
- Pennsylvania: Commissioner of Agriculture, Harrisburg.
- Philippine Islands: Director of Agriculture, Manila.
- Porto Rico: President Board of Commissioners of Agriculture, Rio Piedras.
- Rhode Island: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Providence.
- South Carolina: Commissioner of Agriculture, Columbia.
- South Dakota: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Huron.
- Tennessee: Commissioner of Agriculture, Nashville.
- Texas: Commissioner of Agriculture, Austin.
- Utah: Director of Experiment Station, Logan.
- Vermont: Commissioner of Agriculture, Montpelier.
- Virginia: Commissioner of Agriculture, Richmond.

Washington: Commissioner of Agriculture, Olympia.

- West Virginia: Commissioner of Agriculture, Charleston.
- Wisconsin: Commissioner of Agriculture, Madison. Wyoming: Director of Experiment Station, Laramie.

STATE OFFICERS IN CHARGE OF COOPERATIVE AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION WORK.

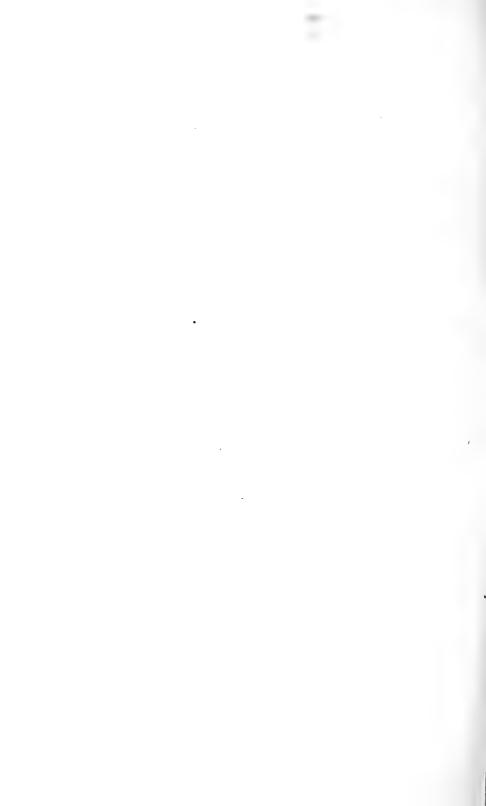
- stitute, Auburn.
- versity of Arizona, Tucson.
- Arkansas: W. C. Lassetter,¹ Little Rock.
- California: W. T. Clarke, College of Agriculture, 1 University of California, Berkeley.
- Colorado: H. T. French, State Agricultural College of Colorado, Fort Collins.
- Connecticut: H. J. Baker, Connecticut Agricultural College, Storrs.
- Delaware: H. Hayward, Delaware College, Newark,

- Alabama: J. F. Duggar, Alabama Polytechnic In- | Florida: P. H. Rolfs, College of Agriculture, University of Florida, Gainesville.
- Arizona: E. P. Taylor, College of Agriculture, Uni-+ Georgia: J. Phil Campbell, Georgia State College of Agriculture, Athens.
 - Idaho: O. D. Center, The Statehouse, Boise.
 - Illinois: W. F. Handschin, College of Agriculture, University of Illinois, Urbana.
 - Indiana: G. I. Christie, Purdue University, La Fayette.
 - Iowa: R. K. Bliss, Iowa State College, Ames.
 - Kansas: E. C. Johnson, Kansas State Agricultural College, Manhattan.

- Kentucky: Fred Mutchler, College of Agriculture, State University, Lexington.
- Louisiana: W. R. Dodson, Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Baton Rouge.
- Maine: L. S. Merrill, College of Agriculture, University of Maine, Orono.
- Maryland: T. B. Symons, Maryland State College of Agriculture, College Park.
- Massachusetts: W. D. Hurd, Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst.
- Michigan: R. J. Baldwin, Michigan Agricultural College, East Lansing.
- Minnesota: A. D. Wilson, College of Agriculture, University of Minnesota, University Farm, St. Paul.
- Mississippi: E. R. Lloyd, Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural College.
- Missouri: A. J. Meyer, College of Agriculture, University of Missouri, Columbia.
- Montana: F. S. Cooley, Montana State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Bozeman.
- Nebraska: C. W. Pugsley, College of Agriculture, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
- Nevada: C. A. Norcross, College of Agriculture, University of Nevada, Reno.
- New Hampshire: J. C. Kendall, New Hampshire College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, Durham.
- New Jersey: Alva Agee, Rutgers College, New Brunswick.
- New Mexico: A. C. Cooley, New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, State College.
- New York: A. R. Mann,¹ New York State College of Agriculture, Ithaca.
- North Carolina: B. W. Kilgore, North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, West Raleigh.

- North Dakota: T. P. Cooper, North Dakota Agricultural College, Agricultural College.
- Ohio: C. S. Wheeler, College of Agriculture, Ohio State University, Columbus.
- Oklahoma: J. A. Wilson, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater.
- Oregon: R. D. Hetzel, Oregon State Agricultural College, Corvallis.
- Pennsylvania: M. S. McDowell, Pennsylvania State College, State College.
- Rhode Island: A. E. Stene, Rhode Island State College, Kingston.
- South Carolina: W. W. Long, Clemson Agricultural College of South Carolina, Clemson College.
- South Dakota: G. W. Randlett, South Dakota State College, Brookings.
- Tennessee: C. A. Keffer, College of Agriculture, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
- Texas: Clarence Ousley, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station.
- Utah: J. T. Caine, 3d, Agricultural College of Utah, Logan.
- Vermont: Thos. Bradlee, University of Vermont and State Agricultural College, Burlington.
- Virginia: J. M. Jones, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg.
- Washington: W. S. Thornber, State College of Washington, Pullman.
- West Virginia: C. R. Titlow, College of Agriculture, West Virginia University, Morgantown.
- Wisconsin: K. L. Hatch, College of Agriculture, University of Wisconsin, Madison.
- Wyoming: A. E. Bowman, College of Agriculture, University of Wyoming, Laramie.

¹ Acting director.



STATISTICS OF GRAIN CROPS, 1916.

CORN.

TABLE 1.—Corn: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

G 1		Area.			Froduction.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA. United States	Acres. 103, 435, 000	A cres. 106, 197, 000	A cres. 105,954,060	Bushels. 2,672,804,000	Bushels. 2,994,793,000	Bushels. 2,583,241,00
Canada: Ontario Quebec Other	239,000 17,000 (¹)	237,000 16,000 (²)	160,000 13,000 (²)	$13,410,000 \\ 514,000 \\ (^2)$	13 ,860,000 508 000 (²)	5,976,00 295,00 (²)
Total, Canada	256,000	253,000	173,000	13,924,000	14,368,000	6,271,000
Mexico	4,748,000	(3)	(3)	78,443,000	60,000,000	(3)
Total				2,765,171,000	3,069,161,000	
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina. Chile. Uruguay	$10,260,000 \\ 59,000 \\ 692,000$	$10,386,000 \\ (3) \\ 852,000$	9, 930, 000 (⁸) 588, 000	$263, 135, 000 \\ 1, 505, 000 \\ 7, 142, 000$	338, 235, 000 1, 822, 000 11, 382, 000	161, 133, 000 (³) (³)
Total	11,011,000			271,782,000	351, 439, 000	
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria. Hungary proper. Croatia-Slavonia. Bosnia-Herzegovina.	⁴ 465,000 6,129,000 ⁽³⁾ ⁽³⁾	(³) 6, 194,000 (³) (³)	(8) (8) (3) (3)	4 10, 771, 000 172, 308, 000 25, 000, 000 7, 000, 000	4 10,000,000 180,550,000 25,000,000 7,000,000	(3) (3) (3) (3)
Total, Austria- Hungary	(3)	(3)		215,079,000	222, 550, 000	
Bulgaria France Italy . Portugal . Roumania	1,571,000 1,128,000 3,680,000 ⁽³⁾ 5,104,000	(³) 766,000 3,886,000 (³) 5,207,000	(³) 812,000 3,830,000 (⁸) 5,056,000	$\begin{array}{r} 30,901,000\\ 22,530,000\\ 104,966&000\\ 15,000,000\\ 102,552,000 \end{array}$	35,000,000 14,000,000 121,824,000 9,275,000 86,412,000	(3) (3) 78,736,000 (3) (3)
Russia: Russia proper Northern Caucasia	3,186,000 834,000	3,119,000 930,000	3,666,000 ⁽³⁾	61,670,000 19,241,000	44,655,000 18,743,000	71,989,000 (³)
Total, Russia	4,020,000	4,049,000		80,911,000	63,398,000	
Berbia Spain	$(^3)$ 1,137,000	(³) 1, 152, 000	(3) (3)	20,000,000 30,325,000	$\frac{12,000,000}{29,096,000}$	(3) (3)
'Total		• • • • • • • • • • • • • •		622, 264, 000	593 , 555, 000	
ASIA. India: British Native States	6,079,000 (³)	6,073,000 (⁸)	(8) (8)	82,400,000 (³)	82,200,000 (³)	(³) (³)
Total				82,400,000	82,200,000	
lapan Philippine Islands	141,000 1,041,000	144,000 1,095,000	157,000 (³)	3,753,000 13,336,000	3 570,000 14 ,753,000	4,102,000
Total				99,489,000	100, 523, 000	
AFRICA.						
Algeria Sgypt Jnion of South Africa	$(3) \\ 1,763,000 \\ (3) $	(³) 1,907,000 (³)	(⁸) 1,850,000 (³)	350,000 78,253 000 5 30,830,000	9,350,000 39,803,000 30,750,000	(°) (3) 31, 168, 000
Total				109,433,000	70,903,000	

² No crop.

4 Galicia and Bukowina not included.

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TABLE 1.—Corn: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914-1916—Contd.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
AUSTRALASIA.						
Australia: Queensland	A cres. 157,000	A cres. 176,000	A cres. 146,000	Bushels 4,039,000	Bushels. 4,394,000	Bushels, 2,067,000
New South Wales 1 Victoria	157,000	(2) (2)	(2) (2)	4,593,000 826,000	(2)	(²)
Western Australia South Australia 4	(3) (3)	$\binom{2}{2}$ (2)	$\begin{pmatrix} -2\\ 2\\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$	1,000 3,000	(²) (²) (²)	$\binom{(2)}{(2)}$
Total, Australia New Zealand	$332,000 \\ 6,000$	340,000 5,000	7,000	9,462,000 312,000	8,721,000 284,000	8,769,000 350,000
Total, Australasia.	338,000	345,000		9,774,000	9,005,000	9, 119, 000
Grand total				3,877,913,000	4, 194, 586, 000	

¹ Includes Federal territory.
 ² No official statistics.

² Less than 500 acres. ⁴ Includes northern territory.

TABLE 2.-Corn: Total production of countries named in Table 1, 1895-1916.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899 1900	Bushels. 2, 834, 750, 000 2, 964, 435, 000 2, 537, 206, 000 2, 682, 619, 000 2, 724, 100, 000 2, 792, 561, 000	1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	Bushels. 2, 366, 883, 000 3, 187, 311, 000 3, 066, 506, 000 3, 109, 252, 000 3, 461, 181, 000	1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	Bushels. 3, 963, 645, 000 3, 420, 321, 000 3, 606, 931, 000 3, 563, 226, 000 4, 031, 630, 000	1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	Bushels. 3, 481, 007, 000 4, 371, 888, 000 3, 587, 429, 000 3, 877, 913, 000 4, 194, 586, 000

TABLE 3.—Corn: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849–1916.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

	Aver-		Aver- age						Domestic exports, including	Per cent of
Acreage.	yield per	Production.	price per	Dec. 1.	Dece	omber.			corn meal, fiscal	crop ex- port-
			Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.		ed.
	Bush.	Bushels.	Cents.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Bushels.	P.ct.
		<i>592,071,000</i> <i>838,793,000</i>							4, 248, 991	1.3 .5
34, 307, 000	25.3	867,946,000	47.4	411, 451, 000	53	62	64	79	16,026,947	1.8
32,520,000 34,887,000	23.6 26.0	768, 320, 000	57.0 46.8	437,770,000 424,057,000	38	58	44	51	8,286,665	1.6 .9 .2
37, 103, 000	23.6	874, 320, 000 760, 945, 000	59.8	522, 551, 000	56	67	73	85	2, 140, 487	.2
38,647,000	28.3	1,094,255,000	49.4	540, 520, 000	41	59	46	52	10, 673, 553	1.0
							38		35,727,010	3.6 3.7
39, 197, 000	23.8	932, 274, 000	44.2	411,961,000	40	49	49	59	35,985,834	3.9
41,037,000	20.7	850, 148, 000	58.4	496, 271, 000	04	76	53	07	30,025,030	3.5
44,841,000			36.7	484,675,000	40	47	41	45	50,910,532	3.9 5.7
									87, 192, 110	6.5
51, 585, 000	26.9	1,388,219,000	31.7	440, 281, 000	30	32	33	36	87, 884, 892	6.3
53,085,000			37.5	580, 486, 000	39	431	323	36 g	99, 572, 329	6.4
	A cres. 34, 307, 000 32, 520, 000 33, 587, 000 37, 103, 000 38, 647, 000 33, 697, 000 39, 197, 000 41, 037, 000 44, 841, 000 49, 033, 000 50, 368, 000 51, 585, 000	Acreage. group yield per acre. A cres. Bush. A cres. Bush. 34, 307, 000 25. 3 32, 520, 000 23. 6 34, 837, 000 26. 0 34, 887, 000 23. 6 34, 001, 000 29. 1 35, 527, 000 30. 8 39, 107, 000 29. 1 35, 527, 000 20. 7 41, 037, 000 29. 5 49, 033, 000 29. 5 50, 369, 000 26. 7 51, 585, 000 26. 9 53, 085, 000 26. 9	Acreage. age per acre. Production. Acres. Bush. Bushels. 592,071,000 535,793,000 34,307,000 25.3 867,946,900 34,307,000 25.3 867,946,900 34,307,000 25.3 867,946,900 34,857,000 23.6 768,320,000 37,103,000 23.6 784,320,000 35,527,000 30.8 1,094,255,000 39,197,000 23.1 1991,898,000 30,107,000 23.1 1,094,255,000 30,107,000 23.5 1,092,719,000 39,197,000 23.5 932,274,000 30,107,000 23.5 1,321,556,000 30,107,000 20.5 1,328,528,000 30,917,000 20.5 1,324,558,000 30,900 26.7 1,342,558,000 30,950,000 26.7 1,342,558,000 30,955,000 26.7 1,342,258,000 30,955,000 26.7 1,342,219,000	$ \begin{array}{c c} A \text{ ver}_{\substack{\text{age}\\\text{yield}\\\text{per}\\\text{acre.}}} & Production. \\ price \\ per \\ per \\ per \\ per \\ bushels. \\ \begin{array}{c} Bush. \\ Bushels. \\ 592,071,000 \\ 34,307,000 \\ 25.3 \\ 858,793,000 \\ 34,307,000 \\ 25.3 \\ 858,793,000 \\ 34,887,000 \\ 25.62,000 \\ 34,887,000 \\ 25.62,000 \\ 23.6 \\ 768,320,000 \\ 50.6 \\ 87,103,000 \\ 23.6 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 877,103,000 \\ 23.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 874,320,000 \\ 50.8 \\ 8932,274,000 \\ 44.2 \\ 41,037,000 \\ 20.5 \\ 1,321,000,000 \\ 36.7 \\ 49,033,000 \\ 26.2 \\ 1,323,585,000 \\ 50.9 \\ 1,342,558,000 \\ 31.7 \\ 530,950,000 \\ 29.2 \\ 1,547,902,000 \\ 31.7 \\ 530,950,000 \\ 29.2 \\ 1,547,902,000 \\ 37.6 \\ 547,902,000 \\ 37.6 \\ 574,902,000 \\ 37$	$ \begin{array}{c c} Acreage. & Aver- \\ age \\ gen \\ farm \\ acres. & Production. \\ per \\ acres. \\ bushel \\ cres. \\$	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $

No. 2 to 1908.

		Aver-		Aver- age farm	Form volue		ago cas ushel,			Domestic exports, including	Per cent of
Year.	Acreage.	yield per acre.	Production.	price per bushel	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.		owing y 1.	corn meal, fiscal year begin-	ex- port-
				Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	ning July 1.	ed.
1880 1881 1882 1883 1884	A cres. 62, 318,000 64, 262,000 65, 660,000 68, 302,000 69, 684,000	24.6 22.7	Bushels. 1, 717, 435,000 1, 194, 916,000 1, 617, 025,000 1, 551, 067,000 1, 795, 528,000	Cents. 39.6 63.6 48.5 42.4 35.7	Dollars. 679, 714, 000 759, 482, 000 783, 867, 000 658, 051, 000 640, 736, 000	Cts. 35 58 49 54 34 34	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 42 \\ 63\frac{1}{2} \\ 61 \\ 63\frac{1}{2} \\ 40\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	Cts. 411 69 531 521 441	Cts. 45 767 567 57 49	Bushels. 93,648,147 44,340,683 41,655,653 46,258,606 52,876,458	P. ct. 5. 5 3. 7 2. 6 3. 0 2. 9
1885 1886 1887 1888 1889 1889	73, 130, 000 75, 694, 000 72, 393, 000 75, 673, 000 78, 320, 000 72, 088, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 22.0\\ 20.1\\ 26.3\\ 27.0\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,936,176,000\\ 1,665,441,000\\ 1,456,161,000\\ 1,987,790,000\\ 2,112,892,000\\ 2,128,328,000 \end{array}$	32.8 36.6 44.4 34.1 28.3	635,675,000 610,311,000 646,107,000 677,562,000 597,919,000	36 353 47 333 291	423 38 51 1 35 1 35	341 367 54 331 323	363 393 60 353 35	64, 829, 617 41, 363, 584 25, 360, 869 70, 841, 673 103, 418, 709	3.3 2.2 1.7 3.6 4.9
1890 1891 1892 1893 1893	$\begin{array}{c} 71,971,000\\ 76,205,000\\ 70,627,000\\ 72,036,000\\ 62,582,000 \end{array}$	27.0 23.1 22.5 19.4	$\begin{array}{c} 1,489,970,000\\ 2,060,154,000\\ 1,628,464,000\\ 1,619,496,000\\ 1,212,770,000 \end{array}$	50.640.639.436.545.7	$\begin{array}{c} 754, 433, 000\\ 836, 439, 000\\ 642, 147, 000\\ 591, 626, 000\\ 554, 719, 000 \end{array}$	473 398 40 341 443	53 59 427 365 475	55 403 391 363 473	691 100 441 381 551	$\begin{array}{c} 32,041,529\\76,602,285\\47,121,894\\66,489,529\\28,585,405\end{array}$	2.2 3.7 2.9 4.1 2.4
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899 1899	82,076,000 81,927,000 80,095,000 77,722,000 82,109,000 94,914,000	28.2 23.8 24.8 25.3	2, 151, 139, 000 2, 283, 875, 000 1,902,968, 000 1,924, 185, 000 2,078, 144, 000 2,666, <i>324,000</i>	$25.3 \\ 21.5 \\ 26.3 \\ 28.7 \\ 30.3$	544,986,000 491,007,000 501,073,000 552,023,000 629,210,000	25 221 25 331 30	$26\frac{3}{23\frac{1}{2}}$ $27\frac{1}{2}$ 38 $31\frac{1}{2}$	273 23 323 324 324 36	$29\frac{1}{25\frac{1}{37}}$ 37 34 $\frac{3}{40\frac{1}{2}}$	$101, 100, 375 \\ 178, 817, 417 \\ 212, 055, 543 \\ 177, 255, 046 \\ 213, 123, 412 \\ \dots$	4. 7. 11. 9. 10.
1900 1901 1902 1903 1904	83,321,000 91,350,000 94,044,000 88,092,000 92,232,000	16.7 26.8 25.5	2,105,103,000 1,522,520,000 2,523,648,000 2,244,177,000 2,467,481,000	35.760.540.342.544.1	751,220,000 921,556,000 1,017,017,000 952,869,000 1,087,461,000	351 621 431 41 432	401 671 571 431 49	425 591 44 471 48	583 643 46 50 643	$181, 405, 473 \\ 28, 028, 638 \\ 76, 639, 261 \\ 58, 222, 061 \\ 90, 293, 483$	8.0 1.8 3.0 2.0 3.0
	94,011,000 96,738,000 99,931,000 101,788,000 108,771,000 98,383,000	30.3 25.9 26.2 25.5	2,707,994,000 2,927,416,000 2,592,320,000 2,668,651,000 2,772,376,000 2,552,190,000	60.6	1, 116, 697, 000 1, 166, 626, 000 1, 336, 901, 000 1, 616, 145, 000 1, 477, 222, 000	42 40 57 56 2 62 2	$50\frac{1}{46}$ $61\frac{1}{5}$ $62\frac{1}{5}$ 66	471 491 673 721	50 56 82 76	119,893,833 86,368,228 55,063,860 37,665,040 38,128,498	$ \begin{array}{c} 4.4 \\ 3.6 \\ 2.1 \\ 1.4 \\ 1.6 \\ 1.6 \\ \end{array} $
1910 ² . 1911 1912 1913	104,035,000 105,825,000 107,083,090 105,820,000 103,435,000	27.7 23.9 29.2 23.1	2,886,260,000 2,531,488,000 3,124,746,000 2,446,988,000 2,672,804,000	48.0 61.8 48.7 69.1	1,384,817,000 1,565,258,000 1,520,454,000 1,692,092,000 1,722,070,000	451 68 471 64 621	50 70 54 731 681	521 761 551 67 501	554 824 60 724 56	65, 614, 522 41, 797, 291 50, 780, 143 10, 725, 819 50, 668, 303	2.3 1.1 1.0
1915	106, 197 , 000 105, 954, 000	28.2	2,994,793,000 2,583,241,000	57.5	1,722,680,000 2,295,783,000	69 1 88	75 96	69	781	39,896,928	1.3

 TABLE 3.—Corn: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849– 1916—Continued.

¹ Coincident with "corner."

² Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 4.-Corn: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1915 and 1916.

State.	Thousands	of acres.	Productio sands of h		Total val Dec. 1 (thousa: dollars)	price nds of
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
Maine. New Hampshire. Vermont. Massachusetts. Rhode Island.	19 45	$16 \\ 22 \\ 47 \\ 48 \\ 12$	645 874 1,935 1,764 341	$656 \\ 990 \\ 2,250 \\ 2,304 \\ 516$	768 1,005 2,128 2,117 471	558 752 1, 895 1, 843 516
Connecticut. New York. New Jersey. Pennsylvania. Delaware.	540 270 1,450	65 605 285 1,520 210	2,709 16,200 10,800 56,550 6,970	3,250 24,200 10,830 58,520 6,615	3,251 17,820 10,800 54,854 6,203	2,762 18,876 8,122 40,964 4,101
Maryland. Virgunia. West Virginia North Carolina. South Carolina.	2.140	710 2, 125 800 2, 900 2, 130	27,300 60,990 22,112 53,650 32,008	24,850 60,562 25,200 60,900 35,145	24,297 56,721 22,333 59,015 36,169	15, 158 42, 999 18, 645 46, 893 30, 576

State.	Thousand	ls of acres.		ion (thou- bushels).	Total va Dec. 1 (thousa dollars	
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
Georgia Florida. Ohto Indiana Illinois.	4,000 840 3,675 5,137 10,400	4,330 800 3,700 5,025 10,400	62,000 12,600 115,762 174,658 306,800	64,950 12,000 153,550 190,950 374,400	62,000 11,340 104,186 146,713 257,712	50, 661 8, 760 85, 988 97, 384 202, 176
Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri.	$1,650 \\ 1,690 \\ 2,520 \\ 10,050 \\ 6,775$	$1,750 \\ 1,775 \\ 2,800 \\ 9,950 \\ 6,500$	45,375 60,840 84,420 366,825 132,112	56,000 40,825 64,400 298,500 191,750	43, 106 55, 973 67, 536 293, 460 118, 901	38,080 27,761 39,928 152,235 109,298
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky	510 2,950 7,400 6,950 3,400	$700 \\ 3,250 \\ 7,100 \\ 5,550 \\ 3,500$	13,51584,075192,40069,50095,200	9,800 94,250 213,000 172,050 105,000	11,35364,738150,07262,55082,824	$\begin{array}{r} 6,566\\ 46,182\\ 100,110\\ 87,746\\ 58,800 \end{array}$
Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana. Texas.	3,250 3,735 3,400 2,134 6,900	3,450 3,900 3,550 2,200 7,100	84,500 46,688 47,600 44,814 131,100	93.150 66,300 67,450 45,100 166,850	79,430 47,622 46,648 42,125 136,344	54,027 45,747 43,842 28,864 96,773
Oklahoma. Arkansas. Montana. Wyoming. Colorado.	3,950 2,550 74 25 475	3,800 2,700 70 35 470	53,325 45,135 1,850 550 7,362	112,10062,1001,96087511,280	49,592 44,232 1,720 495 6,626	51, 56 8 39, 744 1, 352 58 6 6, 204
New Mexico Arizona Utah Nevada	125 22 13 1	105 20 13 1	$2,625 \\ 770 \\ 429 \\ 34$	2,730 600 442 35	2,966 1,078 493 42	1,993 690 354 33
Idaho Washington Oregon California	21 38 40 64	22 39 33 64	$735 \\ 1,406 \\ 1,340 \\ 2,048$	$770 \\ 1,053 \\ 1,155 \\ 2,624$	7351,4061,2732,540	500 811 947 2,309
United States	105,954	106, 197	2,583,241	2,994,793	2,295,783	1,722,680

TABLE 4.—Corn: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1915 and 1916—Continued.

TABLE 5.—Corn: Production and distribution in the United States, 1897-1916.

[000 omitted.]

Year.	Old stock on farms Nov. 1.	Crop.	Total supplies.	Stock on farms Mar. 1 following.	Shipped out of county where grown.
1897	Bushels. 200, 934 137, 894 113, 644 92, 328 95, 825	$\begin{array}{c} Bushels.\\ 1,902,968\\ 1,924,185\\ 2,078,144\\ 2,105,103\\ 1,522,520\end{array}$	Bushels. 2, 193, 902 2, 062, 079 2, 191, 788 2, 197, 431 1, 618, 345	Bushcls. 782,871 800,533 773,730 776,166 441,132	Bushels. 411,617 396,005 348,098 478,417 153,213
1902 1903 1904 1905 1905 1906	29,267 131,210 80,246 82,285 119,633	2,523,648 2,244,177 2,467,481 2,707,994 2,927,416	2,552,915 2,375,387 2,547,727 2,790,279 3,047,049	1,050,653839,053954,2681,108,3641,297,979	557,296 419,877 551,635 681,539 679,544
1997 1908 1909 1910 1911	130,99571,12479,779115,696123,824	2,592,320 2,668,651 2,552,190 2,886,260 2,531,488	2,723,315 2,739,775 2,631,969 3,001,956 2,655,312	$962,429 \\1,047,763 \\977,561 \\1,165,378 \\884,069$	467, 675 568, 129 635, 248 661, 777 517, 704
1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	$\begin{array}{c} 64,764\\ 137,972\\ 80,046\\ 96,009\\ 87,908 \end{array}$	3,124,746 2,446,988 2,672,804 2,994,793 2,583,241	3,189,510 2,584,960 2,752,850 3,090,802 2,671,149	$\substack{1,289,655\\866,392\\910,894\\1,116,559}$	680, 796 422, 091 498, 285 560, 824

Statistics of Corn.

CORN-Continued.

TABLE 6.-Corn: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			Y	ield	per	acre	(bus	hels)).			Fa	arm j	price (cer		bush	el	per	alue acre lars).1
State.	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1907 .	1908	1909	1910	1101	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year average, 1911-1915.	1916
Me N. H Vt Mass R. I	42.0	35.0 36.0	39.0 40.3	35.1 37.0	45.0 43.0	45.0 41.0	46.0) 37.0) 37.0	46.0 47.0	45.0 46.0	$46.0 \\ 43.0$	81 80	75 75 72 77 88	87 81 81 85 99	88 82 81 85 98	80	119 115 110 120 138	35.60 34.66 33.66 36.63 39.91	51. 17 52. 90 47. 30 50. 40 42. 78
Conn. N. Y. N. J. Pa. Del.	44. 4 35. 7 36. 9 39. 1 32. 3	33.0 27.0 31.5 32.5 27.5	41.3 38.8 38.0 39.5 32.0	41. 0 36. 0 32. 7 32. 0 31. 0	53.2 38.3 36.0 41.0 31.8	48. 5 38. 5 36. 8 44. 5 34. 0	50. (38. (38. (42. 5 34. () 38, 5 28, 5 39, 5 39, 0 31, 5	46. 0 41. 0 38. 5 42. 5 36. 0	50.0 40.0 38.0 38.5 31.5	43. 0 30. 0 40. 0 39. 0 34. 0	84 79 73 71 60	77 70 68 63 51	85 81 75 72 59	89 83 76 73 62	85 78 75 70 62	$ \begin{array}{r} 110 \\ 100 \\ 97 \end{array} $	28.99 27.87 28.62	51.60 33.00 40.00 37.83 30.26
Md Va W. Va N. C S. C	35.3 25.1 30.0 18.6 17.0	34. 2 25. 0 28. 0 16. 5 15. 1	36.6 26.0 31.2 18.0 14.1	31.4 23.2 31.4 16.8 16.7	33.5 25.5 26.0 18.6 18.5	36.5 24.0 25.7 18.4 18.2	36. 5 24. (33. 8 18. 2 17. 9	33.0 26.0 31.0 19.5 19.5	37.0 20.5 31.0 20.3 18.5	35.0 28.5 31.5 21.0 16.5	39.0 28.5 30.5 18.5 15.5	64 74 77 84 91	55 71 65 83 85	65 76 80 88 97	68 81 83 86 92	61 71 74 77 87	93 101 110	18.23 23.12 16.20	34.71 26.50 30.80 20.35 17.52
Ga Fla Ohio Ind Ill													85 79 45 42 41	91 82 63 60 63	$85 \\ 80 \\ 61 \\ 58 \\ 61 \\ 61$	78 73 56 51 54	90 90	11.60 22.47	$15.50 \\ 13.50 \\ 28.35 \\ 28.56 \\ 24.78 $
Mich. Wis. Minn. Iowa. Mo	32. 6 34. 3 32. 3 34. 2 26. 4	30. 1 32. 0 27. 0 29. 5 31. 0	31. 8 33. 7 29. 0 31. 7 27. 0	35.4 33.0 34.8 31.5 26.4	32. 4 32. 5 32. 7 36. 3 33. 0	33. 0 36. 3 33. 7 31. 0 26. 0	34. (35. 7 34. 5 43. (32. (33.5 40.5 40.0 34.0 17.5	36.0 40.5 35.0 38.0 22.0	32. 0 23. 0 23. 0 30. 0 29. 5	27.5 36.0 33.5 36.5 19.5	$ \begin{array}{r} 65 \\ 62 \\ 54 \\ 51 \\ 60 \\ \end{array} $	57 51 37 35 46	$ \begin{array}{r} 67 \\ 60 \\ 53 \\ 60 \\ 74 \end{array} $	67 65 52 55 68	68 68 62 51 57	92 80 80	21.25 16.86 17.62	$\begin{array}{c} 26.12\\ 33.12\\ 26.80\\ 29.20\\ 17.55 \end{array}$
N. Dak. S. Dak. Nebr. Kans. Ky.	23.8 27.4 24.2 18.3 27.1	20.0 25.5 24.0 22.1 28.2	23. 8 29. 7 27. 0 22. 0 25. 2	31.0 31.7 24.8 19.9 29.0	14.0 25.0 25.8 19.0 29.0	$\begin{array}{c} 25.\ 0\\ 22.\ 0\\ 21.\ 0\\ 14.\ 5\\ 26.\ 0 \end{array}$	26. 7 30. 6 24. 0 23. 0 30. 4	28.8 25.5 15.0 3.2 20.5	28.026.024.518.525.0	14.0 29.0 30.0 31.0 30.0	$\begin{array}{c} 26.5 \\ 28.5 \\ 26.0 \\ 10.0 \\ 28.0 \end{array}$	60 51 51 58 63	43 37 37 40 55	52 56 65 78 76	58 50 53 63 64	67 49 47 51 56	77 78 90	12.89 11.45 9.66	22. 26 21. 94 20. 28 9. 00 24. 36
Tenn Ala Miss La Tex	17.8 20.3 19.9	17.0 17.5 21.0	17.3 19.8 25.7	14.5 23.0 15.0	20. 5 2 3. 6 20. 6	19.0 18.5 9.5	18.3 18.0 21.0	20.0 22.0 24.0	18.5 19.3 19.5	$ \begin{array}{r} 19.0 \\ 20.5 \\ 23.5 \end{array} $	14.0 21.0 19.0	76 71 72	61 79 71 68 64	77 89 77 77 82	68 80 73 75 74	58 69 65 64 58	$ \begin{array}{r} 102 \\ 98 \\ 94 \end{array} $	13.67 13.58 13.95	24. 44 12. 75 13. 72 19. 74 19. 76
Okla. Ark Mont. Wyo. Colo.	$17.4 \\ 19.8 \\ 26.8 \\ 23.0 \\ 20.0 \\$	24.4 17.2 22.5 25.0 2 3. 5	24.8 20.2 23.4 28.0 20.2	$17.0 \\ 18.0 \\ 35.0 \\ 28.0 \\ 24.2$	$16.0 \\ 24.0 \\ 23.0 \\ 10.0 \\ 19.9 \\$	6.5 20.8 26.5 15.0 14.0	18. 7 20. 4 25. 5 23. 0 20. 8	11.0 19.0 31.5 29.0 15.0	12.517.528.025.023.0	29.5 23.0 28.0 25.0 24.0	13.517.725.022.015.5	59 72 80 74 67	$\begin{array}{r} 41 \\ 67 \\ 70 \\ 64 \\ 50 \end{array}$	72 78 77 80 73	64 80 76 70 60	46 64 69 67 55	98 93 90	14.44 20.78 16.71	12.56 17.35 23.25 19.80 13.95
N. Mex. Ariz. Utah. Nev.	31.8 32.8	25.5	29.4 	31.4	30. 3 30. 0	35.0 30.5	30.0 30.0	34.0 34.0	35.0 36.0	34.0 35.0	33.0 34.0	81 103	75 100 75 98	70 118	80 120 75 110	73 115 80 93	140 115 125	33. 74 25. 62 33. 82	23. 73 49. 00 37. 95 42. 50
Ïdaho Wash Oreg Cal	28.3 29.8 35.3	27.0 27.5 34.0	25.5 27.8 32.0	27.8 30.7 34.8	28.0 25.5 37.5	28.5 28.5 36.0	27.3 31.5 37.0	28.0 28.5 33.0	27.0 30.0 36.0	27.0 35.0 41.0	37.0 33.5 32.0		70 77 75 85	68 80 70 88	72 73 82 87		100 95 124	21. 29 23. 93 32. 06	35.00 37.00 31.82 39.68
U.S	26.0	25.9	26.2	25.5	27.7	23.9	29.2	23.1	25.8	28.2	24.4	61.0	48.7	69 . 1	64.4	57.5	88. 9	15. 57	21.67

Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

TABLE 7.-Corn: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1916.

	New	York.	Balti	more.	Cinci	nnati.	Chie	cago.	Det	roit.	St. I	ouis.		Fran-
Date.		0. 2 low.	Mi	xed.		0.2 xed.	Cont	tract.	No	. 3.	No	o. 2.	Whit	e (per lbs.).
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cts. 671 541	Cts. 87 1 84	Cts. 67 52	Cts. 85 87	Cts. 64 47	Cts. 87 84	Cts. 631 471	Cts. 821 83	$Cts. 62\frac{1}{2}$ 48	Cts. 831 811	Cts. 63 45	Cts. 85 801/2	Cts. 155 150	Cts. 197 <u>1</u> 195
1913. JanJune July-Dec	57 1 67	711 871	52] 64	65] 68	48 63]	65 81	46] 60	63 78‡	48 603	62 78 1	45 613	64 82	145 151 1	155 187
1914. JanJune July-Dec	60 71妻	821 933	66 1 671	77 89	64 63 1	75 881	60 62 1	73 1 86	$62 \\ 63\frac{1}{2}$	74 88	63 623	73] 87	$161 \\ 167 \frac{1}{2}$	178 193
1915. January February April. May June	771 801 82 831 821 821 821 781	861 888 897 901 884 864	74 72 73 75 1 76 <u>1</u> 76 <u>1</u>	813 835 775 843 832 81	70 70 71 75 77 74	78] 81 77 81 80 79]	683 683 70 72 503 711	77 78 75 79 56 76 ¹ / ₂	$70 \\ 70\frac{1}{2} \\ 70\frac{1}{2} \\ 74 \\ 75\frac{1}{2} \\ 73 \\ 73 \\ 73 \\ 70 \\ 70 \\ 70 \\ 70 \\ 70$	77 5 79 75 80 80 78 1	69 681 70 741 731 712	77 78 751 781 781 771 8 76	182½ 182½ 185 178 176 172	185 190 187 <u>1</u> 187 <u>1</u> 187 180 177
JanJune.	$77\frac{1}{2}$	90 1	72	843	70	81	50 <u>1</u>	79	70	80	68 <u>1</u>	78 1	172	190
July August September October November December	86 ¹ / ₂ 86 75 72 ³ / ₇ 74 ¹ / ₂ 80	923 923 888 781 802 852	79 86 671 70§	87 86 71 78	77771676316262641641	84 82 79 69 69 69	753 751 651 593 615 695	82 821 78 67 681 75	$78 \\ 82 \\ 71 \\ 65 \\ 64 \\ 66 \frac{1}{2}$	83 3 84 81 3 69 69 3 75	737 722 681 583 60 65	805 81 78 66 65 755	$173 \\ 174 \\ 174 \\ 146 \\ 153 \\ 162$	177 178 175 167 164 180
July-Dec	723	923	67 1	87	62	84	593	821	64	84	583	81	146	180
1916. January February March April. May June	851 831 801 85 795 85 795	891 881 861 913 923 887	70 743 753 801 738 738 758	821 801 81 821 821 823 843	70 3 71 72 3 76 75 <u>3</u> 72 <u>3</u>	77 1 78 76 <u>1</u> 79 78 78 <u>1</u> 78 <u>1</u>	723 713 70 743 69 691	79 <u>1</u> 79 <u>1</u> 77 79 78 <u>1</u> 78 <u>1</u>	721 72 72 76 711 721 721	78 771 76 79 79 79 791	70 711 71 731 691 70	77 77 74 <u>1</u> 76 76 <u>1</u> 76 <u>1</u>	170 172 170 170 170 176 170	175 172 172 180 180 180 177
JanJune.	79 1	923	70	847	701	79	69	791	$71\frac{1}{2}$	79]	693	77	170	180
July August September October November December	883 927 961 983 104 1021	933 1001 1013 120 1191 1083	851 881 92 92 92 105 95	90 94 95 107 105 104	79 83 86½ 88 97 85	833 89 883 103 107 91	78 82 843 881 90 88	841 881 90 111 110 96	79 <u>1</u> 84 <u>1</u> 88 91 98 94 <u>1</u>	85 91 92 115 117 102	753 803 833 863 91 883	821 871 89 111 1071 941	175 188 196 196 215 205	190 205 205 215 245 245
July-Dec.	883	120	851	107	79	107	78	111	79 <u>1</u>	117	75 1	111	175	245

TABLE 8.—Corn: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1896-1916.

Year. July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
1896 92.4	96.0	P. ct. 91.0	90.5	1903	79.4	78.7	80.1	P. ct. 80. 8	1910	85.4	79.3	P. ct. 78.2	80.3
1897 \$2.9 1898 90.5 1899 86.5 1900 89.5	84.2 87.0 89.9 87.5	$\begin{array}{c} 79.3 \\ 84.1 \\ 85.2 \\ 80.6 \end{array}$	77.1 82.0 82.7 78 2	1905 1906	87.3 87.5	87.3 89.0 88.0 82.8	84.6 89.5 90.2 80.2	83. 9 89. 2 90. 1 78. 0	1911 1912 1913 1914	80.1 81.5 86.9 85.8	69.6 80.0 75.8 74.8		70.4 82.2 65.3 72.9
1901 81.3 1902 87.5	54.0 86.5	51.7 84.3	$52.1 \\ 79.6$	1908 1909		82.5 84.4	79.4 74.6	77.8 73.8	1915 1916	81. 2 82. 0	79.5 75.3		79.7 71.5

Month.	Uni Sta	ited tes.	No Atla Sta	ntic		ath Intic tes.	State	entral s east ss. R.	N. Ce States of Mis	west	Sou Cen Sta	tral	Far ern S	
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
January February March April May June	Cts. 62.1 66.7 68.2 70.3 72.3 74.1	Cts. 66.2 72.8 75.1 75.1 77.7 77.9	Cts. 76.5 79.5 81.6 82.6 83.0 84.1	$\begin{array}{c} \textit{Cts.} \\ \textbf{76.6} \\ \textbf{81.2} \\ \textbf{84.6} \\ \textbf{84.5} \\ \textbf{85.3} \\ \textbf{85.8} \end{array}$	Cts. 77.3 81.8 85.4 87.3 89.1 92.1	Cts. 81.5 85.8 92.4 92.2 94.3 95.8	$\begin{array}{c} Cts . \\ 62. 2 \\ 66. 6 \\ 66. 4 \\ 66. 9 \\ 70. 2 \\ 70. 6 \end{array}$	Cts. 63.3 69.9 70.1 70.3 73.7 73.5	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 56.2 \\ 61.1 \\ 60.2 \\ 63.1 \\ 65.3 \\ 66.6 \end{array}$	Cts. 58.5 67.1 67.0 66.1 68.8 68.6	Cts. 62.1 66.9 72.4 75.8 76.2 79.9	Cts. 75.1 79.4 86.9 88.2 90.0 91.0	Cts. 70.2 71.5 78.7 75.9 79.3 77.0	Cts. 74. 78. 82. 87. 82. 82. 82.
July August September October November December	75.4 79.4 83.6 82.3 85.0 88.9	77.778.977.370.561.957.5	84.3 87.4 93.8 94.3 97.2 101.5	$\begin{array}{r} 84.8\\ 86.9\\ 87.6\\ 84.5\\ 76.5\\ 73.7 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 92.7\\ 95.0\\ 98.4\\ 96.9\\ 95.0\\ 100.2 \end{array}$	96.4 96.8 95.5 89.2 79.4 75.0	71.6 76.8 81.7 81.5 82.8 86.4	$\begin{array}{c} 73.2\\ 76.0\\ 75.3\\ 70.3\\ 61.7\\ 55.3 \end{array}$	68.7 73.3 77.9 76.9 81.6 81.5	$\begin{array}{c} 68.8 \\ 71.5 \\ 70.9 \\ 64.9 \\ 57.8 \\ 51.9 \end{array}$	81.0 83.6 86.4 83.4 86.6 96.4	90.3 86.5 81.8 69.6 58.9 58.4	79.3 85.4 88.7 87.2 88.7 101.2	77. 80. 75. 71. 65. 67.
Average	74.3	71.5	86.9	82.4	91.1	89.1	71.1	69.1	67.4	64.3	80.0	74.9	80.9	76.

 TABLE 9.—Corn: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1915 and 1916.

TABLE 10.—Corn (including meal): International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[The item maicena or maizena is included as "Corn and corn meal."]

GENERAL NOTE.—Substantially the international trade of the world. It should not be expected that the world export and import totals for any year will agree. Among sources of disagreement are these: (1) Different periods of time covered in the "year" of the various countries; (2) imports received in year subsequent to year of export; (3) want of uniformity in classification of goods among countries; (4) different practices and varying degrees of failure in recording countries of origin and ultimate destination; (5) different practices of recording reexported goods; (6) opposite methods of treating free ports; (7) clerical errors, which, it may be assumed, are not infrequent.

ent practices and varying degrees of failure in recording countries of orgin and ultimate destination; (5) different practices of recording reexported goods; (6) opposite methods of treating free ports; (7) clerical errors, which, it may be assumed, are not infrequent. The exports given are domestic exports, and the imports given are imports for consumption as far as it is feasible and consistent so to express the facts. While there are some inevitable omissions, on the other hand there are some duplications because of reshipments that do not appear as such in official reports. For the United Kingdom, import figures refer to imports for consumption, when available, otherwise total imports, less exports, of "foreign and colonial merchandise." Figures for the United States include Alaska, Porto Rico, and Hawaii.

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).
Argentina. Austria-Hungary Belgium British South Africa Bulgaria Netherlands. Roumania	Bushels. 189, 240 30 6, 134 741 11, 362 11, 846 38, 363	Bushels. 139,461 4,778 4,345 41,804	Bushels. 170, 490 6, 860 804	Russia United States Uruguay Other countries Total	Bushels. 22,900 46,923 3 7,225 334,767	Bushels. 11,275 17,022 3 6,713 225,401	Bushels. 26 50,337

IMPORTS.

			 1			
Austria-Hungary Belgium British Bouth Africa Canada Cuba Denmark Egypt France Germany Italy Mexico	25,036 818 9,041 3,198 15,938 1,184 23,279	6 8,347 2,890 10,346 687 16,331 331	 Netherlands Norway. Portugal. Spain. Synden. Sweden. Switzerland United Kingdom Other countries Total	39,467 1,149 4,114 662 22,403 2,395 4,785 97,721 9,422 337,815	25,674 1,672 3,105 576 7,960 2,195 3,068 75,499 24,368 183,055	43,308 1,764 8,13- 8,293 4,461 92,226
		1	1			

WHEAT.

TABLE 11.—Wheat: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

		Area.		Production.				
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916		
NORTH AMEBICA. United States	A cres. 53, 541, 000	A cres. 60, 469, 000	A cres. 52, 785, 000	Bushels. 891,017,000	Bushels. 1,025,801,000	Bushcls. 639, 886, 000		
Canada: New Brunswick Manitoba Saskatehewan Alberta. Other	13,000 834,000 2,616,000 5,348,000 1,371,000 111,000	14,000 1,093,000 3,343,000 6,838,000 1,564,000 134,000	14,000 872,000 2,342,000 5,252,000 1,474,000 131,000	234,000 17,658,000 33,605,000 73,494,000 28,859,000 2,430,000	267,000 30,252,000 96,425,000 195,168,000 51,355,000 2,837,000			
Total Canada	10, 293, 000	12,986,000	10,085,000	161, 280, 000	376, 304, 000	220, 367, 000		
Mexico	1, 478, 000	(1)	(1)	4,389,000	4,000,000	(1)		
Total				1,056,686,000	1,406,105,000			
SOUTH AMERICA.								
Argentina. Chile Uruguay.	$16,243,000 \\1,018,000 \\911,000$	$15,471,000 \\ 1,278,000 \\ 783,000$	$16,420,000 \\ (1) \\ 950,000$	$113,904,000\\16,403,000\\5,887,000$	$\begin{array}{c} 168, 468, 000 \\ 19, 002, 000 \\ 3, 596, 000 \end{array}$	172, 620, 000 21, 145, 000 8, 167, 000		
Total	18, 172, 000	17, 532, 000		136, 194, 000	191,066,000	201, 932, 000		
EUROPE. Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary proper Croatia-Slavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina.	2^{2} 1, 660, 000 8, 016, 000 741, 000 (1)	(1) 8, 288, 000 (1) (1)	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \end{pmatrix}$	² 38, 024, 000 105, 237, 000 7, 716, 000 2, 500, 000	238,000,000 152,934,000 15,000,000 3,000,000	(1) (1) (1) (1)		
Total Austria- Hungary				153, 477, 000	208, 934, 000			
Belgium Bulgaria Denmark. Finland France. Germany. Greece. Italy. Montenegro. Notherlands. Norway. Portugal. Rournania.	400,000 2,638,000 (1) 14,975,000 4,932,000 (1) 11,783,000 (1) 148,000 (1) (1) 5,218,000	$(1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 164,000 \\ (1) \\ 13,564,000 \\ (1) \\ 12,502,000 \\ (1) \\ 12,502,000 \\ (1) \\ 160,000 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 4,705,000 \\ (1) \\$	(1) (1) 152,000 (1) 12,855,000 (1) 11,675,000 (1) 136,000 (1) 14,000 (1) 4,843,000	$\begin{array}{c} 13,973,000\\ 25,979,000\\ 5,785,000\\ 130,000\\ 282,689,000\\ 145,944,000\\ 7,000,000\\ 169,581,000\\ 200,000\\ 5,779,000\\ 239,000\\ 10,000,000\\ 10,000,000\\ 49,270,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 8,000,000\\ 46,212,000\\ 7,979,000\\ 130,000\\ 225,132,000\\ 6,000,000\\ 170,541,000\\ 200,000\\ 6,143,000\\ 269,000\\ 6,571,000\\ 89,241,000\\ \end{array}$	$(1) \\ 3S, 241, 000 \\ 6, 040, 000 \\ (1) \\ 213, 214, 000 \\ (1) \\ 176, 529, 000 \\ (1) \\ 4, 034, 000 \\ 305, 000 \\ 7, 343, 000 \\ 7, 343, 000 \\ 7, 3520, 000 \\ 78, 520, 000 \\ (1) $		
Russia: Russia proper Poland 4 Northern Caucasia	50, 986, 000 343, 000 10, 597, 000	49,052,000 (1) 10,031,000	48, 525, 000 (1) (1)	463, 748, 000 5, 883, 000 109, 636, 000	525, 450, 000 (¹) 5 127, 756, 000	595, 419, 000 (¹) (¹)		
Total Russia, Eu- ropean	61, 926, 000	59,083,000		579, 267, 000	653, 206, 000			
Berbia Bpain Bweden Switzerland	(¹) 9,681,000 269.000 113,000	(1) 10,037,000 (1) 111,000	$\begin{array}{c} (1) \\ 10,070,000 \\ (1) \\ 124,000 \end{array}$	9,000,000 116,059,000 8,472,000 3,277,000	10,000,000 139,298,000 9,170,000 3,957,000	(1) 152, 329, 000 (1) 3, 821, 000		
United Kingdom: England Wales. Scotland. Ireland.	1, 770, 000 37, 009 61, 000 37, 000	2, 122, 000 49, 000 77, 000 87, 000	$1,862,000 \\ 50,000 \\ 63,000 \\ 76,000$	$59, 217, 000 \\1, 0.82, 000 \\2, 642, 000 \\1, 415, 000$	68, 437, 000 1, 415, 000 3, 053, 000 3, 238, 000	55, 825, 000 1, 383, 000 2, 336, 000 2, 827, 000		
Total United Kingdom	1,905,000	2,335,000	2,051,000	64,356,000	76, 143, 000	62,371,000		

No official statistics.
 Galicia and Bukowina not included in 1914 and 1915.
 Includes 1 government of Transcaucasia.
 Census of 1910.

WHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 11Wheat: Area and	production in un	ndermentioned	countries,	1914–1916–Con.
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		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
ASIA. India: British 1 Native States	A cres. 28, 475, 000 (²)	A cres. 32,475,000 (²)	A cres. 30, 143, 000 (²)	Bushels. 312,032,000 (²)	Bushels. 376, 731, 000 (²)	Bushels. 318,005,000 (²)
Total				312,032,000	376, 731, 000	318,005,000
Cyprus	(2)	(2)	(2)	2,500,000	2,000,000	(2)
Japanese Empire: Japan Formosa	1,174,000 16,000	1,250,000 (²)	1,280,000 (²)	22,975,000 195,000	25, 798, 000 200, 000	24, 444, 00 0 (²)
Total	1,190,000			23, 170, 000	25,998,000	
Persia	(2)	(2)	(2)	14,000,000	16,000,000	(2)
Russia: Central Asia (4 gov- ernments of) Siberia (4 govern- ments of) Transcauceasia (1 government)	5,501,000 7,931,000 11,000	6, 518, 000 7, 727, 000 (³)	(²) (²) (²)	68, 448, 000 104, 038, 000 82, 000	58,025,000 50,321,000 (³)	(2) (2) (2)
Total	13,443,000	14,245,000		172, 568, 000	108,346,000	
Turkey (Asia Minor only)	(2)	(2)	(2)	35,000,000	35,000,000	(2)
Total				559, 270, 000	564,075,000	
AFRICA.						
Algeria Egypt Tunis Union of South Africa	3,368,000, 1,301,000 1,010,000 (²)	3,209,000 1,582,000 1,112,000 (²)	(2) 1,447,000 1,482,000 557,000	30,000,000 32,831,000 2,205,000 4 6,034,000	34,654,000 39,148,000 11,023,000 7,076,000	(2) 36, 543, 000 7, 165, 000 4, 857, 000
Total				71,070,000	91,901,000	
AUSTRALASIA.						
Australia: Queensland New South Wales Victoria. South Australia Western Australia. Tasmania.	$132,000 \\ 3,205,000 \\ 2,566,000 \\ 2,268,000 \\ 1,097,000 \\ 18,000$	$\begin{array}{c} 127,000\\ 2,758,000\\ 2,864,000\\ 2,502,000\\ 1,376,009\\ 24,000\end{array}$	94,000 4,235,000 3,680,000 2,739,000 1,733,000 49,000	$\begin{array}{c} 1,825,000\\ 39,219,000\\ 33,974,000\\ 17,470,000\\ 13,751,000\\ 361,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1, 635, 000\\ 13, 235, 000\\ 4, 065, 000\\ 3, 639, 000\\ 2, 707, 000\\ 396, 000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 427,000\\ 69,445,000\\ 60,366,000\\ 35,210,000\\ 18,811,000\\ 1,025,000\end{array}$
Total Australia New Zealand	9,286,000 167;000	9,651,000 230,000	12, 530, 000 328, 000	106, 600, 000 5, 559, 000	25 , 677, 000 6, 854, 000	185, 284, 000 7, 294, 000
Total Australasia	9,453,000	9,881,000	12,858,000	112, 159, 000	32, 531, 000	192,579,000
Grand total				3, 585, 916, 000	4,094,480,000	

¹ Including certain Feudatory States. ² No official statistics. ⁸ Included in Northern Caucasia. ⁴ Yield of 1911 census.

TABLE 12.-Wheat: Total production of countries named in Table 11, 1891-1916.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year. Production.
1891 1892 1893 1894 1895 1896 1897	Bushels. 2, 432, 322, 000 2, 481, 805, 000 2, 559, 174, 000 2, 560, 557, 000 2, 506, 320, 000 2, 236, 208, 000	1898 1899 1900 1901 1902 1903 1904	Bushels. 2, 948, 305, 000 2, 783, 885, 000 2, 610, 751, 000 2, 955, 975, 000 3, 900, 116, 000 3, 189, 813, 000 3, 163, 542, 000	1905 1906 1907 1908 1909 1910 1911	Bushels. 3, 327, 084, 000 3, 434, 354, 000 3, 133, 965, 000 3, 182, 105, 000 3, 581, 519, 000 3, 575, 055, 000 3, 551, 795, 000	Bushels. 1912 3, 791, 951, 900 1913 4, 127, 437, 900 1914 3, 585, 910, 000 1915 4, 094, 480, 000

WHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 13.—Wheat: Average yield per acre in undermentioned countries, 1890-1915.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euro- pean). ¹	Ger- many.1	Austria.1	Hungary proper. ¹	France. ²	United King- dom. ²
Average:	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
1890–1899 1900–1909	$13.2 \\ 14.1$	8.9 9.7	$ 24.5 \\ 28.9 $	$16.2 \\ 18.0$	17.5	18.6 20.5	31. 2 33. 1
906	15.5 14.0	7.7	30.3 29.6	20.3 18.0	22.5 14.9	20.2 23.2	34.8 35.1
907	14.0	8.8 12.5	29. 7 30. 5	21.0 19.9	17.5	19.6 22.0	33.
910 911	13.9 12.5	11.2 7.0	29.6 30.6	19.2 19.6	19.8 20.9	15.9 19.8	31.
912. 913.	$15.9 \\ 15.2$	10.3 13.5	33.6 35.1	22.3 19.9	19.8 19.6	21.0 19.9	30. 32.
914 915	16.6 17.0	9.4	29.6 28.6	\$ 22.4	13.1	18.9 16.6	* 33. 32.
Average (1906-1915)	15.0						33.

¹ Bushels of 60 pounds. ² Winchester bushels.

³ Galicia and Bukowina not included.

TABLE 14.—Wheat: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1916.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

			*								
	Vour Acreage			Aver- age farm Form volue -		bus		h pric		Domestic exports, in- cluding	Per cent
Year.	Acreage harvested.	age yield per acre.	per Production.		Farm value Dec. 1.	December.		Follo Ma		flour, fiscal year beginning July 1.	crop ex- port ed.
				Dec. 1.		Low.	fligh.	Low.	High.	July 1.	eu.
1849 1859	A cres.	Bush .	Bushels. 100,486,000 173,105,000	Cents.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Bushels. 7,535,901 17,213,133	P. ct. 7. 5 9. 9
1866 1867 1868 1869 <i>1869</i>	18,322,000	$9.9 \\ 11.6 \\ 12.1 \\ 13.6$	$\begin{array}{c} 152,000,000\\ 212,441,000\\ 224,037,000\\ 260,147,000\\ 287,746,000 \end{array}$	$152.7 \\ 145.2 \\ 108.5 \\ 76.5$	232, 110, 000 308, 387, 000 243, 033, 000 199, 025, 000	129 126 80 63	$ \begin{array}{r} 145 \\ 140 \\ 88 \\ 76 \\ \end{array} $	185 134 87 79	211 161 96 92	$12,646,941 \\ 26,323,014 \\ 29,717,201 \\ 53,900,780$	8.3 12.4 13.3 20.7
1870 1871 1872 1873 1874	18,993,000 19,944,000 20,858,000 22,172,000 24,967,000	$12.4 \\ 11.6 \\ 12.0 \\ 12.7 \\ 12.3$	$\begin{array}{c} 235,885,000\\ 230,722,000\\ 249,997,000\\ 281,255,000\\ 308,103,000 \end{array}$	$94.4 \\ 114.5 \\ 111.4 \\ 106.9 \\ 86.3$	222, 767, 000 264, 076, 000 278, 522, 000 300, 670, 000 265, 881, 000	91 107 97 96 78	98 111 108 106 83	$113 \\ 120 \\ 112 \\ 105 \\ 78$	120 143 122 114 94	52, 574, 111 38, 995, 755 52, 014, 715 91, 510, 398 72, 912, 817	$\begin{array}{c} 22.3 \\ 16.9 \\ 20.8 \\ 32.5 \\ 23.7 \end{array}$
1875 1876 1877 1878 1879	$\begin{array}{c} 26,382,000\\ 27,627,000\\ 26,278,000\\ 32,109,000\\ 32,546,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11.1\\ 10.5\\ 13.9\\ 13.1\\ 13.8 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 292, 136, 000\\ 289, 356, 000\\ 364, 194, 000\\ 420, 122, 000\\ 448, 757, 000 \end{array}$	89.5 97.0 105.7 77.6 110.8	$\begin{array}{c} 261, 397, 000\\ 280, 743, 000\\ 385, 089, 000\\ 325, 814, 000\\ 497, 030, 000 \end{array}$	$82 \\ 104 \\ 103 \\ 81 \\ 122$	$91 \\ 117 \\ 108 \\ 84 \\ 133\frac{1}{2}$	89 130 98 91 112]	100 172 113 102 119	74, 750, 682 57, 043, 936 92, 141, 626 150, 502, 506 180, 304, 181	25. 6 19. 7 25. 3 35. 8 40. 2
1879 1880 1881 1882 1883	37,987,000 37,709,000 21,047,600	$\begin{array}{c} 13.0\\ 13.1\\ 10.2\\ 13.6\\ 11.6\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 459, 483, 000\\ 498, 550, 000\\ 383, 280, 000\\ 504, 185, 000\\ 421, 086, 000 \end{array}$	95. 1 119. 2 88. 4 91. 1	474, 202, 000 456, 880, 000 415, 602, 000 383, 649, 000	93 <u>1</u> 1244 911 949	1093 129 943 991	$101 \\ 123 \\ 108 \\ 85 $	$112 \$ 140 \\ 113 \$ \\ 94 \$$	186, 321, 514 121, 592, 389 147, 811, 316 111, 534, 182	37.4 31.8 29.3 26.5
1834 1885 1856 1857 1888	39, 476, 000 34, 189, 000 35, 542, 000 37, 542, 000 37, 336, 000	$ \begin{array}{c} 13.0\\ 10.4\\ 12.4\\ 12.1\\ 11.1 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 512,765,000\\ 357,112,000\\ 157,218,000\\ 455,329,000\\ 415,868,000 \end{array}$	64.5 77.1 68.7 68.1 92.6	$\begin{array}{c} 330,862,000\\ 275,320,000\\ 314,226,000\\ 310,613,000\\ 385,248,000 \end{array}$	691 8278 755 755 968	763 89 795 795 1055	853 725 803 811 771	903 79 883 893 953	$\begin{array}{c} 132,570,366\\94,565,793\\153,804,969\\119,625,344\\88,600,743\end{array}$	25, 9 26, 5 33, 6 26, 2 21, 3
1889 1889	38, 124, 000	12.9 13.9	490, 560, 000	69, 8	342, 492, 000	762	80 <u>1</u>	893	100	109, 430, 467	22, 3
1890 1891	36,087,000	15,9 11,1 15,3 13,1	468, 574, 000 399, 262, 000 611, 781, 000 515, 947, 000	83, 8 83, 9 62, 4	334,774,000 513,473,000 322,112,000	87 <u>1</u> 89 3 69 <u>3</u>	923 931 73	987 80 681	1081 853 761	106, 181, 316 225, 665, 811 191, 912, 635	26.6 36.9 37.2

Statistics of Wheat.

WHEAT-Continued.

		Aver-	Aver- age		bus	ago cas shel, N ing.			Domestic exports, in- cluding	Per cent of	
Year.	Acreage harvested.	yield per acre.	Production.	farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.	December.		Following May.		flour, fiscal year beginning July 1.	crop ex- port ed.
						Low.	High.	Low.	High.		
1893 1894 1895 1896 1897	A cres. 34, 629, 000 34, 882, 000 34, 047, 000 34, 619, 000 39, 465, 000	Bush. 11.4 13.2 13.7 12.4 13.4	Bushels. 396, 132, 000 460, 267, 000 467, 103, 000 427, 684, 000 530, 149, 000	Cents. 53. 8 49. 1 50. 9 72. 6 80. 8	Dollars. 213, 171, 000 225, 902, 000 237, 939, 000 310, 598, 000 428, 547, 000	Cts. 591 521 531 749 92	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 64\frac{1}{2} \\ 638 \\ 64\frac{3}{4} \\ 93\frac{1}{3} \\ 109 \end{array}$	Cts. 521 603 571 683 117	Cts. 601 853 679 977 185	Bushels. 164, 283, 129 144, 812, 718 126, 443, 968 145, 124, 972 217, 306, 005	$\begin{array}{c} P. ct. \\ 41.5 \\ 31.5 \\ 27.1 \\ 33.9 \\ 41.0 \end{array}$
1898 1899 <i>1899</i> 1900 1901	44,055,000 44,593,000 52,589,000 42,495,000 49,896,000	$15.3 \\ 12.3 \\ 12.5 \\ 12.3 \\ 15.0 $	$\begin{array}{c} 675, 149, 000\\ 547, 304, 000\\ 658, 534, 000\\ 522, 230, 000\\ 748, 460, 000 \end{array}$	58. 2 58. 4 61. 9 62. 4	392, 770, 000 319, 545, 000 323, 515, 000 467, 360, 000	621 64 691 73	70 691 741 791	683 635 70 723	79 <u>1</u> 67 <u>1</u> 75 1 76 <u>1</u>	222, 618, 420 186, 096, 762 215, 990, 073 234, 772, 516	33.0 34.0 41.4 31.4
1902 1903 1904 1905 1906	46, 202, 000 49, 465, 000 44, 075, 000 47, 854, 000 47, 306, 000	$14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 12.5 \\ 14.5 \\ 15.5$	670, 063, 000 637, 822, 000 552, 400, 000 692, 979, 000 735, 261, 000	63. 0 69. 5 92. 4 74. 8 66. 7	$\begin{array}{c} 422, 224, 000\\ 443, 025, 000\\ 510, 490, 000\\ 518, 373, 000\\ 490, 333, 000 \end{array}$	717 773 115 825	77 3 87 122 90	743 873 895 805 84	809 1015 1135 875 106	202, 905, 598 120, 727, 613 44, 112, 910 97, 609, 007 146, 700, 425	30. 3 18. 9 8. 0 14. 1 20. 6
1907 1908 1909 <i>1909</i> 1910 ¹ .	45, 211, 000 47, 557, 000 46, 723, 000 44, 262, 000 45, 681, 000	$14.0 \\ 14.0 \\ 15.8 \\ 15.4 \\ 13.9$	$\begin{array}{c} 634,037,000\\ 664,602,000\\ 737,189,000\\ 683,379,000\\ 635,121,000 \end{array}$	87.4 92.8 98.6 88.3	554, 437, 000 616, 826, 000 668, 680, 000 561, 051, 000	106 106 104	112 1193 110	126 1 100 98	137 119 1 106	163,043,669 114,268,468 87,364,318 69,311,760	25.7 17.2 12.8 10.9
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	$\begin{array}{c} 49,543,000\\ 45,814,000\\ 50,184,000\\ 53,541,000\\ 60,469,000\\ 52,785,000 \end{array}$	12.5 15.9 15.2 16.6 17.0 12.1	$\begin{array}{c} 621, 338, 000\\ 730, 267, 000\\ 763, 380, 000\\ 891, 017, 000\\ 1, 025, 801, 000\\ 639, 886, 000 \end{array}$	87.4 76.0 79.9 98.6 91.9 160.3	543,063,000 555,280,000 610,122,000 878,680,000 942,303,000 1,025,765,000	105 85 89 ¹ / ₂ 115 106 155 ¹ / ₂	110 90 1 93 131 1281 190	115 903 96 141 116	122 96 100 164 126	79, 689, 404 142, 879, 596 145, 590, 349 332, 464, 975 243, 117, 026	12. 8 19. 6 19. 1 37. 3 23. 7

TABLE 14.—Wheat: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1916—Continued.

¹ Figures adjusted to census basis.

 TABLE 15.—Winter and spring wheat: Acreage, production, and farm value Dec. 1, by

 States in 1916, and United States totals, 1890–1916.

		V	Vinter whea	at.		Spring wheat.					
State.	Acreage.	Aver- age yield per acre.	Produc- tion,	Aver- age farm price Dec.1.	Farm value Dec. 1.	Acreage.	A ver- age yield per acre.	Produc- tion,	A ver- age farm price Dec.1.	Farm value Dec. 1.	
MeVt.	Acres.	Bu.	Bushels.	Cts.	Dolla 18 .	Acres. 5,000 1,000				Dollars. 252,000 41,000	
N. Y. N. J. Pa.	430,000 90,000	20.0	1, 800, 000	164							
Del Md Va	640,000	16.0	10, 240, 000	171	17.510.000						
W. Va. N. C.	320,000	14.5	4,640,000	160	7, 424, 000 17, 556, 000		• • • • • • • • • • • • •				
S. C Ga Ohio Ind	334,000 1,500,000	11.4 13.5	3, 808, 000 20, 250, 000	186 169	7,083,000 34,222,000					· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Ill	1, 475, 000	11.0			26, 771, 000			•••••			

WHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 15.—Winter and spring wheat: Acreage, production, and farm value Dec. 1, by States in 1916, and United States totals, 1890–1916—Continued.

		V	Vinter whe	at.			S	pring whea	ıt.	
State and year.	Acreage.	Aver- age yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	Aver- age farm price Dec.1.	Farm value Dec. 1.	Acreage.	Aver- age yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	Aver- age farm price Dec.1.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Mich Wis Minn Iowa Mo	A cres. 800,000 81,000 65,000 340,000 1,950,000	19.0 14.0 18.5	$1,539,000 \\910,000 \\6,290,000$	160 162	Dollars. 22, 712, 000 2, 462, 000 1, 474, 000 9, 812, 000 27, 349, 000	107,000 3,650,000 320,000	7.3	26, 645, 000 4, 160, 000	162 156	Dollars. 2, 842, 000 43, 165, 000 6, 490, 000
N. Dak S. Dak Nebr Kans Ky	150,000 3,240,000 8,130,000 890,000	20.0 12.0	97, 560, 000 8, 010, 000	164 166	4, 162, 000 103, 680, 000 159, 998, 000 13, 297, 000	44,000	10.5	22, 050, 000 3, 750, 000 462, 000		59, 774, 000 33, 075, 000 6, 000, 000 758, 000
Tenn. Ala. Miss. Tex. Okla.	865,000 110,000 6,000 1,200,000 3,050,000	9.5 15.0 11.0	$\begin{array}{c} 7,958,000\\ 1,045,000\\ 90,000\\ 13,200,000\\ 29,585,000 \end{array}$	169 185 175 173 167	$13, 449, 000 \\1, 933, 000 \\158, 000 \\22, 836, 000 \\49, 407, 000$		• • • • • •			
Ark. Mont Wyo Colo	255,000 550,000 70,000 370,000	21.5 21.0 20.0	1, 470, 000 7, 400, 000	$ \begin{array}{r} 161 \\ 145 \\ 150 \end{array} $	3,325,000 19,038,000 2,132,000 11,100,000	935, 000 95, 000 230, 000		16, 830 000 2, 090 000 4, 485 000 1, 032 000	$\begin{array}{c} 145 \\ 150 \end{array}$	27, 096, 000 3, 030, 000 6, 728, 000 1, 548, 000
N. Mex Ariz Utah Nev	$65,000 \\ 40,000 \\ 250,000 \\ 20,000$	$ \begin{array}{r} 16.5 \\ 29.0 \\ 20.0 \\ 24.5 \end{array} $	1,072,000 1,160,000 5,000,000 490,000	152	$1,608,000 \\1,740,000 \\7,600,000 \\686,000$	76,000	25.0		152	2, 888, 000 1, 543, 000
Idaho. Wash. Oreg. Cal. U. S.		26.5 23.0 16.0	13 , 340, 000 5 , 600, 000	143 145 152	12,054,000 26,148,000 19,343,000 8,512,000 783,911,000	900, 000 270, 000	21.5 23.0	19, 350, 000 6, 210, 000		9,950,000 27,670,000 9,004,000 241,854,000
1915	41,308,000 36,008,000 31,699,000 26,571,000	$ \begin{array}{r} 16.3 \\ 19.0 \\ 16.5 \\ 15.1 \end{array} $	673, 947, 000 684, 990, 000 523, 561, 000 399, 919, 000 430, 656, 000 434, 142, 000	94.7 98.6 82.9 80.9 88.0	638, 149, 000 675, 623, 000 433, 995, 000 323, 572, 000 379, 151, 000 382, 318, 000	19, 161, 000 17, 533, 000 18, 485, 000 19, 243, 000 20, 381, 000	18.4 11.8 13.0 17.2 9.4	351, 854, 000 206, 027, 000 239, 819, 000 330, 348, 000 190, 682, 000 200, 979, 000	86. 4 98. 6 73. 4 70. 1 86. 0	304, 154, 000 203, 057, 000 176, 127, 000 231, 708, 000 163, 912, 000 178, 733, 000
1900 1 1908 1907 1906 1905	27, 151,000 30, 349,000 28, 132,000 29, 600,000 29, 864,000	$ \begin{array}{c} 15.5\\ 14.4\\ 14.6\\ 16.7\\ 14.3 \end{array} $	419,733,000 437,908,000 409,442,000 492,888,000 428,463,000	93.7	$\begin{array}{c} 426, 184, 000\\ 410, 330, 000\\ 361, 217, 000\\ 336, 435, 000\\ 334, 987, 000 \end{array}$.17.208.000	13.2	263, 646, 000 226, 694, 000 224, 645, 000 242, 373, 000 264, 517, 000	91. 1 86. 0 63. 5 69. 3	$\begin{array}{c} 242, 496,000\\ 206, 496,000\\ 193, 220,000\\ 153, 898,000\\ 183, 386,000 \end{array}$
1904 1903 1902 1901 1900	32,511,000 -28,581,000 '30,240,000 -26,236,000	12.3 14.4 15.2 13.3	332, 935, 000 399, 867, 000 411, 789, 000 458, 835, 000 350, 025, 000	71.6 64.8 66.1 63.3	$\begin{array}{c} 325, 611, 000\\ 286, 243, 000\\ 266, 727, 000\\ 303, 227, 000\\ 221, 668, 000 \end{array}$	16,954,000 17,621,000 19,656,000 16,259,000	14.0 14.7 14.7 10.6	$\begin{array}{c} 219, 464, 000\\ 237, 955, 000\\ 258, 274, 000\\ 289, 626, 000\\ 172, 204, 000\end{array}$	60.2 56.7 59.1	184, 879, 000 156, 782, 000 155, 497, 000 164, 133, 000 101, 847, 000
1899. 1898. 1897. 1896. 1896.	25, 358, 000 25, 745, 000 22, 926, 000 22, 794, 000 22, 609, 000	$ \begin{array}{r} 11.5 \\ 14.9 \\ 14.1 \\ 11.8 \\ 11.6 \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 291,706,000\\ 382,492,000\\ 323,616,000\\ 267,934,000\\ 261,242,000 \end{array}$	62.2 85.1 77.0	$183,767,000\\237,736,000\\275,323,000\\206,270,000\\150,944,000$	18,310,000 16,539,000 11,825,000	16.0 12.5 13.5	255, 598, 000 292, 657, 000 206, 533, 000 159, 750, 000 205, 861, 000	53.0 74.2	$\begin{array}{c} 135,778,000\\ 155,034,000\\ 153,224,000\\ 104,328,000\\ 86,995,000 \end{array}$
1894 1893 1892 1891 1890	23, 519, 000 23, 118, 000 26, 209, 000 27, 524, 000 23, 520, 000	14.0 12.0 13.7 14.7 10.9	329, 290, 000 278, 469, 000 359, 416, 000 405, 116, 000 255, 374, 000	65.1 88.0	$164,022,000\\156,720,000\\234,037,000\\356,415,000\\223,362,000$	12,345,000 12,393,000	12.7 16.7	$\begin{array}{c} 130, 977, 000\\ 117, 662, 000\\ 158, 531, 000\\ 206, 665, 000\\ 143, 890, 000 \end{array}$	48,0 56.3 76.0	61,880,000 56,451,000 88,075,000 157,058,000 111,411,000

¹ Census acreage and production.

Statistics of Wheat.

WHEAT-Continued.

 TABLE 16.—Winter and spring wheat: Yield per acre in States producing both, for 10 years.

 WINTER WHEAT.

				Yie	eld per	acre (1	bushels	5).			
State.	10-year aver., 1907- 1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
Wisconsin. Minnesota Iowa South Dakota Nebraska. Kansas Montana Wyoming Colorado. New Mexico Arizona. Utah. Nevada. Idaho. Washington Oregon.	19.6 17.3 21.0 15.5 18.1 13.7 26.0 25.8 23.4 21.0 28.6 22.7 25.1 27.7 26.3 23.3	15.5 18.5 19.0 11.3 26.0 29.5 25.5	19.5 21.0 17.8 12.8 25.0 23.0 30.0 24.5 23.2	20. 4 21. 6 19. 4 14. 5 32. 5 32. 5 29. 7 24. 0 24. 0 29. 0 25. 8 21. 0	20.0 21.2 16.5 14.2 22.0 25.0 23.0 20.0 20.0 20.3 20.5 24.0 23.7 20.5 23.7	17.5 19.7 13.8 10.8 31.7 26.0 18.0 25.0 30.0 23.0 31.5 27.3 22.2	19.5 23.0 18.0 15.5 24.5 28.0 24.5 20.0 31.0 24.0 27.5 28.7 27.6 26.8	$\begin{array}{c} 20.1\\ 16.2\\ 23.4\\ 9.0\\ 18.6\\ 13.0\\ 25.6\\ 25.0\\ 21.1\\ 18.6\\ 32.0\\ 23.0\\ 23.0\\ 23.0\\ 23.0\\ 27.4\\ 27.0\\ 21.4 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 21.5\\ 19.5\\ 21.6\\ 14.0\\ 19.3\\ 20.5\\ 23.0\\ 24.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 27.5\\ 26.5\\ 22.0\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23.0\\ 19.5\\ 21.5\\ 20.5\\ 18.5\\ 12.5\\ 27.0\\ 26.0\\ 22.0\\ 28.0\\ 22.0\\ 28.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 26.0\\ 27.6\\ 24.0\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 19.0\\ 14.0\\ 18.5\\ 20.0\\ 12.0\\ 21.5\\ 21.0\\ 20.0\\ 16.5\\ 29.0\\ 20.0\\ 20.0\\ 24.5\\ 24.0\\ 26.5\\ 23.0\\ \end{array}$
United States	15.6	14.6	14.4	15.8	15.9	14.8	15.1	16.5	19.0	16.3	13.8
		SPR	ING V	VHEA	т.			r			
Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa South Dakota Nebraska Kansas	17.6 13.5 15.5 11.0 12.9 9.6	13.513.012.811.212.05.8	17.512.815.512.813.05.5	$19.0 \\ 16.8 \\ 14.7 \\ 14.1 \\ 14.0 \\ 11.5$	18.716.020.912.813.98.4	14.510.113.84.010.04.2	18.5 15.5 17.0 14.2 14.1 15.0	18.6 16.2 17.0 9.0 12.0 8.5	$17.0 \\ 10.5 \\ 13.5 \\ 9.0 \\ 11.5 \\ 15.0$	22.5 17.0 16.7 17.0 16.0 16.0	16.6 7.3 13.0 6.3 12.5 10.5
Montana Wyoming Colorado New Mexico.	23.5 25.7 22.9 22.2	28.8 28.5 29.0 24.0	24. 2 25. 5 21. 0 25. 0	28.8 27.0 29.4 24.5	22. 0 25. 0 21. 9 20. 0	25.2 26.0 19.5 20.5	23.5 29.2 24.0 22.0	21.525.021.019.0	$ \begin{array}{r} 17.0 \\ 22.0 \\ 22.5 \\ 23.0 \end{array} $	26.0 27.0 21.0 22.5	$ \begin{array}{r} 18.0 \\ 22.0 \\ 19.5 \\ 21.5 \end{array} $
Arizona Utah Nevada. Idaho. Washington Oregon.	24. 9 27. 2 30. 7 25. 6 19. 7 18. 8	$\begin{array}{c} 25.\ 9\\ 28.\ 8\\ 32.\ 0\\ 24.\ 5\\ 24.\ 5\\ 21.\ 5\end{array}$	26.7 27.5 30.0 25.4 15.0 16.5	$\begin{array}{c} 25.0 \\ 28.5 \\ 28.7 \\ 26.0 \\ 20.6 \\ 18.7 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 22.3\\ 25.3\\ 29.0\\ 20.4\\ 14.5\\ 18.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 25.\ 0\\ 27.\ 0\\ 32.\ 5\\ 29.\ 0\\ 19.\ 5\\ 17.\ 7\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 28.0\\ 29.2\\ 30.2\\ 28.3\\ 20.4\\ 19.5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 24.5\\ 28.0\\ 31.0\\ 28.0\\ 19.0\\ 19.5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23.0 \\ 25.0 \\ 30.0 \\ 24.0 \\ 20.0 \\ 16.5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 24.\ 0\\ 28.\ 0\\ 32.\ 0\\ 26.\ 5\\ 22.\ 2\\ 17.\ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 24.5 \\ 25.0 \\ 31.5 \\ 23.5 \\ 21.5 \\ 23.0 \end{array}$
United States	13.2	13.2	13.2	15.8	11.0	9.4	17.2	13.0	11.8	18.4	8.8

TABLE 17.—All wheat: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1915 and 1916.

State.	Thousand	s of acres.	Productic sands of l		Total value, basis Dec. 1 price (thou- sands of dollars).		
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	
Maine. Vermont. New York. New Jersey. Ponnsylvania. Delaware. Maryland. Virginia. Virginia. North Carolina.	$egin{array}{c} 1 \\ 430 \\ 90 \\ 1,375 \\ 124 \\ 640 \\ 1,300 \\ 320 \end{array}$	4 1 475 78 1,330 125 638 1,230 300 900	135 25 9,030 1,800 26,125 1,860 10,240 16,250 4,610 9,975	$112 \\ 30 \\ 11,875 \\ 1,560 \\ 24,605 \\ 1,875 \\ 10,272 \\ 16,974 \\ 4,500 \\ 9,810 \\ 112$	$\begin{array}{r} 252\\ 41\\ 15,170\\ 2,952\\ 42,322\\ 3,013\\ 17,510\\ 26,812\\ 7,424\\ 17,556\end{array}$	$125 \\ 32 \\ 11,994 \\ 1,654 \\ 25,589 \\ 2,014 \\ 10,786 \\ 18,332 \\ 4,860 \\ 11,772 \\ 125 \\ 11,772 \\ 10,786 \\ 11,772 \\ 10,786 \\ 11,772 \\ 10,786 \\ 11,772 \\ 10,786 \\ 11,772 \\ 10,786 \\ 11,772 \\ 10,786 \\ 10,78$	
South Carolina Georgia. Ohio Indiana. Illinois.	834	225 325 1,980 2,650 2,800	2,226 3,808 20,250 19,440 16,225	2,430 3,575 40,191 45,580 53,200	$\begin{array}{r} 4,207\\ 7,083\\ 34,222\\ 32,854\\ 26,771 \end{array}$	3,353 4,612 41,802 46,492 53,200	

WHEAT-Continued.

State.	Thousand	s of acres.		o n (thou- bushels).	Dec. 1 pi	lue, basis rice (thou- dollars).
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
Michigan. Wisconsin Minnesota. Iowa Missouri	800 188 3,715 660 1,950	960 205 4,160 950 2,773	$13,600 \\ 3,315 \\ 27,555 \\ 10,450 \\ 16,575$	20, 448 4, 662 70, 870 18, 985 34, 108	22, 712 5, 304 44, 639 16, 302 27, 349	20, 652 4, 429 63, 783 16, 517 33, 426
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky	$7,150 \\ 3,650 \\ 3,540 \\ 8,174 \\ 890$	8,350 3,725 3,876 8,525 900	39, 325 24, 825 68, 550 98, 022 8, 010	$151,970 \\ 63,762 \\ 71,018 \\ 106,538 \\ 9,900$	59,774 37,237 109,680 160,756 13,297	132, 214 54, 835 59, 655 94, 819 10, 395
Tennessee. A labama. Mississippi Texas. Oklahoma.	$865 \\ 110 \\ 6 \\ 1,200 \\ 3,050$	860 100 5 1,650 3,350	7,958 1,045 90 13,200 29,585	9,030 1,200 100 25,575 38,860	13, 449 1, 933 158 22, 836 49, 407	9,752 1,500 105 27,365 34,585
Arkansas. Montana Wyoming Colorado	$255 \\ 1,485 \\ 165 \\ 600$	$220 \\ 1,590 \\ 125 \\ 570 $	2,040 28,655 3,560 11,885	2,750 42,180 3,315 13,770	3,325 46,134 5,162 17,828	2,778 32,900 2,586 11,016
New Mexico Arizona Utah Nevada	40	89 39 320 56	2,104 1,160 6,900 1,592	$1,976 \\ 1,092 \\ 8,225 \\ 1,660$	3,156 1,740 10,488 2,229	1,7791,2567,0741,577
Idaho Washington Oregon California	1,590 850	$ \begin{array}{r} 670 \\ 2,000 \\ 900 \\ 440 \end{array} $	15,071 37,635 19,550 5,600	$18,730 \\ 51,420 \\ 20,025 \\ 7,040$	$\begin{array}{r} 22,004\\ 53,818\\ 28,347\\ 8,512 \end{array}$	14, 984 42, 165 16, 821 6, 688
United States	52,785	60,469	639,886	1,025,801	1,025,765	942, 303

TABLE 17.—All wheat: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1915 and 1916—Continued.

TABLE 18.-Wheat: Production and distribution in the United States, 1897-1916.

[000 omitted.]

Year.	Old stock on farms July 1.	Crop.	Total supplies.	Stock on farms Mar. 1 following.	Shipped out of county where grown.
1897 1898 1899 1809 1909 1901	Bushels. 23,347 17,839 64,061 50,900 30,552	Bushels. 530, 149 675, 149 547, 304 522, 230 748, 460	Bushels. 553, 496 692, 988 611, 365 573, 130 779, 012	Bushels. 121, 320 198, 056 158, 746 128, 098 173, 353	Bushels. 269, 126 398, 882 305, 020 281, 372 372, 717
1902	52, 437 42, 540 36, 634 24, 257 46, 053	670,063 637,822 552,400 692,979 735,261	722,500680,362589,034717,236781,314	$\begin{array}{c} 164,047\\ 132,608\\ 111,055\\ 158,403\\ 206,642 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 388,554\\ 369,582\\ 302,771\\ 404,092\\ 427,253 \end{array}$
1907	54,853 33,797 15,062 35,680 34,071	634,087 664,602 683,379 635,121 621,338	688,940 698,399 698,441 670,801 655,409	148,721 143,692 159,100 162,705 122,025	367,607 393,435 414,165 352,906 348,821
1012. 1913. 1914. 1915. 1916.		730,267763,380891,0171,025,801639,886	754,143798,895923,2531,054,773714,617	156, 483 151, 809 152, 903 244, 4 48	449,906 411,753 541,198 633,380

Statistics of Wheat.

WHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 19Wheat:	Yield per ac	e, price per	bushel Dec. 1,	and value	per acre, by Sta	tes.
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Pa. 17.6 Del. 16.6 Md 16.6 Md. 16.6 W. Va. 12.6 W. Va. 13.4 N. C. 10.6 S. C. 10.6 Ga. 10.7 Dhio 15.0 Ind 15.0 Mich 17. Wis 18.6 Minn 13.6 Moo. 13.4	$5.7 26.2 \\ 6.2 23.0 \\ 0.4 17.3 \\ 8.4 18.5 \\ 7.6 18.6 \\ 6.6 20.5 \\ 6.5 19.0 \\ 2.6 12.5 \\ 3.4 12.2 \\ 0.5 9.5 \\ 0.4 8$	18.5 15.0 16.4 11.4 13.0	17.0 14.0 14.5	0161 29.7 29.3 23.7 18.5 17.8	1161 21.0 27.8 19.5 17.4	2161 23.5 25.0	E161 25.5 24.5	FIGI	1915	1916	i0-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1912					5-year average, 1911-1915.	
Pa. 17.6 Del. 16.6 Md 16.6 Md. 16.6 W. Va. 12.6 W. Va. 13.4 N. C. 10.6 S. C. 10.6 Ga. 10.7 Dhio 15.0 Ind 15.0 Mich 17. Wis 18.6 Minn 13.6 Moo. 13.4	$\begin{array}{c} 7.6 \\ 18.6 \\ 6.6 \\ 20.5 \\ 19.0 \\ 2.6 \\ 12.5 \\ 3.4 \\ 12.2 \\ 0.5 \\ 9.5 \\ 0.4 \\ 8.5 \end{array}$	18.5 15.0 16.4 11.4 13.0	17.0 14.0 14.5	29.7 29.3 23.7 18.5 17.8	21.0 27.8 19.5 17.4	23.5 25.0 16.0	25.5	27.0				19	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year 191	1916
Md 16. 2 Va 12. 6 W. Va 13. 4 N. C 10. 6 S. C 10. 7 Ga 10. 7 Ohio 15. 6 Ind 15. 6 Ind 15. 6 Mich 17. 1 Wis 18. 6 Minn 13. 6 Moa 13. 6	$\begin{array}{c} 6.5 \\ 19.0 \\ 2.6 \\ 12.5 \\ 3.4 \\ 12.2 \\ 0.5 \\ 9.5 \\ 0.4 \\ 8.5 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 16.4 \\ 11.4 \\ 13.0 \end{array} $	14.5		13.5	18.5 18.0	20.0 17.6 17.0	29.0 22.5 18.0 18.1	$\begin{array}{c} 28.0\\ 30.0\\ 25.0\\ 20.0\\ 18.5 \end{array}$	27.0 25.0 21.0 20.0 19.0	114 109 107 108 104	103 98 99 98 98 95	101 100 93 96 91	$109 \\ 100 \\ 108 \\ 109 \\ 104$	112 107 101 106 104	165 168 164	26.77 27.52 20.50 18.51 16.61	41.25 35.28 32.80
Ga 100. Ohio 15.0 Ind 15.0 Ill 15.4 Mich 17.1 Wis 18.4 Minn 13.6 Moa 18.6	0.4 8.5	10.0	11.2	17.4 12.8 12.5	15.5 12.0 11.5	15.0 11.6 14.5	13.3 13.6 13.0	21.5 14.5 15.0	16.1 13.8 15.0	16.0 12.5 14.5	104 105 108 110 118	96 95 101 101 111	88 89 96 100 106	109 106 108 108 117	109 105 108 108 120	$ 171 \\ 165 \\ 160 $	16.66 15.98 13.37 14.35 12.04	27 36 20.62 23.20
Minn	$\begin{array}{c} 0.7 & 9.0 \\ 5.9 & 16.3 \\ 5.0 & 14.4 \\ 5.5 & 18.0 \end{array}$	9.2	10.0 15.9	10.5 16.2	12.0	9.3	12.2	12.1	20.3	$11.4 \\ 13.5$	132	$ \begin{array}{r} 119 \\ 122 \\ 98 \\ 93 \\ 88 \\ \end{array} $	130 120 90 88 86	$145 \\ 134 \\ 105 \\ 103 \\ 101$	138 129 104 102 100	186 169 169	$\begin{array}{c} 14.\ 51\\ 14.\ 01\\ 15.\ 83\\ 14.\ 45\\ 15.\ 06 \end{array}$	21.20 22.82 20.28
	7. 1 14. 5 8. 5 14. 1 3. 5 13. 0 8. 0 13. 4 3. 5 13. 2	18.0 18.2 12.8 17.2 10.0	18.8 19.5 16.8 17.0 14.7	18.0 19.3 16.0 21.0 13.8	18.0 15.9 10.1 16.4 15.7	10.0 19.0 15.5 19.8 12.5	15.3 19.3 16.2 20.6 17.1	19.7 19.1 10.6 18.6 17.0	21.322.717.020.012.3	17.0 17.6 7.4 15.8 8.5	103 98 97 93 99	96 83 73 78 90	89 82 76 76 54	$103 \\ 100 \\ 102 \\ 96 \\ 98$	101 95 90 87 98	160 162 156	$16. 17 \\ 17. 31 \\ 11. 81 \\ 16. 16 \\ 13. 63$	28.16 11.99 24.65
N. Dak. 11. S. Dak. 11. Nebr 17. Kans 13. Ky. 12.	1.2 10.0 1.1 11.2 7.6 18.1 3.6 11.0 2.1 12.0	11.6 12.8 17.2 12.6 11.6	$13.7 \\ 14.1 \\ 18.8 \\ 14.4 \\ 11.8 $	5.0 12.8 16.2 14.1 12.8	8.0 4.0 13.4 10.7 12.7	$18.0 \\ 14.2 \\ 17.6 \\ 15.5 \\ 10.0 $	10.5 9.0 17.9 13.0 13.6	11. 2 9. 1 18. 6 20. 5 16. 5	18.2 17.1 18.3 12.5 11.0	5.5 6.8 19.4 12.0 9.0	93 92 90 94 106	69 69 69 74 99	73 71 71 79 96	101 94 95 95 103	87 86 84 89 105	150 160 164	10. 87 8. 62 13. 91 12. 42 12. 64	10.20 31.04 19.68
Fenn 11. Ala 11. Miss 13. Fex 12. Okla 12.	1.210.0 3.611.0	11.5 14.5	10.5 11.0	12.0 14.0	11.5 12.0	10.6 12.0	11.7 14.0	13.0 13.0	12.0 20.0	9.5	124 112	100 113 97 93 75	98 115 95 94 82	105 126 125 99 92	125	185 175 173	12. 18 14. 12 14. 84 13. 85 10. 59	17.58 26.25 19.03
Ark	4.8 28.8	124. Z	13U. Ö	12Z. U	128.7	124. I	125.0	: ZU. 2	20. 0	19.3	1 881	94 64 80 73	90 66 72 78	99 91 89 87	101 78 78 80	161 145	$11. 21 \\ 18. 46 \\ 21. 29 \\ 18. 00$	31.07 31.32
N. Mex. 22. Ariz 27. Utah 22. Nev 22. 24. 29.	24.728.8 29.032.0	26.5 30.0	25.9 28.7	22.1 26.5	22.3	25.7 29.2	24.2 27.7	25.0 29.6	25.7 29.6	21.2 28.9	88 104	90 110 75 100	97 110 73 82	86	90 115 86 95	150 152	20. 34 32. 86 19. 23 27. 01	43, 50
Idaho	$\begin{array}{c} 26.9 \\ 25.3 \\ 22.7 \\ 26.0 \\ 23.4 \\ 16.0 \\ 15.0 \end{array}$	28.2 18.8 20.8 14.6	27.823.220.214.0	22, 6 16, 9 22, 1 18, 0	30.7 22.7 21.0 18.0	28.6 23.5 25.0 17.0	27.6 23.2 21.0 14.0	26. 2 23. 5 20. 8 17. 0	28.0 25.7 22.2 16.0	$23.8 \\ 23.7 \\ 23.0 \\ 16.0 $	81 86 89 103	66 68 72 93	63 73 75 95	87 100 102 104	80 82 84 95	143 145	20. 34 18. 72 17. 87 15. 57	33.89 33.35

1Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

WHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 20.—Winter and spring wheat: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1890-1917.

		Wi	nter whe	eat.			Spring	wheat.	
Year.	Decem- ber of pre- vious year.	April.	May.	June.	When har- vested.	June.	July.	August.	When har- vested.
1890	P. ct. 95.3 98.4 85.3 87.4 91.5	$\begin{array}{c} P. ct. \\ 81.0 \\ 96.9 \\ 81.2 \\ 77.4 \\ 86.7 \end{array}$	P. ct. 80.0 97.9 84.0 75.4 81.4	P. ct. 78.1 96.6 88.3 75.5 83.2	P. ct. 76.2 96.2 89.6 77.7 83.9	P. ct. 91.3 92.6 92.3 86.4 88.0	P. ct. 94.4 94.1 90.9 74.1 68.4	P. ct. 83.2 95.5 87.3 67.0 67.1	P. ct. 79.7 97.2 81.2 68.9 69.9
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899	89.0 81.4 99.5 92.6	81.4 77.1 81.4 86.7 77.9	82.9 82.7 80.2 86.5 76.2	71.1 77.9 78.5 90.8 67.3	65.8 75.6 81.2 85.7 65.6	97.8 99.9 89.6 100.9 91.4	102.2 93.3 91.2 95.0 91.7	95. 9 78. 9 86. 7 96. 5 83. 6	94.9 73.8 80.8 91.7 77.2
1900	97.1 97.1 86.7 99.7 86.6	82.1 91.7 78.7 97.3 76.5	88.9 94.1 76.4 92.6 76.5	82.7 87.8 76.1 82.2 77.7	80. 8 88. 3 77. 0 78. 8 78. 7	87.3 92.0 95.4 95.9 93.4	55.2 95.6 92.4 82.5 93.7	56. 4 80. 3 89. 7 77. 1 87. 5	56.1 78.4 87.2 78.1 66.2
1905	82.9 94.1 94.1 91.1 85.3	91.6 89.1 89.9 91.3 82.2	92.5 90.9 82.9 89.0 83.5	85.5 82.7 77.4 86.0 80.7	82.7 85.6 78.3 80.6 82.4	93. 7 93. 4 88. 7 95. 0 95. 2	91. 0 91. 4 87. 2 89. 4 92. 7	89.2 86.9 79.4 80.7 91.6	87.3 83.4 77.1 77.6 88.6
1910 1911 1912 1913	95.8 82.5 86.6 93.2	80. 8 83. 3 80. 6 91. 6	82.1 86.1 79.7 91.9	80. 0 80. 4 74. 3 83. 5	81.5 76.8 73.3 81.6	92.8 94.6 95.8 93.5	61. 6 73. 8 89. 3 73. 8	61. 0 59. 8 90. 4 74. 1	63.1 56.7 90.8 75.3
1914 1915 1916 1917	97.2 88.3 87.7 85.7	95.6 88.8 78.3	95.9 92.9 82.4	92.7 85.8 73.2	94.1 84.4 75.7	95.5 94.9 88.2	92. 1 93. 3 89. 0	75.5 93.4 63.4	68, 0 94, 6 48, 6

TABLE 21.-Winter wheat: Per cent of area sown which was abandoned (not harvested).

Year.	Per cent.	Year.	Per cent.	Year.	Per cent.
1902. 1903. 1904. 1905. 1906.	$2.8 \\ 15.4 \\ 4.6$	1907. 1903. 1909. 1910. 1911.	$4.2 \\ 7.5$	1912. 1913. 1914. 1915. 1916.	4.7 3.1

TABLE 22.—Wheat: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1915 and 1916.

Month.	V'nited States.		North Atlantic States.		South Atlantic States.		N. Central States east of Miss. R.				South Central States.		Far West- ern States.	
protection	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
January February March April May Junc	113.9 102.9 98.6 102.5	107.8 129.9 133.6 131.7 139.6	110.0 121.7 113.6 109.7 111.6	112.1135.5142.8138.2145.2	119.0 129.0 123.1 117.9 117.7	117.2 139.3 146.0 144.9 148.5	$121.0 \\ 109.6 \\ 104.7 \\ 109.0$	113. 4 135. 7 138. 6 137. 7 142. 9	101. 9 114. 6 99. 6 97. 0 102. 1	129.5 132.4 130.5 142.0	110.6 109.4 103.4	$129.0 \\134.9 \\133.9 \\138.9$	99.3 94.3 86.6 88.9	
July August September October November December	$107.1 \\ 131.2 \\ 136.3 \\ 158.4 \\ 158.4 \\ 100000000000000000000000000000000000$	106.5 95.0 90.9 93.1	$\begin{array}{c} 108.9 \\ 131.3 \\ 138.4 \\ 166.0 \end{array}$	107.6 102.8 100.4 101.3	$115.0 \\ 133.7 \\ 140.8 \\ 164.5 \\ 164.5 \\ 1$	110. 2 108. 8 107. 5 111. 4	$114.4 \\ 135.8 \\ 143.5 \\ 166.6$	101.7 96.7 98.6 102.1		112. 2 93. 8 88. 1 89. 4	109.4 137.3 142.4 167.1		91.0 118.4 124.5 138.2	89.5 90.9 86.1 78.1 83.3 81.9
Average	126.7	105.0	132.6	112.0	132.4	118.4	128.3	109.9	126.6	101.7	123. 3	106.7	119.8	89.4

Statistics of Wheat.

WHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 23.—Wheat: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1916.

	New	York.	Balti	more.	Chic	ago.	Det	roit.	St. I	ouis.		eapo- is.		Fran- sco.
Date.		2 red ter.1	No. 2	? red.	No.1: ern sj	north- pring.	No.	2 red.		2 red . ter.		north- n.	No. 1 fornia 100 lb	(per
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 98^{1}_{4}\\ 103^{1}_{2} \end{array}$	$Cts. 127 \\ 118\frac{1}{4}$	$Cts. 95^{1}_{4} 94^{1}_{2}$	$Cts. 116\frac{1}{2} 106$	Cts. 107 85	Cts. 122 116	$Cts. 95{}^3_4$ $101{}^3_4$	Cts. 120 112	Cts. 92½ 94	$Cts. 125\frac{1}{2}$ $115\frac{1}{2}$	$Cts. 103\frac{1}{2}\ 80\frac{1}{2}$	$Cts. \\ 118\frac{7}{8} \\ 112\frac{1}{4}$	Cts. 150 140	Cts. 190 165
1913. JanJune July-Dec	107 94	$1141 \\ 107^2$	1053 891	$109\frac{1}{2}$ $96\frac{1}{2}$	87 <u>1</u> 85	96 95 $\frac{1}{4}$	$102\frac{1}{2}$ $87\frac{1}{2}$	$116\frac{1}{2}$ $102\frac{1}{2}$	93 83	$ 115 97\frac{3}{4} $	82 1 803	89 § 93½	$155 \\ 155$	182 <u>1</u> 172 <u>1</u>
1914. JanJune July-Dec		$111\frac{3}{4}$ $136\frac{1}{2}$	83 823	103 127	. 89 881	100 133	861 80	991 1274	753 76	$99\frac{1}{2}$ $127\frac{1}{2}$	84§ 85½	981 1291	$151\frac{1}{2}$ 152	165 200
1915. January February March April. May June.	$138 \\ 157 \\ 149\frac{1}{2} \\ 159 \\ 147 \\ 126$	$162 \\ 178 \\ 172\frac{1}{3} \\ 169\frac{3}{3} \\ 170 \\ 141$	$\begin{array}{c} 132_4^1\\ 148_2^1\\ 140_4^1\\ 155_4^1\\ 141_2^1\\ 141_2^1\end{array}$	$151 \\ 164 \\ 162_4^3 \\ 168_2^4 \\ 163_2^4 \\ 163_2^2 \\ 140$	$128 \\ 146 \\ 138 \\ 152\frac{1}{2} \\ 141 \\ 123$	$154 \\ 167 \\ 162\frac{1}{2} \\ 165\frac{1}{2} \\ 164\frac{1}{2} \\ 149$	$128\frac{1}{2}\\148\\136\frac{1}{2}\\152\frac{1}{2}\\139\\114\frac{1}{2}$	$152 \\ 165 \\ 159\frac{1}{2} \\ 161 \\ 160\frac{1}{2} \\ 138 \\$	$127\frac{1}{2}\\145\\136\frac{1}{2}\\149\\137\\110$	$ \begin{array}{r} 152 \\ 164 \\ 157\frac{3}{4} \\ 160 \\ 159\frac{1}{2} \\ 132 \\ \end{array} $	$125 \\ 1401 \\ 1338 \\ 1383 \\ 1383 \\ 146 \\ 1147 \\ 1147 \\ 8$	$ \begin{array}{r} 149\frac{1}{8} \\ 157\frac{1}{2} \\ 156\frac{3}{4} \\ 165\frac{9}{8} \\ 165 \\ 144\frac{3}{4} \end{array} $	(³) 225 225 215 195 165	(³) 240 230 230 220 200
JanJune.	126	178	111	$168\frac{1}{2}$	123	167	1141	165	110	164	1147	$165\frac{5}{8}$	165	240
July August September October November December	$ \begin{array}{c} 118\frac{3}{4}\\ 110\frac{1}{2}\\ 108\frac{1}{4}\\ 118\\ (^3)\\ (^3)\\ (^3) \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 144\frac{1}{2}\\ 128\frac{1}{4}\\ 128\\ 130\\ (^3)\\ (^3)\\ (^3)\end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 105\frac{1}{2} \\ 102 \\ 1003 \\ 106 \\ 110\frac{1}{2} \\ 113\frac{1}{4} \end{array} $	$114\frac{1}{2}$ $121\frac{1}{2}$ $110\frac{1}{2}$ 116 $114\frac{1}{2}$ $128\frac{7}{8}$	$132 \\ 108 \\ 99\frac{1}{2} \\ 99 \\ 102\frac{1}{2} \\ 106 \\$	$\begin{array}{c} 153\frac{3}{4}\\ 131\\ 119\frac{1}{2}\\ 115\frac{1}{2}\\ 111\\ 128\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	111	$ 114^{-115} 115 114 $	108 107 106 109 111 115	$128 \\ 120\frac{3}{4} \\ 122 \\ 129 \\ 125 \\ 129 \\ 125 \\ 129 \\ 129 \\ 129 \\ 129 \\ 129 \\ 120 \\ 129 \\ 120$	$ \begin{array}{c c} 1271 \\ 963 \\ 89 \\ 923 \\ 983 \\ 1033 \\ 1033 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 1511\\ 155\\ 1047\\ 1092\\ 1057\\ 1057\\ 1238 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 165 \\ 160 \\ 140 \\ 140 \\ 150 \\ 150 \end{array} $	185 185 165 175 170 170
July-Dec	1081	1441	1003	$128\frac{7}{8}$	99	$153\frac{3}{4}$	106	132	106	129	89	155	140	185
1916. January February March April May June	$138\frac{1}{130\frac{3}{4}}\\130\frac{3}{4}\\129\frac{3}{4}\\124\frac{1}{2}\\113\frac{1}{4}$	$156\frac{1}{154}\\154\\139\\143\\136\\132\frac{1}{2}$	$123 \\116 \\1121 \\1143 \\104 \\1001 \\10001 \\1001 \\1001 \\1001 \\1001 \\1001 \\1001 \\1001 \\1001 \\1001 \\$	$141\frac{1}{137\frac{1}{2}}\\119\frac{1}{2}\\123\\119\frac{1}{3}\\105\frac{1}{4}$	$119\frac{3}{112}$ $109\frac{3}{118}$ $118\frac{3}{116}$ $106\frac{1}{2}$	126	$122 \\ 1111 \\ 1101 \\ 117 \\ 1083 \\ 103$	$137 \\ 135 \\ 118 \\ 124 \\ 123 \\ 113 $	$112 \\ 116 \\ 106$	$143 \\ 142 \\ 122 \\ 130\frac{1}{2} \\ 125 \\ 114$	$1187 \\ 1081 \\ 1083 \\ 1087 \\ 1177 \\ 1177 \\ 1131 \\ 1061 \\ 2$	$1383 \\ 1361 \\ 1207 \\ 1265 \\ 1283 \\ 1161 \\ $	160	190 185 175 170 170 170
JanJune.	1134	$156\frac{1}{4}$	1001	1411	1061	139 ¹ / ₂	103	137	106	143	1061	1383	150	190
July August September October November December	123 <u>1</u> 144 168 <u>1</u> 185 <u>3</u> 198 183		$ \begin{array}{r} 102 \\ 125 \\ 148 \\ 156 \\ 174 \\ 159 \end{array} $	$126 \\ 157 \\ 157 \\ 1921 \\ 193\frac{1}{2} \\ 183$	$110 \\ 126\frac{1}{8} \\ 150 \\ 164 \\ 165 \\ 155\frac{1}{2}$	$ \begin{array}{c c} & 171\frac{1}{2} \\ & 202 \\ & 200 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 104 \\ 130 \\ 1441 \\ 1571 \\ 157 \\ 173 \\ 157 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 1291 \\ 1543 \\ 156 \\ 188 \\ 1891 \\ 1832 \\ 1832 \\ \end{array} $	129 147 158 177	$ \begin{array}{r} 136\frac{1}{2} \\ 165 \\ 172 \\ 195 \\ 196 \\ 187 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 1077\\ 1278\\ 152\\ 1691\\ 177\\ 1597 \end{array} $	1321 1657 1678 1995 200 1888	160 185	185 210 225 275 290 290
July-Dec	1231	215	$102\frac{1}{2}$	1931	110	202	104	1891	109	196	1077	200	160	290

No. 1 northern spring in 1916.
 Northern club, in 1913. White, subsequent to 1913.

54159°--- увк 1916-----37

⁸ Nominal.

WHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 24.—Wheat flour: Wholesale price per barrel, 1912-1916.

		Chic	ago.		Cinci	nnati.	New	York.	St. L	ouis.
Date.	Winter	patents.	Spring	patents.	Winter	family.	Spring]	patents.	Winter	patents.
	Low.	High.	'Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Dolls. 3.75 4.50	Dolls. 5.45 5.30	Dolls. 4.50 4.00	Dolls. 5.60 5.30	Dolls. 3.40 4.00	Dolls. 4.50 4.50	Dolls. 4.25 4.50	Dolls. 5.50 5.20	Dolls. 4 40 4.20	Dolls. 5.85 5.60
1913. JanJune July-Dec	$4.30 \\ 3.90$	$5.10 \\ 4.35$	$4.10 \\ 4.00$	$5.60 \\ 5.50$	$\substack{3.25\\2.90}$	4.15 3.50	4.40 4.40	5.00 5.00	4.30 3.70	$5.15 \\ 4.55$
1914. JanJune July-Dec	$3.50 \\ 3.45$	$4.40 \\ 5.50$	$\begin{array}{c} 4.00\\ 4.00\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 5.50\\ 6.90\end{array}$	$3.20 \\ 3.05$	$3.50 \\ 4.90$	4.50 4.35	5.10 7.00	$3.35 \\ 3.35$	4.35 5.70
1915. January February March April May June	6.10 7.10 6.60 6.80 6.70 5.10	$7.10 \\ 7.80 \\ 7.25 \\ 7.60 \\ 7.50 \\ 6.65$	$\begin{array}{r} 6.60 \\ 7.20 \\ 6.65 \\ 7.10 \\ 7.30 \\ 5.50 \end{array}$	7.60 8.00 8.00 8.30 8.30 8.10	$\begin{array}{r} 4.75 \\ 6.25 \\ 6.00 \\ 6.15 \\ 6.00 \\ 5.25 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.15 \\ 6.65 \\ 6.55 \\ 6.55 \\ 6.55 \\ 5.90 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 6.25 \\ 7.25 \\ 6.85 \\ 7.25 \\ 7.35 \\ 5.50 \end{array}$	$7.40 \\ 8.25 \\ 7.85 \\ 8.10 \\ 8.10 \\ 7.90$	5.50 6.60 6.30 6.40 6.35 5.10	6.75 7.50 6.85 6.90 6.90 6.30
JanJune	5.10	7.80	5.50	8.30	4.75	6.65	5.50	8.25	5.10	7.50
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{r} 4.60 \\ 4.75 \\ 4.50 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.25 \end{array}$	$5.75 \\ 5.75 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.75 $	5.756.004.504.805.005.15	$\begin{array}{c} 7.50 \\ 7.50 \\ 6.30 \\ 6.30 \\ 6.30 \\ 6.90 \end{array}$	5.25 5.50 5.00 4.65 4.65 4.65	$5.65 \\ 5.65 \\ 5.65 \\ 5.15 \\ 4.75 \\ 5.25$	$5.50 \\ 5.15 \\ 4.90 \\ 5.05 \\ 5.40 \\ 5.60$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.25 \\ 7.25 \\ 6.85 \\ 6.10 \\ 5.90 \\ 6.70 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.90 \\ 4.60 \\ 4.60 \\ 4.80 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.10 \end{array}$	5.90 5.10 5.00 5.40 5.25 5.60
July-Dec	4.50	5.75	4.50	7.50	4.65	5. 65	4.90	7.25	4.60	5.90
1916. January February. March. April. May June.	5.50 5.60 5.15 5.50 5.30 5.00	$\begin{array}{c} 6.80 \\ 6.60 \\ 5.75 \\ 6.25 \\ *5.75 \\ 5.60 \end{array}$	$5.60 \\ 5.60 \\ 5.10 \\ 5.65 \\ 5.40 \\ 5.20$	$7.50 \\ 7.50 \\ 6.90 \\ 6.70 \\ 6.70 \\ 6.70 \\ 6.70 \\ $	5.15 5.40 5.15 5.15 5.10 4.50	5.40 5.50 5.35 5.25 5.35 5.35	$\begin{array}{c} 6.25 \\ 5.45 \\ 5.70 \\ 6.05 \\ 5.80 \\ 5.50 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.25 \\ 7.25 \\ 6.40 \\ 6.60 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.15 \end{array}$	5.25 5.25 5.10 5.20 4.90 4.75	$\begin{array}{c} 6.10\\ 6.10\\ 5.40\\ 5.50\\ 5.35\\ 5.05\end{array}$
JanJune	5.00	6.80	5.10	7.50	4.50	5.50	5.45	7.25	4.75	6.10
July August September October November December	5.50 6.90 7.20 8.35	$5.50 \\ 7.00 \\ 7.60 \\ 8.50 \\ 9.30 \\ 8.50 \\ 8.50 \\ \end{array}$	5.00 6.50 7.20 7.80 9.20 7.50	7.30 8.75 8.90 10.20 10.30 9.60	$\begin{array}{c} 4.50 \\ 4.75 \\ 6.75 \\ 6.75 \\ 7.50 \\ 7.00 \end{array}$	$5.00 \\ 7.00 \\ 7.00 \\ 7.75 \\ 8.75 \\ 8.25 $	$5.50 \\ 6.50 \\ 7.90 \\ 8.34 \\ 9.30 \\ 8.35$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.85\\ 8.55\\ 8.75\\ 9.90\\ 10.00\\ 9.45\end{array}$	4.75 5.85 7.10 7.25 8.25 7.85	6.00 7.30 7.50 8.75 9.00 8.60
July-Dec	5.00	9.30	5.00	10.30	4.50	8.75	5.50	10.00	4.75	9.00

WHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 25.-Wheat and flour: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

["Temporary" imports into Italy of wheat, to be used for manufacturing products for export, are included in the total imports as given in the official Italian returns. In the trade returns of Chile the item trigo mote (prepared corn) which might easily be confused with trigo (wheat) is omitted. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

		Wheat.			Flour.		Wheat and flour.1			
Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (p r elim.)	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	
Argentina Australia. Belgium British India Bulgaria Canada.	Bushels. 103, 328 42, 923 71 12, 991 50, 558 ² 9, 238 129, 950	Bushels. 36, 028 52, 878 26, 130 70, 302	Bushels. 92, 281 1, 113 26, 505	Barrels. 1,402 2,285 369 646 923 ³ 493 4,894	Barrels. 757 1,778 683 4,671	Barrels. 1,305 81 600 5,569	Bushels. 109, 637 53, 207 1, 730 15, 898 54, 711 ² 11, 456 151, 975	Bushels. 39, 435 60, 878 29, 204 91, 322	Bushels. 98, 155 1, 476 29, 207 176, 959	
Chile. Germany. Netherlands	$1,922 \\ 19,781 \\ 63,598$	149 37,063	1,807	69 2, 191 201	4, 011 34 115	5	2,235 29,638 64,501	301 37, 583	1,830	
Roumania Russia United States Other countries	$\begin{array}{r} \textbf{42, 362} \\ \textbf{122, 336} \\ \textbf{99, 509} \\ \textbf{7, 499} \end{array}$	19,744 88,609 173,862 13,358	6, 681 205, 830	1, 385 1, 836 12, 278 2, 813	842 1,274 12,768 2,858	932 15,681	$\begin{array}{r} 48,594\\130,596\\154,760\\20,160\end{array}$	23, 535 94, 342 231, 318 26, 216	10, 875 276, 393	
Total	70 6, 066	518, 123		31,785	25, 780		849, 098	634, 134		

IMPORTS.

Belgium. Brazil British South Africa Denmark. France.	$\begin{array}{c} 69, 628 \\ 16, 109 \\ 5, 359 \\ 5, 176 \\ 57, 160 \end{array}$	14,047 3,782 2,942 60,882	13, 622 3, 611 2, 334 61, 417	36 1, 914 890 670 113	1, 503 706 552 1, 048	1, 449 384 421 3, 413	69, 790 24, 722 9, 366 8, 190 57, 669	20, 808 6, 957 5, 424 65, 598	20, 142 5, 338 4, 230 76, 776
Germany. Greece. Italy. Japan. Netherlands.	93, 547 6, 882 66, 532 6, 255 79, 369	6, 671 3, 732 4, 360 50, 770	8, 268 817 23, 782	201 15 23 195 2, 259	7 17 137 1,596	88 21 1,050	94, 451 6, 950 66, 635 7, 131 89, 534	6, 704 3, 810 4, 976 57, 951	8,665 910 28,507
Portugal. Spain. Sweden. Switzerland. United Kingdom Other countries	6, 399 6, 405 7, 355 19, 446 196, 809 13, 07 3	5,439 15,528 4,895 16,714 192,725 20,094	13, 647 8, 784 17, 771 165, 179	$1 \\ 97 \\ 429 \\ 6,704 \\ 13,060$	10 107 5,622 38,496	10 257 5, 752	6, 399 6, 409 7, 793 21, 376 226, 978 71, 843	5,439 15,575 5, 378 16,714 218,025 193,325	13, 691 9, 939 17, 771 191, 064
Total	655, 504	402, 581		26,607	49,801		775, 236	626, 684	

¹ Flour is reduced to terms of grain, where included in these 3 columns, by assuming 1 barrel of flour to be the product of 42 bushels of wheat. ² Data for 1912.

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OATS.

TABLE 26.—Oats: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914–1916.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA. United States	A cres. 38, 442, 000	A cres. 40, 996, 000	A cres. 41,539,000	Bushels. 1,141,060,000	Bushels. 1, 549, 030, 000	Bushels. 1,251,992,000
Canada: New Brunswick Quebec. Ontario. Manitoba Saskatchewan Alberta. Other.	200,000 1,327,000 2,840,000 1,331,000 2,520,000 1,502,000 341,000	201,000 1,400,000 3,095,000 1,441,000 2,937,000 1,912,000 379,000	198,000 1,138,000 2,410,000 1,363,000 2,657,000 1,653,000 376,000	$\begin{array}{c} 6,488,000\\ 42,119,000\\ 99,400,000\\ 31,951,000\\ 61,816,000\\ 57,076,000\\ 14,228,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 5,560,000\\ 42,182,000\\ 122,810,000\\ 69,471,000\\ 157,629,000\\ 107,741,000\\ 14,710,000\end{array}$	(1)
Total Canada	10,061,000	11,365,000	9,795,000	313,078,000	520, 103, 000	351, 174, 000
Mexico	(1)	(1)	(1)	17,000	17,000	(1)
Total				1,454,155,000	2,069,150,000	
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina. Chile. Uruguay.	3,087,000 122,000 97,000	2,869,000 151,000 82,000	2,565,000 (¹) 106,000	50,981,000 4,437,000 1,850,000	57,251,000 7,105,000 933,000	75, 280, 000 (1) 2, 283, 000
Total				57, 268, 000	65, 289, 000	
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary proper Croatia-Slavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina.	² 2, 835, 000 2, 603, 000 (1) (1)	2, 664, 000 (1) (1) (1)	(1) (1) (1) (1)	² 132, 114, 000 86, 537, 000 4, 000, 000 3, 000, 000	2132,000,000 80,925,000 5,000,000 4,000,000	
Total Austria- Hungary				225,651,000	221, 925, 000	
Belgium Bulgaria Denmark Finland France Germany. Italy. Netherlands. Norway. Roumania.	686,000 379,000 3 1,059,000 (1) 8,873,000 10,843,000 1,213,000 346,000 8 270,000 1,056,000	$(1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 8, 062, 000 \\ 11, 404, 000 \\ 1, 208, 000 \\ 381, 000 \\ (1) \\ 1, 065, 000 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 0, 065, 000 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 0, 000 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 0, 000 \\ (1) \\ $	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	$\begin{array}{c} 49,742,000\\ 8,080,000\\ 38,653,000\\ 18,678,000\\ 274,455,000\\ 262,674,000\\ 26,827,000\\ 19,957,000\\ 9,325,000\\ 25,015,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 40,000,000\\ 9,545,000\\ 42,834,000\\ 22,000,000\\ 206,795,000\\ 412,400,000\\ 31,443,000\\ 19,644,000\\ 9,325,000\\ 29,054,000 \end{array}$	(1) 7,372,000 42,282,000 (1) 246,158,000 (1) 26,189,000 22,239,000 10,919,000 28,935,000
Russia: Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	39, 195, 000 (¹) 1, 099, 000	37, 302, 000 (1) 4 987, 000	35,491,000 (1) (1) (1)	692, 197, 000 (1) 30, 291, 000	745, 150, 000 (¹) 4 25, 303, 000	869,960,000 (1) (1)
Total	40, 294, 000	38, 289, 000		722, 488, 000	770, 453, 000	
Serbia. Spain Sweden	(1) 1,304,000 1,960,000	1,403,000 (1)	(1) 1, 391,000 (1)	5,000,090 31,227,000 52,557,000	$\begin{array}{r} 4,000,000\\ 36,949,000\\ 91,311,000 \end{array}$	(1) 34, 948, 000 (1)
United Kingdom: England. Wales. Scotland. Ireland.	$1,730,000 \\ 200,000 \\ 920,000 \\ 1,029,000$	1,889,000 199,000 972,000 1,089,000	1,862,000 222,000 990,000 1,072,000	$\begin{array}{c} 71, 408, 000 \\ 7, 431, 000 \\ 38, 115, 000 \\ 63, 287, 000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 78,409,000\\7,305,000\\40,313,000\\68,604,000\end{array}$	78,090,000 8,237,000 37,362,000 62,354,000
Total United Kingdom	3,879,000	4,139,000	4,146,000	180, 241, 000	194,631,000	186,043,000
Total				2,310,573,000	2, 142, 309, 000	

No official statistics.
 Galicia and Bukowina not included.

Census of 1910.
 Includes 1 government of Transcaucasia.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
ASIA. Cyprus	Acres. (1)	Acres. (1)	Acres. (1)	Bushels. 400,000	Bushels. 400,000	Bushels.
Russia: Central Asia (4 Gov- ernments of)	1,127,000	1,337,000	(1)	27,887,000	26,586,000	(1)
Siberia (4 govern- ments of)	5,148,000	5,161,000	(1)	133, 275, 000	6 8,381, 000	(1)
Transcausia (1 gov- ernment of)	2,000	(2)	(1)	31,000	(2)	(1)
Total Russia (Asiatic)	6,277,000			161, 193, 000	94,967,000	
Total				161, 59 3, 000	95, 367, 000	
AFRICA. Algeria. Funis Union of South Africa	573,000 99,000 (¹)	590,000 148,000 (¹)	(1) (1) (1)	10,000,000 689,000 39,661,000	15,082,000 3,445,000 39,661,000	(1) 2,067,000 (1)
Total				20, 350, 000	28, 188, 000	
AUSTRALASIA.						
Australia: Queensland New South Wales Victoria South Australia Western Australia Tasmania	4,000 103,000 442,000 117,000 134,000 59,000	3,000 43,000 435,000 141,000 96,000 57,000	$(1) \\ 61,000 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 103,000 \\ (1) $	58,000 1,893,000 9,170,000 1,239,000 1,708,000 1,644,000	$\begin{array}{r} \textbf{46,000}\\ 530,000\\ \textbf{1,659,000}\\ 380,000\\ \textbf{479,000}\\ \textbf{1,384,000}\end{array}$	(1) 1,454,000 (1) 1,843,000 (1)
Total Australia	859,000	775,000	725,000	15,712,000	4,478,000	17, 127, 000
New Zealand	362,000	288,000	213,000	15, 206, 000	11,797,000	7,894,000
Total Australasia	1,221,000	1,063,000	938,000	30, 918, 000	16,275,000	25,021,000
Grand total				4,034,857,000	4,416,578,000	

TABLE 26.-Oats: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914-1916-Contd.

TABLE 27.-Oats: Total production in countries named in Table 26, 1895-1916.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	_Year.	Production.
1895 1896 1897 1893 1899 1900	$\begin{array}{c} Bushels.\\ 3,008,154,000\\ 2,847,115,000\\ 2,633,971,000\\ 2,903,974,000\\ 3,256,256,000\\ 3,166,002,000 \end{array}$	1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906	Bushels. 2, 862, 615, 000 3, 626, 303, 000 3, 378, 034, 000 3, 611, 302, 000 3, 510, 167, 000 3, 544, 961, 000	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912	$\begin{array}{c} Bushels.\\ 3,603,896,000\\ 3,591,012,000\\ 4,312,882,000\\ 4,182,410,000\\ 3,808,561,000\\ 4,617,394,000\end{array}$	1913 1914 1915 1916	Bushels. 4, 697, 437, 000 4, 034, 857, 000 4, 416, 578, 000

TABLE 28.—Oats: Average yield per acre in undermentioned countries, 1890-1915.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euro- pean).1	Gér- many.1	Austria.1	Hungary proper.i	France.2	United King- dom. ²
A verage: 1890-1899 1900-1909	Bushels. 26.1 29.3	Bushels. 17.8 20.0	Bushels. 40.0 50.7	Bushels. 25.3 29.8	Bushcls. 30.7	Bushels. 29.8 31.6	Bushels. 43.0 41.3
1906	$\begin{array}{r} 31.2\\ 23.7\\ 25.0\\ 28.6\\ 31.6\\ 24.4\\ 37.4\\ 29.2\\ 29.7\\ 37.8\end{array}$	$15.1 \\ 19.7 \\ 20.1 \\ 25.7 \\ 22.5 \\ 18.6 \\ 23.6 \\ 26.3 \\ 17.9 \\ 17.9 \\ 19.1 \\ 19.1 \\ 19.1 \\ 10.1 \\ $	55.7 58.3 50.2 59.0 51.3 49.6 54.1 61.1 57.4 36.2	31.1 35.7 32.0 37.4 31.5 33.7 36.2 39.3 \$46.6	31.2 30.0 26.8 33.8 26.8 33.8 31.1 34.6 33.2	$\begin{array}{c} 27.0\\ 31.8\\ 29.6\\ 31.1\\ 29.8\\ 30.8\\ 31.9\\ 31.6\\ 30.9\\ 25.7 \end{array}$	43. 45. 43. 45. 44. 41. 41. 41. 43. 44. 44.
Average (1906-1915)	29.9						43.

¹ Bushels of 32 pounds.

² Winchester bushels.

³Galicia and Bukowina not included.

TABLE 29 .- Oats: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1916.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agri-culture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

		Arron		Aver-		Chie bi	ago cas ishel, c	h price ontrac	e per	Domestic exports,	Imports during
Year.	Acreage.	Aver- age yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	age farm price. per bushel	Farm value, Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.	Follo Ma	owing ay.	including oatmeal, fiscal year be- ginning	fiscal year begin- ning
			`	Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	ginning July 1.2	July 1.3
1849	A cres.	Bush.	Bushels. 146,584,000	Cts.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Bushels.	Bushels.
1859 1866 1867 1868 1869 1869	8,864,000 10,082,000 9,666,000 9,461,000	30. 2 27. 6 26. 4 30. 5	172, 643,000 268, 141,000 278, 698,000 254, 961,000 288, 334,000 282, 107,000	$35.1 \\ 44.5 \\ 41.7 \\ 38.0$	106, 356, 000	$36 \\ 52 \\ 43 \\ 40$	$\begin{array}{r} 43 \\ 57\frac{1}{4} \\ 49\frac{1}{4} \\ 44\frac{3}{4} \end{array}$	59 563 461		825, 895 122, 554 481, 871 121, 517	778, 198 780, 798 326, 659 2, 266, 785
1 870 1 871 1 872 1 873 1 874	8,792,000 8,366,000 9,001,000 9,752,000 10,897,000	30.6 30.2 27.7 22.1	$\begin{array}{c} 247,277,000\\ 255,743,000\\ 271,747,000\\ 270,340,000\\ 240,369,000 \end{array}$	39.0 36.2 29.9 34.6 47.1	96, 444, 000 92, 591, 000 81, 304, 000 93, 474, 000 113, 134, 000	$373 \\ 303 \\ 231 \\ 34 \\ 513 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 3$	$25\frac{3}{40\frac{5}{8}}$	$\begin{array}{r} 47\frac{1}{3}\\ 34\frac{3}{4}\\ 30\\ 44\\ 57\frac{1}{4}\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c c} 42\frac{1}{2} \\ 34 \\ 48\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	147, 572 262, 975 714, 072 812, 873 504, 770	599, 514 535, 250 225, 555 191, 802 1, 500, 040
1375 1876 1877 1878 1879 1879	13,359,000 12,826,000 13,176,000	31.4	354, 318, 000 320, 884, 000 406, 394, 000 413, 579, 000 363, 761, 000	32. 0 32. 4 28. 4 24. 6 33. 1	$103,845,000 \\115,546,000 \\101,752,000$	313 241 195	$ \begin{array}{r} 34\frac{1}{2} \\ 27 \\ 20\frac{3}{8} \end{array} $	285 371 23 243 291	45 <u>3</u> 27 30 1	2,854,128 3,715,479 5,452,136	41,597
1880 1881 1882 1883 1884	16,188,000 16,832,000 18,495,000 20,325,000	25.8 24.7 26.4 28.1	$\begin{array}{c} 417,885,000\\ 416,481,000\\ 488,251,000\\ 571,302,000 \end{array}$		193, 199, 000	291 431 34 291 221	36	48 38 30	37	0,203,104	64, 41 2 1, 850, 983 815, 017 121, 069 94, 310
1885 1889 1887 1887 1888 1889 1889 1889	$\begin{array}{c} 22,784,000\\ 23,658,000\\ 25,921,000\\ 26,998,000\\ 27,462,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 27.6 \\ 26.4 \\ 25.4 \\ 26.0 \\ 27.4 \end{array}$	629, 409, 000 624, 134, 000 659, 618, 000 701, 735, 000 751, 515, 000	28.5 29.8 30.4 27.8 22.9	179,632,000 186,138,000 200,700,000 195,424,000	27 25 28 25	$\begin{array}{c} 29 \\ 27\frac{1}{2} \\ 30\frac{7}{2} \\ 26\frac{7}{3} \\ 21 \end{array}$	324	271 38 235	1,374,638	139 575
1890 1891 1892 1893 1894	26,431,000 25,582,000 27,064,000	$\begin{array}{c} 19.8 \\ 19.8 \\ 28.9 \\ 24.4 \\ 23.4 \\ 24.5 \end{array}$	523, 621, 000 738, 394, 000 661, 035, 000 638, 855, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 42.4\\ 31.5\\ 31.7\\ 29.4\\ 32.4\end{array}$	232, 312, 000 209, 254, 000 187, 576, 000	39 31 25 27 28	33 31 29	32	331 321 36	2,700,793 6,290,229	41.848 47,782 49,433 31,759 330,318
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899 1899	27,878,000	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c} 824, 444, 000\\ 707, 346, 000\\ 698, 768, 000\\ 730, 907, 000\\ 796, 178, 000\end{array}$		163,655,000 132,485,000 147,975,000 186,405,000	16 16 16 21	18 23 27	$167 \\ 26$	32 273	15,156,618 37,725,083 73,880,30 33,534,365	66 602
1900 1901 1902 1903 1904	$ \begin{array}{c} 27,365,000\\ 28,541,000\\ 28,653,000\\ 27,638,000 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 29.6 \\ 0 & 25.8 \\ 0 & 34.5 \\ 0 & 28.4 \\ 0 & 32.1 \end{array}$	809, 126, 000 736, 809, 000 987, 843, 000 784, 094, 000	25.8 39.9 30.7 34.1	293, 659, 000 303, 585, 000 267, 662, 000 279, 900, 000	20	48 32 38		49 38 44	8,381,803 1,960,740 8,394,692	2 00,099
1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	. 28,047,000 30,959,000 31,837,000 32,344,000 33,204,000	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2 - 964, 905, 000 754, 443, 000 807, 156, 000 1,007, 353,000) 31, 7) 44, 3) 47, 2	7 306, 293, 000 3 334, 568, 000 2 381, 171, 000		35 507 507	$ \begin{array}{r} 44 \\ 52 \\ 56 \end{array} $	48 56 62		40,025 91,289 5 383,418 7 6,691,700
1909 1910 4 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	<pre>35,159,00 37,548,00 37,763,00 37,917,00 38,399,00 38,442,00 40,996,00</pre>	$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1,007,143,000\\ 1,186,341,000\\ 922,298,000\\ 1,418,337,000\\ 1,121,768,000\\ 7,1,141,060,000\\ 1,549,030,000\\ 1,251,992,000 \end{array} \right\}$	$\begin{array}{cccc} & 40, 2 \\ & 34, 4 \\ & 45, 0 \\ & 31, 9 \\ & 39, 2 \\ & 43, 8 \\ & 36, 1 \\ \end{array}$	408, 388, 000 414, 663, 000 452, 469, 000 439, 596, 000 499, 431, 000	$\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 31 \\ 0 & 46 \\ 0 & 31 \\ 0 & 37 \\ 0 & 46 \\ 0 & 40 \\ \end{array}$	32) 47 31 40 40 49 49 49	50 35 37	7 36 58 1 43	3,845,850	2 2,622,357

 Quotations are for No. 2 to 1906.
 Oatmeal not included 1866 to 1852, inclusive.
 Gatmeal not included 1866 to census basis. 3 Oatmeal not included 1867 to 1882, inclusive, and 1909.

Statistics of Oats.

OATS-Continued.

TABLE 30.—Oats: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1915 and 1916.

State.	Thousands	of acres.	Production sands of b		Total value, ba Dec. 1 pri (thousands dollars).		
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	
Maine. New Hampshire	170 12 80 15 2	$175 \\ 12 \\ 81 \\ 12 \\ 2$	6,120 414 2,560 480 54	7,000 456 3,483 432 66	4,100 306 1,664 317 37	3,150 246 1,846 220 33	
Connecticut	$15 \\ 1,206 \\ 69 \\ 1,130 \\ 4$	$13 \\ 1,340 \\ 70 \\ 1,140 \\ 4$	$\begin{array}{r} 450\\ 31,356\\ 2,070\\ 35,030\\ 120 \end{array}$	422 54, 270 2, 275 43, 320 134	310 19,441 1,263 19,967 74	232 24, 422 1, 092 19, 061 68	
Maryland Virginia. West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina.	$\begin{array}{r} 46 \\ 250 \\ 140 \\ 375 \\ 500 \end{array}$	$45 \\ 225 \\ 120 \\ 350 \\ 525$	$1,357 \\ 5,750 \\ 3,220 \\ 6,562 \\ 9,000$	1,530 5,625 3,480 8,050 9,975	828 3,622 2,061 4,856 7,200	750 3,094 1,775 4,991 6,683	
Georgia Florida Obio Indiana Illinois	1,717 1,750	905 61 1,683 1,638 4,343	$16,770 \\900 \\48,076 \\52,500 \\172,095$	17, 648 1, 220 69, 003 65, 520 195, 435	$13,248 \\ 639 \\ 25,480 \\ 26,775 \\ 87,768$	$11,648\\854\\24,841\\22,277\\68,402$	
Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri.	$1,423 \\ 2,200 \\ 3,325 \\ 5,050$	$1,530 \\ 2,100 \\ 3,225 \\ 4,950 \\ 1,225$	42,690 81,400 88,112 186,850 32,250	64,260 97,650 138,675 198,000 31,850	22,626 41,514 41,413 89,688 17,092	$\begin{array}{c} 22,491\\ 35,154\\ 44,376\\ 63,360\\ 12,103 \end{array}$	
North Dakota	$2,500 \\1,850 \\2,250 \\1,550$	$2,450 \\1,725 \\2,200 \\1,500 \\250$	53,750 56,425 79,875 36,425 6,300	98,000 72,450 70,400 39,750 6,500	$23,650 \\ 25,956 \\ 37,541 \\ 20,034 \\ 3,780$	$\begin{array}{c} 26,460\\ 20,286\\ 21,824\\ 14,708\\ 3,120 \end{array}$	
Tennessee. Alabama Mississippi Louisiana.	360 600 320 110	$357 \\ 600 \\ 300 \\ 120 \\ 1,500$	$7,560 \\10,500 \\5,760 \\2,090 \\42,750$	8,746 11,400 6,450 3,000 53,250	4,687 7,875 4,262 1,421 26,078	4,373 7,182 3,870 1,650 22,365	
Oklahoma. Arkansas. Montana. Wyoming. Colorado.	660 245	$1,350 \\ 375 \\ 600 \\ 227 \\ 300$	15,080 7,350 25,080 8,575 9,570	36,450 10,125 31,200 9,534 11,700	$\begin{array}{c} 8,596\\ 4,998\\ 11,788\\ 5,145\\ 5,742\end{array}$	$12,758 \\ 5,265 \\ 9,984 \\ 4,100 \\ 4,797 \\ \end{array}$	
New Mexico. Arizona. Utah. Nevada.	64 9 103	60 9 100 13	$1,856 \\ 338 \\ 4,480 \\ 602$	$2,160 \\ 333 \\ 4,700 \\ 585$	$1,244 \\ 270 \\ 2,733 \\ 452$	1,080 213 2,115 322	
Idaho Washington Oregon California	360	335 275 365 211	14,300 17,280	$15,745 \\ 13,750 \\ 16,060 \\ 6,963$	7, 198 7, 293 8, 467 4, 680	5,353 5,088 5,942 3,482	
United States	41,539	40,996	1,251,992	1,549,030	656, 179	559, 500	

TABLE 31.-Oats: Production and distribution in the United States, 1897-1916.

Year.	Old stock on farms Aug. 1.	Crop.	Total supplies.	Stock on farms Mar. 1 following.	Shipped out of county where grown.
1897	44,554 50,537	Bushels. 698, 768 730, 907 796, 178 809, 126 736, 809	Bushels. 769, 907 775, 461 846, 715 863, 340 784, 522	Bushels. 271, 729 283, 209 290, 937 292, 803 226, 393	Bushels. 204, 147 193, 527 223, 014 242, 850 143, 398
1902 1903 1904 1904 1905 1906	30, 570 73, 352 42, 194 55, 836 67, 688	987, 843 784, 094 894, 596 953, 216 964, 905	$1,018,413 \\857,446 \\936,790 \\1,009,052 \\1,032,593$	364,926 273,708 347,166 379,805 384,461	258, 438 223, 959 261, 989 277, 133 266, 182
1907 1908 1909 1909 1910 1911	68,258 37,797 26,323 61,420 67,793	754,443	$\begin{array}{r} 822,701\\ 844,953\\ 1,033,466\\ 1,247,761\\ 990,091 \end{array}$	267, 476 278, 847 365, 438 442, 665 289, 988	$\begin{array}{c} 210,923\\ 244,444\\ 329,255\\ 363,103\\ 265,958 \end{array}$
1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	$\begin{array}{r} 34,872 \\ 103,900 \\ 62,467 \\ 55,607 \\ 113,728 \end{array}$	1,418,337 1,121,768 1,141,060 1,549,030 1,251,992	$\begin{array}{c}1,453,209\\1,225,663\\1,203,527\\1,604,637\\1,365,720\end{array}$	604, 216 419, 476 379, 369 598, 148	438, 084 297, 326 335, 539 465, 82 3

[000 omitted.]

TABLE 32.-Oats: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

				Yield	1 per	асте	e (bu	shels	5).			F٤	rm j	price (cen		bush	lel	Value per acre (dollars).1	
State.	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year average, 1911-1915.	1916
Mo N. H. Vt. Mass. R. I.	35.8 37.6 34.4	32.5 34.0 35.0	33.0	31.5 32.2 31.0	42.8 41.5 35.5	33.8 35.0 35.0	39.0 43.0 34.0) 35.0) 39.0) 35.0	38.0 42.5 37.0	38.0 43.0 36.0	37.0 32.0 32.0 32.0	$ 58 \\ 56 \\ 56 $	51 48 48 47 45	$55 \\ 56 \\ 52 \\ 54 \\ 50 \\ 50 \\ cm + 10 \\ cm +$	57 58 55 56 58	45 54 53 51 50	69 65 66	20.30 21.55 18.85	24.12 25.53 20.80 21.12 18.36
Conn N. Y N. J Pa. Del.	31.5 29.9 31.0	30.7 29.5 29.6	30.1 30.7 27.3	28.2 25.5 26.0	34.5 37.1 35.2	29.5 28.5 28.3	30.8 27.6 33.1	33.5 29.0 31.0	31.5 29.0 30.0	40.5 32.5 38.6	5 26.0 530.0 31.0	50 51 49	49 42 44 41 45	55 47 47 46 51	55 51 54 51 50	55 45 48 44 51	62 61 57	$15.60 \\ 14.26 \\ 14.80$	20.70 16.12 18.30 17.67 18.60
Md. Va. W. Va. N. C. S. C.	20.7 23.2 17.9	19.6 19.3 15.6	19.1 19.0 16.5	$19.0 \\ 22.0 \\ 16.5$	$22.0 \\ 25.2 \\ 18.2$	20.0 22.0 16.5	22.2 28.0 18.0	21.5 24.0 19.5	15.5 20.0 17.5	25.0 29.0 23.0	23.0 23.0 17.5	54 54 64	45 52 47 62 66	48 52 51 61 71	52 58 55 65 71	49 55 51 62 67	63 64 74	$11.25 \\ 12.70 \\ 11.89$	1 <i>č</i> . 00 14. 49 14. 72 12. 95 14. 40
Ga Fla. Ohio Ind. Ill.	16.3 32.5 29.6	13.7 22.8 20.2	14.5 26.4 21.2	17.0 32.5 30.5	$16.2 \\ 37.2 \\ 35.4$	13.5 32.1 28.7	17.2 44.0 40.1	2 18.0 30.2 21.4	18.0 30.5 28.5	20.0 41.0 40.0	(15.0) (28.0) (30.0)	71 42 40	65 70 33 30 30	68 70 40 38 38	70 70 45 43 44	66 70 36 34 35	71 53 51	$12.27 \\ 13.90 \\ 11.67$	15.40'10.6514.8415.3019.64
Mich. Wis. Minn. Iowa. Mo.	33.2 30.8 32.8	22.0 21.5 21.2	31.1 22.0 24.3	35.0 33.0 27.0	$29.8 \\ 28.7 \\ 37.8 \end{cases}$	29.8 22.8 25.5	37.3 41.7 44.2	36.5 37.8 34.5	27.0 28.0 33.0	46.3 43.0 40.0	537.0 26.5 37.0	$ \begin{array}{r} 41 \\ 37 \\ 36 \end{array} $	33 32 26 27 35	39 37 32 34 45	45 43 40 41 44	35 36 32 32 38	51 47 48	$13.44 \\ 11.40$	12.48 17.76

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

			Y	'ield	per	acre	bu (bu	shels	5).			Fa	rm j	price (cen		busl	hel	per	lue acre lars) .1
State.	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year aver- ace, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	101 (1915	1916	5-year average, 1911–1915.	1916
N. Dak. S. Dak. Nebr. Kans. Ky.	26.8 26.0 24.8	$24.7 \\ 20.4 \\ 15.0$	23.0 22.0 22.0	30.0 25.0 28.2	23.0 28.0 33.3	7.4 13.9 15.0	33.8 24.4 32.0	26.5 26.5 19.5	27.5 32.0 33.5	$\begin{array}{c} 42.0\\ 32.0\\ 26.5 \end{array}$	21.5 30.5 35.5 23.5 21.0	36 37 42	- 30	30 34 38 45 52		27 28 31 37 48	47 55	10.57 9.22 10.12	9.46 14.03 16.68 12.92 12.60
Tenn Ala. Miss La. Tox	18.9 18.9 20.7	17.5 17.9 14.5	$18.0 \\ 17.5 \\ 20.0$	16.5 16.0 20.0	$ \begin{array}{r} 18.5 \\ 19.2 \\ 21.5 \end{array} $	19.2 18.4 21.0	20.0 17.4 20.8	20.5 20.0 22.0	22.0 23.0 23.0	$ \begin{array}{r} 19.0 \\ 21.5 \\ 25.0 \end{array} $	21.0 17.5 18.0 19.0 28.5	67 64 59	$47 \\ 62 \\ 60 \\ 51 \\ 43$	53 69 63 57 51	53 69 65 63 48	50 63 60 55 42	$75 \\ 74 \\ 68$	13.27 12.57 13.01	$13.02 \\ 13.12 \\ 13.32 \\ 12.92 \\ 17.38$
Mont	23.0 44.6 36.7	19.5 49.0 37.0	$21.4 \\ 41.6 \\ 36.4$	$22.8 \\ 51.3 \\ 35.0$	27.5 38.0 32.0	20.0 49.8 34.5	$ \begin{array}{c} 19.9 \\ 48 \\ 41.8 \end{array} $	26.5 43.5 38.0	24.0 35.0 35.0	27.0 52.0 42.0	13.0 21.0 38.0 35.0 33.0	54 41 48		$45 \\ 53 \\ 32 \\ 40 \\ 44$	53 39 48	35 52 32 43 41	68 47 60	12.27 16.19 16.56	$\begin{array}{r} 7.41 \\ 14.28 \\ 17.86 \\ 21.00 \\ 19.80 \end{array}$
N. Mex. Ariz. Utah. Nev.	$38.8 \\ 46.1$	29.0 45.0	$36.0 \\ 49.5$	37.0 46.1	$ \begin{array}{r} 40.1 \\ 43.0 \end{array} $	42.0 44.7	44.7	43.0 46.0	42.0 50.0	37.0 47.0	29.0 37.5 43.5 43.0	70 48	49	60 50 40 65	70 43	$50 \\ 64 \\ 45 \\ 55$	80 61	26.21 20.96	19.4330.0026.5432.25
Idaho Wash Oreg Cal	48.8 38.3	55.5 35.0	$ \begin{array}{r} 44.5 \\ 33.4 \end{array} $	$\frac{49.0}{37.8}$	42.8 34.5	51.7 34.7	48.2	47.5 42.3	47.0 35.0	50.0 11.0	$ \begin{array}{c} 43.0 \\ 52.0 \\ 18.0 \\ 32.5 \end{array} $	44 41	41	$32 \\ 40 \\ 38 \\ 60$	42 45	$34 \\ 37 \\ 37 \\ 50$	51 49	$19.96 \\ 15.81$	23.22 26.52 23.52 23.40
U. S	29.9	23.7	25.0	30.3	31.6	24.4	37.4	29.2	29.7	37.8	30.1	41.5	31.9	39.2	43.8	36.1	5 2. 4	12.20	15.80

 TABLE 32.—Oats: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States—Continued.

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

 TABLE 33.—Oats: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1915 and 1916.

Month.		ited tes.	North Atlantic States.		South Atlantic States.		N. Central States east of Miss, R.		N. Central States west of Miss. R.		Сел	ath tral tes.	Far V ern S	West- tates.
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	19 16	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
January February March April May June	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 39.1\\ 44.6\\ 42.7\\ 42.0\\ 42.6\\ 42.1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 45. \ 0 \\ 50. \ 1 \\ 52. \ 1 \\ 53. \ 4 \\ 53. \ 4 \\ 51. \ 3 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts, \\ 45, 9 \\ 50, 6 \\ 50, 7 \\ 51, 5 \\ 52, 6 \\ 53, 9 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 52.5\\ 57.0\\ 61.2\\ 61.5\\ 64.3\\ 62.2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 63.\ 4\\ 64.\ 3\\ 64.\ 6\\ 65.\ 8\\ 65.\ 6\\ 66.\ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 65.7 \\ 67.4 \\ 70.2 \\ 71.8 \\ 70.9 \\ 70.4 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 38.4\\ 45.5\\ 41.7\\ 40.9\\ 41.9\\ 40.8 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts,\\ 45,1\\511\\52,0\\54,1\\54,0\\51,4\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 35.4\\ 41.5\\ 38.2\\ 37.6\\ 38.2\\ 37.3 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 41.9 \\ 47.1 \\ 48.8 \\ 50.1 \\ 49.6 \\ 47.9 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 45.4 \\ 47.5 \\ 51.0 \\ 50.1 \\ 49.4 \\ 50.3 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 51.5\\ 56.1\\ 59.6\\ 60.9\\ 58.9\\ 56.6 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts:\\ 39,3\\ 40,8\\ 46,1\\ 43,7\\ 44,0\\ 44,8 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 43.4 \\ 46.1 \\ 50.2 \\ 49.8 \\ 52.1 \\ 49.9 \end{array}$
July. August. September October. November December.	$\begin{array}{r} 40.4\\ 40.1\\ 43.1\\ 44.5\\ 49.0\\ 52.4\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 46.7\\ 45.4\\ 38.5\\ 34.5\\ 34.9\\ 36.1 \end{array}$	$51.3 \\ 50.5 \\ 52.2 \\ 52.8 \\ 53.1 \\ 60.3$	$\begin{array}{c} 61.5\\ 59.3\\ 54.9\\ 46.6\\ 45.5\\ 45.0\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 63.\ 9\\ 64.\ 2\\ 66.\ 2\\ 68.\ 9\\ 72.\ 6\\ 74.\ 5\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 66.\ 3\\ 63.\ 6\\ 62.\ 9\\ 63.\ 6\\ 62.\ 3\\ 62.\ 7\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 38.4\\ 38.6\\ 41.5\\ 42.9\\ 48.1\\ 51.5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 46.2\\ 44.0\\ 36.1\\ 32.1\\ 33.5\\ 35.2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 36.1\\ 35.8\\ 39.0\\ 40.6\\ 44.6\\ 47.9\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 43.\ 0\\ 42.\ 9\\ 34.\ 2\\ 30.\ 4\\ 30.\ 7\\ 31.\ 3\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 47.\ 2\\ 44.\ 6\\ 51.\ 6\\ 53.\ 7\\ 57.\ 7\\ 63.\ 4\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 49.1\\ 45.6\\ 44.5\\ 44.6\\ 44.4\\ 44.6\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 45.9\\ 46.1\\ 45.2\\ 44.6\\ 49.4\\ 54.0\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 47.9\\ 46.6\\ 42.9\\ 37.2\\ 37.1\\ 37.7\end{array}$
Average	43.9	42.7	52.9	54.2	66.7	66.1	42.8	42.1	40.0	38, 4	50, 3	48.0	46.2	42.3

TABLE 34.—Oats: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1896-1916.

Year	June.	July.	August.	When har- vested.	Year.	June.	July.	August.	When har- vested.	Year.	June.	July	August.	When har- vested.
1896 1897 1898 1899 1900 1901 1902	P. ct. 98. 8 89. 0 98. 0 88. 7 91. 7 85. 3 90. 6	$\begin{array}{c} P. ct. \\ 96.3 \\ 87.5 \\ 92.8 \\ 90.0 \\ 85.5 \\ 83.7 \\ 92.1 \end{array}$	P. ct. 77.3 86.0 84.2 90.8 85.0 73.6 89.4	$\begin{array}{c} P. ct. \\ 74.0 \\ 84.6 \\ 79.0 \\ 87.2 \\ 82.9 \\ 72.1 \\ 87.2 \end{array}$	1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	$\begin{array}{c} P. ct. \\ 85.5 \\ 89.2 \\ 92.9 \\ 85.9 \\ 81.6 \\ 92.9 \\ 88.7 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} P. ct. \\ 84.3 \\ 89.8 \\ 92.1 \\ 84.0 \\ 81.0 \\ 85.7 \\ 88.3 \end{array}$	P. ct. 79.5 86.6 90.8 82.8 75.6 76.8 85.5	P. ct. 75.7 85.6 90.3 81.9 65.5 69.7 83.8	1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	P. ct. 91.0 85.7 91.1 87.0 89.5 92.2 86.9	P. ct. 82. 2 68. 8 89. 2 76. 3 84. 7 93. 9 86. 3	P. ct. 81.5 65.7 90.3 73.8 79.4 91.6 81.5	P. ct. 83.3 64.5 92.3 74.0 75.8 91.1 78.0

	New	York.	Balt	imore.		cin- ti.	Chie	cago.		wau- ee.	Dul	uth.	Det	troi t.		Fran-
Date.). 2 ite. ¹		5.3 lite.		. 2 xed.	Cont	tract.	Ne wh	o.3 nite.		o.3 uite.	Stan	ıdard.	Whit 100	e (per lbs.).
	Low.	Пigh.	Low.	Пigh.	Low.	Πi h.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Lo₩.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec.	Cts. 531 381 382	$Cts. \\ 64 \\ 62^{1}_{2}$	$Cts. 52\frac{3}{4} 37\frac{1}{2}$	$Cts. \\ 65 \\ 66\frac{1}{2}$	Cts. 50 32	Cts. 61 55	Cts. 463 304	Cts. 58½ 57	$Cts. 47 \\ 30\frac{3}{4}$	Cts. 593 57	Cts. 447 283	Cts. 56 ¹ / ₈ 51	Cts. 501 331 332	633	Dolls 1, 70 1, 47 ¹ / ₂	Dolls. 2.121 1.95
1913. JanJune July-Dec.	$\begin{array}{c} 36\frac{1}{2}\\ 44 \end{array}$	$^{48}_{50}$	$38\frac{1}{2}$ 45	47 471	$\frac{331}{39}$	$43\frac{1}{2}$ 47	$31\frac{5}{36\frac{3}{8}}$	431 433	$31\frac{1}{4}\ 37\frac{1}{2}$	$42\frac{1}{2}$ 44	$27\frac{1}{8}$ $33\frac{7}{8}$	41 <u>3</u> 42 <u>1</u>	34½ 41	44 <u>1</u> 45 <u>1</u>	1.431/1.371/2	1.67 1 1.571
1914. JanJune July-Dec.	$43\frac{1}{43\frac{1}{2}}$		$42\frac{1}{2}$ $41\frac{1}{2}$	$46\frac{3}{54\frac{1}{2}}$	$391 \\ 35$	$43 \\ 52^{1}_{2}$	$\frac{36_8^5}{33_2^1}$	421 511	$36\frac{1}{2}$ $34\frac{1}{4}$	43 52	335 335	$40 \\ 50\frac{5}{8}$	391 373	45 53	$1.22\frac{1}{2}$ 1.20	1.461 1.60
1915. Jan Feb Mar May June	$55\frac{1}{61\frac{1}{2}}\\61\frac{1}{59}\\53\frac{3}{3}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 64 \\ 66 \\ 66 \\ 66 \\ 64 \\ 63 \\ 57 \\ 2 \end{array} $		$\begin{array}{c} 60\frac{1}{2} \\ 62\frac{1}{2} \\ 64 \\ 62\frac{3}{4} \\ 62 \\ 56\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$51 \\ 57 \\ 56 \\ 56^{1}_{2} \\ 51^{1}_{2} \\ 46$	581 591 611 592 57 57 52	$\begin{array}{r} 49 \\ 53 \\ 535 \\ 535 \\ 535 \\ 501 \\ 463 \end{array}$	58 60 60 $57\frac{1}{2}$ 56 49 49 3	$50 \\ 53 \\ 53 \\ 54 \\ 54 \\ 51 \\ 47 \\ 47 \\ 47 \\ 47 \\ 1$	$583 \\ 61 \\ 611 \\ 58 \\ 563 \\ 501 \\ 511 \\ 2$	$\begin{array}{c} 491\\521\\513\\52\\52\\501\\441\\5\end{array}$	567 583 583 583 583 583 563 541 483	561 561 581 541	$ \begin{array}{c} 62 \\ 62 \\ 61 \\ 61 \\ \hline \end{array} $	$1.50 \\ 1.77 \\ 1.72 \\ 1.72 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.65 \\ 1.40 $	1.85 1.85 1.80 1.80 1.80 1.80 1.70
JanJune	$53\frac{3}{4}$	661	50	64	46	611	463	60s	471	6112	44 ¹ / ₅	587	50	62	1.40	1.85
July Aug Sept Oct Nov Dec	55 Non do	65½ 70½ ninal.	$\frac{41}{38}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 631 \\ 66 \\ 40 \\ 42 \\ 43 \\ 48 \\ 48 $		$58 \\ 54 \\ 38 \\ 39 \\ 39 \\ 39 \\ 45$	$\begin{array}{r} 48_4^3\\ 46\\ 35_2^1\\ 35_4^2\\ 35_4^3\\ 37_4^1\\ 40_8^7\end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 59\frac{1}{2} \\ 00 \\ 39 \\ 39\frac{3}{8} \\ 41\frac{1}{2} \\ 44 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 49 \\ 331 \\ 34 \\ 351 \\ 351 \\ 401 \end{array}$	$ 38 \\ 38 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 1 $	$\begin{array}{c} 47 \\ 331 \\ 32 \\ 315 \\ 324 \\ 378 \\ 378 \end{array}$	58 541 335 353 353 377 427	$ 36\frac{1}{2} 39 38 $	40	$\begin{array}{c} 1.421\\ 1.37\frac{1}{2}\\ 1.30\\ 1.30\\ 1.35\\ 1.32\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	1.50 1.40 1.40 1.40
July-Dec.	55	-70^{1}_{2}	38	66	33	58	$35\frac{1}{2}$	60	33}	63	31§	58	361	65	1.30	1.50
1916. Jan Feb Mar May June	48^{1}_{2}	$57! \\ 56! \\ 56! \\ 56! \\ 51! \\ 52! \\ 46!$	$ \begin{array}{c} 48 \\ 47 \\ 451 \\ 47 \\ 43 \\ 43 \\ 43 \end{array} $	$551 \\ 55 \\ 47 \\ 491 \\ 501 \\ 443 \\ 443 \\ 443 \\ 501 \\ 443 \\ 501 \\ 443 \\ 501 \\ $	44 42 42 43 38 38	$55\frac{1}{53}$ 46 46 46 45 $40\frac{1}{2}$	$\begin{array}{r} 43^{1}_{4}\\ 41^{3}_{4}\\ 42\\ 44^{1}_{3}\\ 39^{1}_{3}\\ 37^{2}_{3}\end{array}$	$51 \\ 50 \\ 47 \\ 47 \\ 491 \\ 411 \\ 2$	$\begin{array}{r} 43\frac{1}{4}\\ 40\frac{3}{4}\\ 41\\ 43\frac{3}{4}\\ 38\frac{3}{4}\\ 38\frac{3}{4}\\ 38\frac{1}{4}\end{array}$	$521 \\ 461 \\ 463 \\ 463 \\ 463 $	$\begin{array}{c} 421\\ 383\\ 394\\ 411\\ 373\\ 36\\ 36\\ \end{array}$	491 477 421 425 433 388	$ \begin{array}{r} 441 \\ 441 \\ 461 \\ 461 \\ 41 \\ \end{array} $	531 48 48	$\begin{array}{c} 1, 32 \\ 1, 42 \\ 1, 40 \\ 1, 40 \\ 1, 40 \\ 1, 50 \end{array}$	1.551.551.451.421.571.571.55
JanJune	441	571	43	554	38	531	373	51	381	55	361	493	41	551	$1.32\frac{1}{2}$	1. 57
July Aug Sept Oct Nov Dec	$45\frac{5}{4}$ 45 $51\frac{5}{4}$	$\begin{array}{c} & 47\frac{1}{2} \\ & 54 \\ & 55 \\ & 592 \\ & 64 \\ & 61\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$\begin{vmatrix} 45\\50 \\51\\57 \\57 \\57 \\57 \end{vmatrix}$	$= \frac{46}{51\frac{1}{2}} \\ 52\frac{1}{2} \\ 58} \\ 61\frac{1}{60\frac{1}{2}} \\ 60\frac{1}{2}$	= 39 41 46 ¹ / ₂ 53 ¹ / ₂ 84	$\begin{array}{c} - \\ 423 \\ 473 \\ 483 \\ 55 \\ 583 \\ 91 \end{array}$	441 453	47 47 47 53 3 3 3 3 3	$ \begin{array}{r} 381 \\ 403 \\ 44 \\ 46 \\ 511 \\ 481 \\ 481 \\ \end{array} $	49 484 514 584	$\begin{array}{c} 36 \\ 38 \\ 42 \\ 43 \\ 50 \\ 44 \\ 44 \\ \end{array}$	40 471 453 511 571 571	48 49 <u>1</u> 55	49 51 <u>1</u> 57 601	$\begin{array}{c} 1.50\\ 1.57\frac{1}{2}\\ 1.62\frac{1}{2}\\ 1.62\frac{1}{2}\\ 1.95\\ 2.00 \end{array}$	1.60 1.721 1.722 2.00 2.071 2.071
July-Dec.	411	64	43 4	613	39	91	388	54	381	583	365	57	421	60}	1.50	2.07

TABLE 35.—Oats: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1916.

¹ No. 3 white in 1916.

TABLE 36.—Oats: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)
Algeria	Bushels. 3,888	Bushels. 5,291	Bushels. 4,011	Netherlands	Bushels. 31,131	Bushels. 14,411	Bushels.
Argentina Bulgaria	61,298 173	24,368	40, 840	Roumania Russia	11,963 41,309	7,030 19,235	117
Canada. China.	31,732 285	20,174 324	18,496 324	Sweden United Kingdom	4,730 1,655	2,651 1,321	723
Chile. Denmark	3,687 194	3,372 168	7,313 2	United States Other countries	5,275 4,221	35,067 3,768	104,549
Finland Germany	$456 \\ 45,584$	350	237	Total	247,581	137,560	

IMPORTS.

Austria-Hungary Belgium Denmark Cuba Finland. France. Cermany Italv Notherlands Norway.	$\begin{array}{c} 9,555\\ 4,224\\ 1,603\\ 39,992\\ 39,992\\ 35,473\\ -7,331\\ -7,331\\ -455\\ 38,711\\ 20,006\\ \end{array}$	1,004 157 56,610 2,765	Philippine Islands. Russia. Sweden Switzerland. United Kingdom United States Other countries Total	4,431 12,205 64,470	74 1,899 5,008 10,235 55,905 9,429 4,830 151,021	441 276 2,072 6,913 59,165 364
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BARLEY.

TABLE 37.—Barley: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914-1916.

0		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	, 1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA.	A cres. 7, 565, 000	A cres. 7,148,000	A cres. 7, 674, 000	Bushels. 194, 953, 000	Bushels. 228, 851, 000	Bushels. 180,927,000
Canada: New Brunswick Quebec Ontario. Manitoba. Saskatchewan Alberta. Other.	$\begin{array}{c} 2,000\\ 85,000\\ 461,000\\ 468,000\\ 290,000\\ 178,000\\ 12,000 \end{array}$	2,000 85,000 449,000 490,000 287,000 185,000 11,000	$\begin{array}{r} 2,000\\ 77,000\\ 340,000\\ 475,000\\ 262,000\\ 161,000\\ 12,000\end{array}$	64,000 2,261,000 13,987,000 9,828,000 4,901,000 4,800,000 354,000	48,000 2,255,000 15,369,000 17,763,000 10,570,000 6,984,000 342,000	(1)
Total Canada	1,496,000	1,509,000	1,329,000	36, 201, 000	53, 331, 000	41,318,000
Mexico	292,000	(1)	(1)	10, 839, 000	10,000,000	(1)
Total				241, 993, 000	292, 182, 000	
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina. Chile. Uruguay.	$\begin{array}{r} 418,000\\ 153,000\\ 14,000\end{array}$	375,000 224,000 5,000	431,000 (1) 10,000		5,144,000 3,750,000 40,000	(1) (1) 115,000
Total				13, 769, 000	8,934,000	

¹ No official statistics.

TABLE 37.-Barley: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914-1916-Con.

		Area.	·		Production.				
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916			
EUROPE.									
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary proper Croatia-Slavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina.	Acres. 1,729,000 2,705,000 (²) (²) (²)	A cres. (⁻) 2,830,000 (²) (²)	Acres. (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	Bushels. ¹ 58, 458, 000 65, 265, 000 1, 940, 000 3, 000, 000	Bushels. 258,000,000 56,186,000 1,938,000 3,000,000	Bushels. (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)			
Total Austria- Hungary				128,663,000	119, 124, 000				
Belgium Bulgaria Denmark Finland France Germany Italy Netherlan ⁴ 8 Norway Roumania	84,000 554,000 (²) 1,780,000 3,909,000 610,000 67,000 (²) 1,405,000	(2) (2) (644,000 (2) 1,575,000 4,002,000 608,000 (63,000 (2) 1,371,000	(2) (3) (33,000 (2) 1,547,000 (3) 596,000 60,000 98,000 1,454,000	$\begin{array}{c} 4,232,000\\ 9,217,000\\ 20,780,000\\ 4,047,000\\ 42,719,000\\ 144,125,000\\ 6,917,000\\ 3,019,000\\ 2,591,000\\ 25,505,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 4,000,000\\ 14,697,000\\ 25,898,000\\ 5,000,000\\ 30,963,000\\ 114,077,000\\ 11,050,000\\ 32,323,000\\ 2,821,000\\ 28,688,000\\ \end{array}$	(2) 14, 739,000 22, 306,000 (2) 37, 778,000 (2) 10, 104,000 2, 499,000 3, 026,000 30,038,000			
Russia: Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	$25,260,000 \\ (2) \\ 4,495,000$	24,094,000 (²) 4,404,000	25, 105, 000 (²) (²)	$310, 249, 000$ $(^2)$ 73, 323, 000	311, 246, 000 (²) 8 69, 575, 000	442, 381, 000 (²) (²)			
Total Russia (Eu- ropean)	29, 755, 000	28, 498, 000		383, 572, 000	380, 821, 000				
Serbia Spain Sweden	(2) 3,404,000 436,000	3,786,000 ⁽²⁾ ⁽²⁾	(²) 4,035,000 (²)	3,000,000 72,272,000 12,195,000	2,250,000 82,763,000 14,252,000	(²) 84,372,000 (²)			
United Kingdom: England Wales. Scotland Ireland.	1,420,000 84,000 194,000 172,000	1,152,000 80,000 150,000 142,000	$1,245,000 \\ 87,000 \\ 170,000 \\ 150,000$	48,205,000 2,743,000 7,616,000 8,073,000	34, 898, 000 2, 467, 000 5, 183, 000 5, 828, 000	40, 324, 000 2, 732, 000 5, 341, 000 6, 537, 000			
Total United Kingdom	1,870,000	1,524,000	1,652,000	66, 637, 000	48,376,000	54,934,000			
Total				929, 491, 000	888, 013, 000				
ASIA. India:									
British. Native States	7,098,000 981,000	7, 758, 000 (²)	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$	125, 113, 000 (²)	142, 846, 000 (²)	$\begin{pmatrix} 2\\2 \end{pmatrix}$			
Total	8,079,000	7,758,000		125, 113, 000	142, 846, 000				
Cyprus	(2)	(2)	(2)	2,000,000	2,000,000	(2)			
Japanese Empire: Japan Formosa	3,291,000 (²)	3,239,000 (²)	3, 109, 000 (²)	85, 775, 000 60, 000	100, 891, 000 75, 000	99, 822, 000 (²)			
Total Japanese Empire				85, 835, 000	100, 966, 000				
Russia: Central Asia (4 gov- ernments of) Siberia (4 govern- ments of) Transcancasia (1 government of)	485,000 630,000 2,000	4 600,000 652,000 (5)	(2) (2) (2)	7, 929, 000 11, 498, 000 24, 000	4 7, 946, 000 5, 707, 000 (⁵)	(²) (²) (²)			
Total Russia (Asiatic)	1,117,000			19, 451, 000	13,653,000				
Total				232, 399, 000	259,465,000				

Galicia and Bukowina not included.
 No official statistics.
 Includes 1 government of Transcaucasia.

Includes Oural.
Included in Northern Caucasia.

		Area.		Production.						
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916				
AFRICA. Algeria Tunis Union of South Africa	Acres. 3,131,000 795,000 (¹)	Acres. 2,703,000 1,6_8,000 (¹)	Acres. (1) (1) 64,000	Bushels. 35, 785, 000 3, 215, 000 21, 359, 000	Bushels. 39,866,000 11,482,000 21,359,000	Bushels. (1) 6,889,000 (1)				
Total				40, 359, 000	52, 707, 000					
AUSTRALASIA.										
Australia: Queensland New South Wales Victoria South Australia Western Australia. Tasmania.	9,000 21,000 83,000 91,000 11,000 8,000	7,000 (1) 62,000 66,000 4,000 (1)	(1) 6,000 (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	$120,000 \\ 313,000 \\ 1,870,000 \\ 1,375,000 \\ 173,000 \\ 193,000$	$109,000 \\ 48,000 \\ 620,000 \\ 461,000 \\ 17,000 \\ 100,000$	$(1) \\ 100,000 \\ (1) \\ $				
Total Australia	223,000			4,014,000	1,355,000					
New Zealand	32,000	18,000	30,000	1,234,000	616,000	843,00				
Total Australasia.	255,000			5, 278, 000	1,971,000					
Grand total				1,463,289,000	1,503,272,000					

¹ No official statistics.

Census of 1911.

TABLE 38.—Barley: Total production of countries named in Table 37, 1895-1916.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899 1900	Bushels. 915, 504, 000 932, 100, 000 864, 605, 000 1, 030, 581, 000 965, 720, 000 959, 622, 000	1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906	$\begin{array}{c} Bushels.\\ 1,072,195,000\\ 1,229,132,000\\ 1,235,786,000\\ 1,175,784,000\\ 1,180,053,000\\ 1,296,579,000 \end{array}$	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912	Bushels. 1, 271, 237, 600 1, 274, 897, 000 1, 458, 263, 900 1, 388, 734, 000 1, 373, 286, 000 1, 466, 977, 000	1913 1914 1915 1916	Bushels. 1, 650, 265, 000 1, 463, 289, 000 1, 503, 272, 000

TABLE 39.—Barley: Average yield per acre in undermentioned countries, 1890-1915.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euro- pean). ¹	Ger- many.1	Austria.1	Hungary proper. ¹	France. ²	United King- dom. ²
A verage: 1890–1899 1900–1909	Bushels, 23, 4 25, 5	Bushcls. 13.3 14.3	Bushels, 29, 4 35, 3	Bushels. 21.1 26.3	Bushels. 23.4	Bushels. 22.6 23.6	Bushels. 39.8 35.0
1908	$28.3 \\ 23.8 \\ 25.1 \\ 22.5 \\ 32.5 \\ $	13.0 14.2 14.2 17.9	35. 2 38. 2 34. 9 39. 5	$26.1 \\ 27.3 \\ 25.2 \\ 28.4$	26.8 23.1 21.3 25.1	$20.8 \\ 24.4 \\ 22.6 \\ 25.4 \\ 25.4$	36. 1 36. 8 34. 9 38. 9
1910	22.521.029.723.825.8	16.3 14.4 16.2 18.5 12.9	34. 4 37. 0 40. 7 41. 3 36. 8	24.9 27.5 29.7 29.7 3 33.8	$ \begin{array}{r} 19.7 \\ 26.9 \\ 26.9 \\ 27.0 \\ 24.1 \end{array} $	23.525.026.124.524.0	34.3 34.0 33.1 35.1 35.6
1915 Average (1906–1915)	20. 8 32. 0 25. 4		28.5	- 00, 3		19.7	31. 8

¹ Bushels of 48 pounds. ² Winchester bushels. ³ Galicia and Bukowina not included.

TABLE 40.—Barley: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1916.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

		Av- erage		Aver- age farm	Farm	Chica bus to f	go cas hel, le ancy. ¹	h prie ow ma	e per lting	Domestic exports,	Imports, fiscal
Year.	Acreage.	yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	price per bushel	value Dec. 1.	Decei	nber.	Follo Ma		fiscal year beginning July 1.	year begin- ning July 1.
			<u>.</u>	Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.		
1849	A cres.	Bush.	Bushels. 5,167,000	Cents.	Dollars.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Bushels.	Bushels.
1809		22.9	15,826,000		7,916.000	59	70	85	100	••••••	3 947 950
1866 1867 1868 1869 <i>1869</i>	937,000	24.4	11,284,000 25,727,000 22,896,000 28,652.000 29,761,090	109.0	18,028,000 24,948,000 20,298,000	150 140 74	180 170 85	227 149 50	250 175 62	9,810 59,077 255,490	0,009,880
1870 1871 1872 1873 1874	1,109,000 1,114,000 1,397,000 1,387,000 1,581,000	23.724.019.223.120.6	26, 295, 000 26, 718, 000 26, 846, 000 32, 044, 000 32, 552, 000	79. 1 75. 8 68. 6 86. 7 86. 0	20, 792, 000 20, 264, 000 18, 416, 000 27, 794, 000 27, 998, 000	$68 \\ 55\frac{1}{2} \\ 60 \\ 132 \\ 120 \\ $	$ \begin{array}{r} 80 \\ 64 \\ 70 \\ 158 \\ 129^{1}_{2} \end{array} $	72 55 71 130 115	95 71 85 155 137	340,093 86,891 482,410 320,399 91,118	4,891,189
1875 1876 1877 1878 1879 <i>1879</i>	1,790,000 1,767,000 1,669,000 1,790,009 1,681,000 1,998,000	23.0	36,909,000 38,710,000 35,638,000 42,246,000 40,283,000 43,997,000	74. 1 63. 0 62. 5 57. 9 58. 9	27,368,000 24,403,000 22,287,000 24,454,000 23,714,000	81 633 561 91 86		$\begin{array}{r} 62\frac{1}{2}\\ 80\\ 46\frac{1}{2}\\ 64\\ 75\end{array}$	72½ 85 52½ 73 80	317,781 1,186,129 3,921,501 715,536 1,128,923	5,720,979
1880 1881 1882 1883 1884	1,843,000 1,968,000	24.5 20.9	45, 165, 000 41, 161, 000 48, 954, 000 50, 136, 000 61, 203, 000	66. 6 82. 3 62. 9 58. 7	30,091,000 33,863,000 30,768,000 29,420,000 29,779,000	$100 \\ 101 \\ 79 \\ .62 \\ 53$	120 107 82 67 58	95 100 80 65 65	$105 \\ 100 \\ 80 \\ 74 \\ 65$	433,005 724,955	9, 528, 616 12, 182, 722 10, 050, 687 8, 596, 122 9, 986, 507
1885 1886 1887 1888 1889 1889	2,653,000 2,902,000 2,996,000 3,221,000	92 4	58, 360, 000 59, 428, 000 56, 812, 000 63, 884, 000 78, 333, 000 <i>78, 333, 000</i>	53 6	32,868,000 31,841,000 29,464,000 37,672,000 32,614,000	51	65 54 80 58	58 57 69	60 57 77	252, 183 1, 305, 300 550, 884 1, 440, 321 1, 408, 311	10, 197, 112 10, 355, 594 10, 831, 461 11, 368, 414 11, 332, 543
1890 1891 1892 1893 1894	3, 135, 000 3, 353, 000 3, 400, 000 3, 220, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 21.4 \\ 25.9 \\ 23.6 \\ 21.7 \end{array}$	67, 168, 000 86, 839, 000 80, 097, 000 69, 869, 000 61, 400, 000	62.7 52.4	$\begin{array}{c} 42, 141, 000\\ 45, 470, 000\\ 38, 026, 000\\ 28, 729, 000\\ 27, 134, 000\end{array}$		67 54 55]	65 55 51		973,062 2,800,075 3,035,267 5,219,405 1,563,754	3, 146, 322 1, 970, 123 791, 061 2, 116, 816
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899 1899	2,951,000 2,719,000 2,583,000 2,878,000	$\begin{array}{c} 23.6 \\ 24.5 \\ 21.6 \\ 25.5 \end{array}$	87,073.000 69,695,000 66,685,000 55,792,000 73,382,000 119,635,000	$32.3 \\ 37.7 \\ 41.3 \\ 40.3$	29, 312, 000 22, 491, 000 25, 142, 000 23, 064, 000 29, 594, 000	33 22 25] 40 35	40 37 42 50 45	25 243 36 36 36	36 35 53 42 44	7,680,331 20,030,301 11,237,077 2,267,403 23,661,662	837,384 1.271,787 124,804 110,473 189,757
1900 1901 1902 1903 1.01	2,894,000 4,296,000 4,661,000 4,993,000 5,146,000	$\begin{array}{c} 20.4 \\ 25.6 \\ 29.0 \\ 26.4 \\ 27.2 \end{array}$	58,926,000 109,933,000 134,954,000 131,861,000 139,749,000	40.9 45.2 45.9 45.6 42.0	61,899,000 60,166,000	56 36 42	61 63 70 61 52	37 64 48 38 40	57 72 56 59 50	6,293,207 8,714,268 8,429,141 10,881,627 10,661,655	57,40 56,46 90,70 81,02
1905 1906 1907 1908	6,324,000 6,448,000 6,646,000) 25.1	178,916,000 153,597,000 166,756,000	$\begin{array}{c} 40.5 \\ 41.5 \\ 66.6 \\ 55.4 \end{array}$	74,236,000	44 78	53 56 102 64	42 66 60 66	55] 85 75 75	17, 729, 360 8, 238, 842 4, 349, 078 6, 580, 393	38,31
1909 1909	7,699,000	22.5	173,344,000	54.0			72	50	68		
1910 ² 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	. 7,627,000 7,530,000 7,499,000 7,565,000 7,148,000	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	160, 240, 000 223, 824, 000 178, 189, 000 194, 953, 000 228, 851, 000	$\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 86.9 \\ 50.5 \\ 0 & 53.7 \\ 0 & 54.3 \\ 0 & 51.6 \end{array}$	139, 182, 000 112, 957, 000 95, 731, 000 105, 903, 000 118, 172, 000	$ \begin{array}{c} 102 \\ 43 \\ 50 \\ 50 \\ 60 \\ 62 \end{array} $	90 130 77 79 75 75 77 125	75 68 45 51 74 70	$ \begin{array}{r} 115 \\ 132 \\ 68 \\ 66 \\ 82 \\ 83 \\ 83 \end{array} $	1 6.644.747	

¹ Prices 1895 to 1908 for No. 3 grade.

² Figures adjusted to census basis.

Statistics of Barley.

BARLEY-Continued.

TABLE 41.—Barley: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916.

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State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Maine. New Hampshire Vermont. New York. Pennsylvania	Acres. 6 1 15 81 12	Bushels. 156 28 412 1,887 300	Dollars. 162 25 412 1,906 225	Kansas. Kentucky Tennessee Texas. Oklahoma	Acres. 300 6 10 9 8	Bushels. 4,800 156 237 153 100	Dollars. 3,696 140 237 122 100
Maryland Virginia Ohio Indiana Illinois	13	192 358 917 405 1,920	140 304 734 304 1,978	Montana Wyoming Colorado New Mexico. Arizona	$95 \\ 25 \\ 160 \\ 11 \\ 32$	2,660 825 5,120 308 1,120	2,022 718 4,198 308 1,210
Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa	610 1,375 295	2,450 18,300 26,125 8,702	2,230 19,215 22,729 7,919	Utah Nevada Idaho Washington Oregon.	$34 \\ 12 \\ 190 \\ 165 \\ 140$	1,224 492 7,410 6,814 5,390	930 467 6,076 5,724 4,312
Missouri North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska	1,725 825 110	$100 \\ 26,738 \\ 18,728 \\ 3,080$	93 21,390 15,544 2,310	California. United States.	1,190	33,320 180,927	31,651 159,534

TABLE 42.-Barley: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			3	Tield	per	acre	(bus	shels).			F	arm	price (cen		bush	iel	per	alue acre lars).1
State.	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year averago, 1911-1915.	1916
N. Y Pa	$\begin{array}{c} 26.9\\ 31.7\\ 26.5\\ 26.1\\ 30.4\\ 27.1\\ 27.6\\ 25.5\\ 29.6\\ 25.3\\ 29.6\\ 23.4\\ 20.1\\ 21.4\\ 21.6\\ 23.2\\ 8\\ 33.4\\ 32.8\\ 33.4\\ 32.8\\ 33.4\\ 34.8\\ 32.0\\ 37.3\\ 37.3\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 24.0\\ 28.5\\ 25.0\\ 25.5\\ 25.0\\ 29.0\\ 29.0\\ 29.0\\ 20.5\\ 28.0\\ 29.0\\ 22.5\\ 28.0\\ 22.5\\ 23.0\\ 22.5\\ 5.5\\ 23.0\\ 20.2\\ 23.0\\ 20.2\\ 20.0\\ 25.0\\ 20.0\\ $	$\begin{array}{c} 24.0\\ 33.0\\ 0\\ 26.0\\ 0\\ 28.0\\ 27.5\\ 23.0\\ 0\\ 28.5\\ 23.0\\ 0\\ 27.5\\ 0\\ 27.0\\ 0\\ 27.0\\ 0\\ 25.0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 25.0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 25.0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0$	$\begin{array}{c} 25.0\ 0\\ 30.0\ 0\\ 24.8\ 8\\ 32.0\ 0\\ 28.5\ 9\\ 23.5\ 28.0\ 0\\ 22.0\ 0\\ 22.0\ 0\\ 22.0\ 0\\ 22.0\ 0\\ 22.0\ 0\\ 22.0\ 0\\ 24.0\ 0\\ 19.5\ 0\\ 22.0\ 0\\ 38.0\ 0\\ 38.0\ 0\\ 38.0\ 0\\ 40.0\ 0\\ 40.0\ 0\\ 40.0\ 0\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 26.\ 0\\ 31.\ 0\\ 28.\ 3\\ 26.\ 5\\ 31.\ 0\\ 29.\ 3\\ 26.\ 5\\ 27.\ 0\\ 29.\ 3\\ 27.\ 0\\ 29.\ 5\\ 27.\ 0\\ 29.\ 0\\ 29.\ 0\\ 23.\ 0\\ 23.\ 0\\ 29.\ 0\\ 29.\ 0\\ 29.\ 0\\ 25.\ 0\\$	$\begin{array}{c} 24.0\\ 30.52\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 23.0\\ 23.0\\ 27.2\\ 26.5\\ 8.0\\ 24.0\\ 21.9\\ 20.0\\ 19.5\\ 23.7\\ 28.0\\ 11.0\\ 0.34.5\\ 34.0\\ 33.0\\ 33.0\\ 33.0\\ 33.0\\ 5\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 28. \ 0\\ 35. \ 0\\ 26. \ 0\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 27. \ 5\\ 26. \ 0\\ 29. \ 4\\ 28. \ 2\\ 29. \ 9\\ 22. \ 5\\ 26. \ 0\\ 22. \ 5\\ 26. \ 0\\ 22. \ 5\\ 26. \ 0\\ 22. \ 5\\ 26. \ 0\\ 22. \ 5\\ 26. \ 0\\ 29. \ 4\\ 31. \ 0\\ 29. \ 4\\ 28. \ 29. \ 9\\ 22. \ 0\\ 22. \ 5\\ 26. \ 0\\ 22. \ 0\\ 22. \ 0\\ 35. \ 0\\ 34. \ 0\\ 35. \ 0\\ 35. \ 0\\ 40. \ 0\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 28. \ 0 \\ 32. \ 0 \\ 26. \ 0 \\ 26. \ 0 \\ 26. \ 0 \\ 26. \ 0 \\ 25. \ 0 \\ 24. \ 0 \\ 25. \ 0 \\ 24. \ 0 \\ 25. \ 0 \\ 24. \ 0 \\ 25. \ 0 \\ 24. \ 0 \\ 25. \ 0 \\ 24. \ 0 \\ 20. \ 0 \\ 21. \ 0 \\ 22. \ 0 \\ 20. \ 0 \\ 21. \ 0 \\ 31. \ 0 \\ 31. \ 0 \\ 30. \ 5 \\ 24. \ 0 \\ 39. \ 0 \\ 9. \ 0 \\ 39. \ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 32.\ 0\\ 34.\ 50\\ 28.\ 0\\ 28.\ 0\\ 28.\ 0\\ 28.\ 0\\ 29.\ 5\\ 0\\ 29.\ 5\\ 29.\ 5\\ 29.\ 5\\ 22.\ 3\\ 23.\ 3\\ 26.\ 0\\ 23.\ 5\\ 23.\ 5\\ 28.\ 5\\ 27.\ 0\\ 25.\ 0\\ 25.\ 0\\ 25.\ 0\\ 33.\ 0\\ 33.\ 5\\ 34.\ 0\\ 36.\ 0\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 30.\ 0\\ 35.\ 0\\ 32.\ 0\\ 29.\ 5\\ 34.\ 0\\ 29.\ 5\\ 35.\ 5\\ 31.\ 0\\ 25.\ 0\\ 32.\ 0\\ 31.\ 0\\ 29.\ 0\\ 31.\ 0\\ 32.\ 0\\ 31.\ 0\\ 31.\ 0\\ 32.\ 0\\ 31.\ 0\\ 31.\ 0\\ 31.\ 0\\ 31.\ 0\\ 33.\ 0\\$	$\begin{array}{c} 27.5 \\ 223.3 \\ 25.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 33.0 \\ 30.0 \\ 30.0 \\ 29.5 \\ 20.0 \\ 30.0 \\ 29.5 \\ 20.0 \\ 15.5 \\ 22.7 \\ 22.8 \\ 0 \\ 22.8 \\ 0 \\ 23.7 \\ 22.8 \\ 0 \\ 33.0 \\ 33.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 33.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 33.0 \\ 32.0 \\ 33.$	78 77 69 72 64 64 64 66 60 60 61 67 53 55 60 53 55 60 80 81 62 68 69 68 69 80 81 79 81	$\begin{array}{c} 777\\84\\80\\68\\68\\55\\60\\53\\65\\55\\60\\53\\62\\50\\71\\87\\9\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 80\\ 80\\ 80\\ 69\\ 71\\ 64\\ 70\\ 70\\ 58\\ 50\\ 77\\ 60\\ 48\\ 555\\ 60\\ 46\\ 49\\ 555\\ 60\\ 46\\ 49\\ 55\\ 78\\ 78\\ 80\\ 81\\ 61\\ 56\\ 672\\ 23\\ 73\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 55\\ 5$	$\begin{array}{c} 811\\822\\75\\711\\700\\66\\6\\80\\99\\67\\61\\65\\55\\55\\45\\50\\47\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7\\7$	$\begin{array}{c} 755\\ 797\\ 755\\ 755\\ 755\\ 755\\ 755\\ 626\\ 755\\ 499\\ 499\\ 63\\ 446\\ 422\\ 4227\\ 755\\ 50\\ 85\\ 53\\ 48\\ 706\\ 52\\ 52\\ \end{array}$	90 1000 1011 73 85 80 75 103 91 105 87 93 80 83 75 77 90 100 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 8	$\begin{array}{c} 23, 360\\ 261, 152\\ 20, 85\\ 19, 03\\ 19, 03\\ 19, 02\\ 19, 03\\ 19, 02\\ 19, 03\\ 19, 12\\ 17, 00\\ 19, 12\\ 17, 00\\ 19, 12\\ 17, 00\\ 18, 93\\ 17, 52\\ 15, 18\\ 11, 58\\ 8, 99\\ 55\\ 5, 18\\ 11, 58\\ 8, 99\\ 55\\ 5, 18\\ 11, 58\\ 8, 99\\ 55\\ 5, 18\\ 11, 58\\ 8, 99\\ 55\\ 5, 18\\ 11, 58\\ 8, 99\\ 55\\ 5, 18\\ 11, 58\\ 8, 99\\ 55\\ 5, 18\\ 10, 12\\ 10, 23\\ 20, 73\\ 10, 12\\ 10, 23\\ 22, 77\\ 47\\ 77\\ 77\\ 77\\ 77\\ 77\\ 77\\ 77\\ 77\\$	27. 04/ 27. 50/ 27. 50/ 23. 53 18. 75 23. 36 22. 32/ 22. 24/ 20. 25 32. 96/ 22. 30/ 16. 53 32. 96/ 16. 53 32. 68/ 16. 53 32. 68/ 16. 53 32. 68/ 16. 53 32. 69/ 16. 53 32. 69/ 16. 53 32. 69/ 16. 53 32. 69/ 16. 53 32. 69/ 16. 53 32. 69/ 12. 40/ 12. 40/ 12. 40/ 12. 32/ 23. 40/ 12. 50/ 12.
Nev Idaho Wash Oreg	40. 6 40. 4 38. 2 34. 4 28. 1	40.0 44.5 40.5 42.0 28.9	30. 0 41. 0 30. 5 29. 0 23. 5	38.0 40.0 39.5 31.5 26.5	40.0 33.0 29.0 31.5 31.0	40.0 42.0 37.0 34.0 28.0	$\begin{array}{c} 41.\ 0\\ 43.\ 5\\ 43.\ 0\\ 36.\ 0\\ 30.\ 0\end{array}$	41. 0 42. 0 40. 5 35. 0 26. 0	47.0 38.0 39.0 30.0 30.0	$48.0 \\ 40.5 \\ 41.5 \\ 36.0 \\ 29.0 $	$\begin{array}{c} 41.\ 0\\ 39.\ 0\\ 41.\ 3\\ 38.\ 5\\ 28.\ 0\end{array}$	79 57 60 62 72	87 51 53 55 70	90 48 52 55 68	65 50 52 61 59	70 52 56 62 62	95 82 84 80 95	33. 82 22. 36 22. 51 20. 35 19. 63	38. 95 31. 98 34. 69 30. 80 26. 60

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

TABLE 43.—Barley: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1895-1916.

Year.	June.	July.	Au- gust.	When har- vested.	Year.	June.	July.	Au- gust.	When har- vested.
1505 1890 1897 1877 1879 1830 1930 1940 19	$\begin{array}{c} P.\ ct.\\ 90.3\\ 98.0\\ 87.4\\ 78.8\\ 91.4\\ 86.2\\ 91.0\\ 93.6\\ 91.5\\ 90.5\\ 93.7 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} P.\ ct.\\ 91.9\\ 88.1\\ 88.5\\ 85.7\\ 92.0\\ 76.3\\ 91.3\\ 93.7\\ 86.8\\ 88.5\\ 91.5\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} P.ct.\\ 87.2\\ 82.9\\ 87.5\\ 79.3\\ 93.6\\ 71.6\\ 86.9\\ 90.2\\ 83.4\\ 88.1\\ 89.5\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} P.\ ct.\\ 87.6\\ 83.1\\ 86.4\\ 79.2\\ 86.7\\ 70.7\\ 83.8\\ 89.7\\ 82.1\\ 87.4\\ 87.8\end{array}$	1906 1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	$\begin{array}{c} P.\ ct.\\ 93.5\\ 89.7\\ 90.6\\ 89.6\\ 90.2\\ 91.1\\ 87.1\\ 95.5\\ 94.6\\ 86.3 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} P.\ ct.\\ 92.5\\ 81.4\\ 86.2\\ 90.2\\ 73.7\\ 72.1\\ 88.3\\ 76.6\\ 92.6\\ 94.1\\ 87.9\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} P.\ ct.\\ 90.3\\ 84.5\\ 83.1\\ 85.4\\ 70.0\\ 66.2\\ 89.1\\ 74.9\\ 85.3\\ 93.8\\ 80.0 \end{array}$	P. ct. 89.4 78.5 81.2 80.5 69.8 65.5 88.9 73.4 82.4 94.2 74.6

TABLE 44.—Barley: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1915 and 1916.

Month.	United States.		North Atlantic States.		South Atlantic States.		N. Central States east of Miss. R.		N. Central States west of Miss. R.		South Central States.		Far West- ern States.	
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
January February March. April. May. June.	Cts. 54.9 61.7 59.6 57.2 59.6 59.6	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 54.3 \\ 62.9 \\ 67.7 \\ 64.7 \\ 63.8 \\ 62.0 \end{array}$	Cts. 75.4 74.9 78.6 79.2 79.6 81.5	Cts. 77.2 80.6 84.9 81.0 87.7 83.0	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 74.0 \\ 72.0 \\ 76.0 \\ 72.0 \\ 74.0 \\ 73.3 \end{array}$	Cts. 73.0 76.0 81.0 73.4 78.0 78.2	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 60.7 \\ 67.3 \\ 67.5 \\ 64.9 \\ 65.4 \\ 66.6 \end{array}$	Cts. 62.1 67.0 72.6 72.3 69.5 68.6	Cts. 50.5 60.5 53.0 53.0 55.9 56.0	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 49.8 \\ 59.4 \\ 61.9 \\ 59.9 \\ 60.3 \\ 60.1 \end{array}$	Cts. 61.4 59.4 64.4 63.2 63.8 59.4	Cts. 62.5 76.5 80.2 70.8 71.3 85.2	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 59.6 \\ 61.7 \\ 67.8 \\ 67.6 \\ 63.9 \\ 62.2 \end{array}$	Cts. 56.9 65.4 73.2 68.1 65.6 61.2
July August September October November December	76.5	55.8 56.7 51.9 46.8 50.1 51.6	$\begin{array}{c} 80.8\\74.6\\82.0\\93.4\\94.0\\98.1\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 85.6\\ 81.6\\ 80.2\\ 72.5\\ 73.5\\ 75.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 74.0\\ 85.0\\ 60.0\\ 80.0\\ 70.0\\ 80.7\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 76.0 \\ 78.0 \\ 74.0 \\ 69.2 \\ 78.0 \\ 73.4 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 67.1 \\ 66.9 \\ 89.9 \\ 90.7 \\ 98.6 \\ 102.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 66.4 \\ 66.8 \\ 58.8 \\ 52.6 \\ 55.3 \\ 56.7 \end{array}$	$56.0 \\ 55.3 \\ 70.8 \\ 72.8 \\ 80.4 \\ 83.5$	$56.0 \\ 56.8 \\ 46.7 \\ 40.1 \\ 43.0 \\ 46.0$	55.5 57.4 64.8 99.6 78.1 92.7	$\begin{array}{c} 70.8\\ 57.0\\ 56.5\\ 60.0\\ 53.7\\ 67.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 61.3\\ 63.0\\ 69.4\\ 77.0\\ 81.7\\ 89.1 \end{array}$	50.4 51.8 55.6 52.9 57.3 58.6
Average	71.6	53.7	86.0	77.7	73.4	74.7	83.0	60.5	70.0	47.3	72.1	62.5	72.5	57.5

TABLE 45.—Barley: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1916.

	Cincii	nnati.	Chic	ago.	Milwa	ukee.	Minne	apolis.	San Fra	ancisco.
Date.	Spring malt.			Low malting to fancy.		. 3.	All grades.		Feed (per 100 lbs.)	
	Low.	High,	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. J.mJune. July-Dec.	Cents. 110 55	Cents. 132 78	Cents. 60 40	Cents. 140 110	Cents. 95 64	Cents. 138 110	Cents. 50 34	Cents. 130 95	$Cents. 152\frac{1}{2}$ 115	Cents. 195 1521
1913. JunJune. July-Dec.	$54\frac{1}{57}$	70 80	42 43	71 85	60 60	73 82	39 42	63 73	130 1221	150 140
1914. JanJune. July-Dec.	60 70	70 80	49 50	79 82	53 51½	68 82	41 40	65 76	90 95	132] 130
1915. January. Fobruary. March. April. May. June.	72 86 79 76 76 86	$90 \\ 90 \\ 90 \\ 82 \\ 102 \\ 98$	$ \begin{array}{r} 66\\ 73\\ 71\\ 71\\ 74\frac{1}{2}\\ 68 \end{array} $	88 91 89 84 82 79	$70\frac{1}{2}$ 78 74 $\frac{1}{2}$ 76 75 $\frac{1}{2}$ 71	88 93 86 80 78 77 2	$58 \\ 64 \\ 62 \\ 64 \\ 67 \\ 62$	83 86 81 76 75 71	$125 \\ 142\frac{1}{2} \\ 125 \\ 125 \\ 125 \\ 111\frac{1}{4} \\ 100$	160 162½ 147½ 147½ 130 112½
JanJune	72	102	66	91	701	93	58	86	100	1621

Statistics of Barley.

BARLEY-Continued.

TABLE 45.—Barley: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1916—Continued.

		5				·				
	Cinci	nnati.	Chic	eago.	Milwa	ukee.	Minne	apolis.	San Fra	ancisco.
Date.	Spring malt.		Low malting to fancy.		No	. 3.	All grades.		Feed (per 100 lbs.)	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
July August	Cents. 86 88 76 70 70 76	Cents. 98 98 102 86 76 79	Cents. 69 54 51 53 56 62	Cents. 79 85 65 65 73 77	Cents. 721 61 54 56 59 67	Cents. 79 81 60 62 68 73 ¹ / ₂	Cents. 63 45 42 47 50 56	Cents. 73 78 57 57 62 67 2	$\begin{array}{c} Cents. \\ 100 \\ 115 \\ 112\frac{1}{2} \\ 115 \\ 122\frac{1}{2} \\ 125 \end{array}$	Cents. 120 130 120 130 132 132 132 1
July-Dec	70	102	51	85	54	81	42	78	100	1323
1916. January February March. April. May June.	83 89 83 89 91 93	88 98 98 98 102 102	68 64 64 64 70 70	84 83 78 83 83 83 86	$71\\68\\70\frac{1}{2}\\68\\74\frac{1}{2}\\73$	82 79 1 77 79 <u>1</u> 80 78	61 59 59 59 60 60	761 751 721 751 751 751 751 751	$\begin{array}{r} 127\frac{1}{2}\\ 130\\ 130\\ 130\\ 130\\ 130\\ 127\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	132 135 135 135 136 132 132
JanJune	83	102	64	86	68	82	59	761	1271	1361
July August September October November December	93 93 123 123 136 136	$ \begin{array}{r} 102 \\ 136 \\ 136 \\ 132 \\ 145 \\ 145 \\ 145 \end{array} $	68 63 84 85 98 95	$ \begin{array}{r} 80 \\ 115 \\ 117 \\ 123 \\ 128 \\ 125 \\ \end{array} $	70 75 97 105 112 112	80 113 115 123 128 124	57 57 63 60 72 70	$7\frac{41}{108} \\ 101 \\ 106 \\ 112 \\ 110 \\ 100 \\ 10$	$ \begin{array}{r} 127\frac{1}{2} \\ 140 \\ 165 \\ 167\frac{1}{2} \\ 200 \\ 215 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 145 \\ 170 \\ 170 \\ 2021 \\ 225 \\ 225 \\ 225 \\ \end{array} $
July-Dec	93	145	68	128	70	128	57	112	1271	225

TABLE 46.—Barley and malt: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

		Barley.			Malt.		Barley and malt in terms of barley.		
Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (pre- lim.)
Algeria. Argentina Austria-Hungary Belgium. British India. Bulgaria.	1,871	Bushels. 3,903 1,152 1,290	1,690 440	12,189 218	Bushcls.		Bushcls. 4,342 1,871 19,271 2,811 10,059 819	Bushels. 3,903 1,152 1,290	Bushcls. 1,690 3,410 7,441
Canada. Chile. China. Denmark.	13,906 427 738 3,566	6,838 2,839 524 3,379	4,665 1,2 ⁵⁷ 191 3	3 23 117	233 	12 298	$13,909 \\ 449 \\ 738 \\ 3,673$	6,813 3,051 524 3,379	4,677 1,557 191 2
France Germany Netherlands Roumania	438 280 31,993 17,319	167 13,385 9,284	536 1	$\substack{\substack{19\\1,198\\449\\4}$	210 439	702	1,369	357 13,784 9,284	1,174
Russia. United Kingdom United States Other countries	180, 344 48 12, 782 15, 957	90,783 85 17,208 1,278	305 79 26,491	$ \begin{array}{r} 197 \\ 806 \\ 487 \\ 11 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{r}161\\898\\728\\6\end{array}$	3,982 2,253	$180,523 \\781 \\13,225 \\15,967$	90,930 902 17,870 1,282	305 3,699 28,539
Total	305, 701	152, 115		15,721	2,680		319,996	154,551	

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TABLE 46.-Barley and malt: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915-Continued. IMPORTS.

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[000]	om	itte	d.1

		Barley.			Malt.		Barley and malt in terms of barley.			
Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (pre- lim.)	
Argentina. Austria-Hungary Belgium Brazil. British South Africa.	Bushels. 4 351, 17,336 1 2	Bushels. 1 1 1	Bushels. 1 7 5	Bushels. 1,597 2 734 1,364 348	Bushels. 1,134 702 289	Bushels. 720 	Bushels. 1,456 353 18,004 1,241 319	Bushels. 1,032 639 265	Bushels. 656 865 216	
Canada. Cuba. Denmark. Egypt. France.	273 1,933	39 285 2,390 475 4,761	39 343 4,414 365 4,242	358 58 534 103	107 	47 95 145	363 273 1,986 1,824 5,428	136 285 2,390 512 4,938	82 343 4,414 452 4,374	
Finland Germany Italy Netherlands Norway	$728 \\ 40,783$	167 8 21,047 3,845	242 20 5,033 1,134	278 3,532 4,183 157	230 106 3,242 242	354 47 5 259	645 151,939 728 44,585 3,994	376 105 23,994 4,064	564 63 5,038 1,369	
Russia Switzerland United Kingdom Other countries	52,331	756 769 36,422 1,594	1,057 27,969	58 3,302 146 661	28 3,066 137 673	1,743 7	1,158 4,192 52,461 1,815	781 3,556 36,547 2,207	2,641 27,976	
Total	276,931	72, 561		17,420	10,192		292, 767	81,827		

RYE.

TABLE 47.—Ryc: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914–1916.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
NORTH AMERICA. United States	A cres. 2.511,000	A cres. 3,129,000	A cres. 3,096,000	Bushels. 42, 779, 000	Bushels. 54,030,000	- Bushcls. 47,383,000
Canada: Quebec Ontario Manitoba Saskatehewan Alberta Other	9,000 78,000 5,090 3,000 16,000 (1)	9,000 78,009 6,000 3,000 17,000 (¹)	$\begin{array}{c} 8,000\\ 69,000\\ 6,000\\ 3,000\\ 15,000\\ (^1)\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 156,000\\ 1,341,000\\ 100,000\\ 51,000\\ 3.0,000\\ 6,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 145,000\\ 1,551,000\\ 155,000\\ 76,000\\ 463,000\\ 4,000\end{array}$	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)
Total Canada	111,000	113,000	101,000	2,017,000	2, 394, 000	2,896,000
Mexico	(2)	(2) *	(2)	70,000	70,000	(2)
Total				44,866,000	56, 514,000	
SOUTH AMERICA. Argentina. Chile. Uruguay.	228,000 6,000 (1)	229,000 (²) (¹)	212,000 ⁽²⁾ ⁽¹⁾	3, 346, 000 151, 000 5, 000	1,811,000 150,000 1,000	2,008,000 (²) 1,000
Total				3, 502, 000	1,962,000	
EUROPE. Austria-Hungary: Austria. Hungary. Croutha-Slavonia. Bosnia-Herzegovina.	3 3, 138, 000 2, 638, 000 163, 000 (²)	(2) 2, 625, 000 (2) (2)	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$	³ 74, 555,000 42,410,000 2,082,000 500,000	³ 75,000,000 45,975,000 2,500,000 600,000	$\begin{pmatrix} 2\\ 2\\ 2\\ \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 2\\ 2\\ 2\\ \end{pmatrix}$
Total Austria-				119, 547, 000	124,075,000	

1 Less than 500 acres.

² No official statistics. ³ Galicia and Bukowina not included.

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RYE-Continued.

TABLE 47.-Rye: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1914-1916-Contd.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1914	1915	1916	1914	1915	1916
EUROPE—contd. Belgium . Denmark Finland. France. Germany Italy. Netherlands. Norway Roumania.	A cres. 645,000 527,000 (1) 2,614.000 15,5,5,000 304.000 563.000 2 37,000 208.000	A cres. (1) (1) (2, 309, 000 (15, 843, 000 294, 000 546, 000 (1) 187, 000	$\begin{array}{c} A \ cres. \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 479,000 \\ (1) \\ 2,275,000 \\ (1) \\ 284,000 \\ 499,000 \\ 48,000 \\ 48,000 \\ 200,000 \end{array}$	Bushels. 23, 137; 000 7, 255, 000 10, 905, 000 32, 002, 000 410, 478, 000 5, 280, 000 13, 471, 000 1, 046, 000 1, 959, 000	Bushels. 18,000,000 7,622,000 12,939,600 10,000,000 30,310,000, 4,362,000 13,727,000 829,000 2,911,000	Bushels. (1) 8, 490,000 (10, 550,000 (1) 35, 524,000 (1) 5, 342,000 (12, 391,000 729,000 (1)
Russia: Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	65,967.000 * 1,676.000 439,000	65, 866, 000 (¹⁾ 4 329, 000	58, 407, 000 (1) (1)	787, 625, 000 3 27, 984, 000 5, 469, 000	877, 522, 000 (1) 4 4, 633, 000	840, 722, 000 (1) (1)
Total Russia (European)	68,082,000	66, 195, 000		821,078,000	882, 155, 000	
Serbia. Spain Sweden United Kingdom	74,000 1,887,000 981,000 67,000	(1) 1,820,000 (1) 62,000	(1) 1,856,000 921,000 60,000	$\begin{array}{r} 1,000,000\\ 23,950,000\\ 27,599,000\\ 1,800,000 \end{array}$	800,000 26,102,000 23,133,000 1,700,000	(1) 31,436,000 26,000,000 (1)
Total				1,511,293,000	1,521,787,000	
ASIA. Russia: Central Asia (4 gov- ernmentsof) Siberia (4 govern- mentsof) Transcaucasia (1 government of).	133,000 2,676,000 1,000	378,000 2,452,000 (⁵)	(1) (1) (1)	1, 206, 000 35, 887, 000 11, 000	3,070,000 20,143,000 (³)	(1) (1) (1)
Total Russia (Asiatic)	2,810,000			37, 104, 000	23, 213, 000	
AUSTRALASIA. Australia: Queensland New South Wales Victoria South Australia Western Australia Tasmania	(⁶) 5,000 2,000 1,000 1,000 1,000	(1)3,0002,000(1)(1)(1)(1)	(1) 2,000 (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	1,00070,00020,00013,0004,0009,000	$(1) \\ 37,000 \\ (1) \\ 6,000 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1)$	(1) 22,000 (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)
Total Australia	10,000	••••••		117,000		
New Zealand	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Total Australasia				117,000		
Grand total				1,596,882,000		

¹ No official statistics.
 ² 1910 figures (consus).
 ³ Winter rye in 1914 in 5 governments only.

Includes I government of Transcaucasia.
Included in Northern Caucasia.
Less than 500 acres.

TABLE 48.—Rye: Total production of countries named in Table 47, 1895-1916.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899 1900	Bushels. 1, 468, 212, 000 1, 499, 250, 000 1, 300, 645, 000 1, 461, 171, 000 1, 583, 179, 000 1, 557, 634, 000	1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906	1,659,961,000 1,742,112,000 1,495,751,000	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912	Bushcls. 1,538,778,000 1,590,057,000 1,747,123,000 1,673,473,000 1,753,933,000 1,886,517,000	TO TO	1,596,882,000

RYE-Continued.

TABLE 49.—Rye: Average yield per acre in undermentioned countries, 1890-1915.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euro- pean). ¹	Ger- many.1	Austria.1	Hungary proper.1	France. ²	Ireland.1
Average: 1890-1899 1900-1909		Bushcls. 10.4 11.5	Bushels. 20.9 25.6	Bushcls. 16.1 19.0	Bushels. 17.6	Bushels. 17.6 17.1	Bushcls. 25.2 27.5
1903	$ \begin{array}{r} 16.4\\ 16.4\\ 13.4\\ 16.0\\ 15.6\\ 16.8\\ 16.2 \end{array} $	8.8 10.8 11.0 12.6 12.3 10.5 14.3 15.5 12.1	$\begin{array}{c} 25.1\\ 25.8\\ 28.0\\ 28.8\\ 27.1\\ 28.2\\ 29.5\\ 30.4\\ 26.4\\ 22.7\end{array}$	19.9 18.9 22.0 22.3 21.3 20.9 23.3 22.0 3 23.7	19.8 16.0 17.5 17.8 18.9 18.7 19.4 19.6 16.1	$\begin{array}{c} 16.3\\ 18.2\\ 16.8\\ 18.1\\ 14.7\\ 15.8\\ 16.5\\ 17.0\\ 12.2\\ 14.3 \end{array}$	27. 6 27. 0 29. 2 30. 8 30. 3 29. 0 30. 6 30. 0 29. 4 29. 2
Average (1906-1915)	16.2						29, 3

¹Bushels of 56 pounds.

³ Galicia and Bukowina not included

TABLE 50.-Rye: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1916.

² Winchester bushels.

Nore.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

		Aver-		Aver- age			ago ca: bushel			Domestic exports, in-	
Year.	Acreage harvested.	age yield per acre.	Production.	farm price per bushel	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece	December.		owing ay.	cluding rye flour, fiscal year beginning July 1.	
				Dec.1.		Low. High.		Low.	High.		
1849 1859		Bush.	Bushels. 14,189,000 21,101,000	Cents.	Dollars.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Bushels.	
1866 1867 1868 1869 <i>1869</i>	1,548,000 1,689,000 1,651,000 1,658,000	$13.5 \\ 13.7 \\ 13.6 \\ 13.6 \\ 13.6$	20, 865, 000 23, 184, 000 22, 505, 000 22, 528, 000 16, 919, 000	82.2 100.4 94.9 77.0	$\begin{array}{c} 17,150,000\\ 23,281,000\\ 21,349,000\\ 17,342,600 \end{array}$	$132 \\ 106\frac{1}{2} \\ 66$	$ 157 118 77\frac{1}{2} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 142 \\ 173 \\ 100 \\ 78 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 150 \\ 185 \\ 115\frac{1}{2} \\ 83\frac{1}{2} \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{r} 234,971\\564,901\\92,869\\199,450\end{array}$	
1870 1871 1872 1873 1874	1,070,000 1,049,000 1,150,000	13. 214. 414. 213. 213. 4	$\begin{array}{c} 15,474,000\\ 15,366,000\\ 14,889,000\\ 15,142,000\\ 14,991,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 73.\ 2\\ 71.\ 1\\ 67.\ 6\\ 70.\ 3\\ 77.\ 4 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11,327,000\\ 10,928,000\\ 10,071,000\\ 10,638,000\\ 11,610,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 67 \\ 62 \\ 57\frac{1}{2} \\ 70 \\ 93 \end{array}$	$74 \\ 633 \\ 70 \\ 81 \\ 99\frac{1}{2}$	$81 \\ 75 \\ 68\frac{1}{2} \\ 91 \\ 103$	91 93 70 102 107 <u>1</u>	$\begin{array}{r} 87,174\\832,689\\611,749\\1,923,404\\267,058\end{array}$	
1875 1876 1877 1878 1879 1879	1,468,000 1,413,000 1,623,000 1,625,000	13.0 13.9 15.0 15.9 14.5 10.8	17,722,000 20,375,000 21,170,000 25,843,000 23,639,000 19,882,000	$\begin{array}{c} 67.1 \\ 61.4 \\ 57.6 \\ 52.5 \\ 65.6 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11,894,000\\ 12,505,000\\ 12,202,000\\ 13,566,000\\ 15,507,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 67 \\ 65\frac{1}{2} \\ 55\frac{1}{2} \\ 44 \\ 73\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 68\frac{3}{4} \\ 73 \\ 56\frac{1}{2} \\ 44\frac{1}{2} \\ 81 \end{array}$	$61\frac{1}{2}$ 70 54 47 73 $\frac{1}{2}$	$70\frac{1}{2}$ $92\frac{1}{2}$ 60 52 85	$589, 159 \\ 2, 234, 856 \\ 4, 249, 684 \\ 4, 877, 821 \\ 2, 943, 894$	
1850 1881 1882 1883 1884	$\begin{array}{c} 1,768,000\\ 1,759,000\\ 2,228,000\\ 2,315,000\\ 2,344,000 \end{array}$	$13.9 \\ 11.6 \\ 13.4 \\ 12.1 \\ 12.2$	24, 541, 000 20, 705, 000 29, 960, 000 28, 059, 000 28, 640, 000	75. 693. 361. 558. 151. 9	$\begin{array}{c} 18,565,009\\ 19,327,000\\ 18,439,000\\ 16,301,000\\ 14,857,000 \end{array}$	$82 \\ 96\frac{1}{57} \\ 56\frac{1}{5} \\ 51$	$\begin{array}{c} 91\frac{1}{2} \\ 98 \\ 58\frac{1}{2} \\ 60 \\ 52 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 115 \\ 77 \\ 62 \\ 60\frac{1}{2} \\ 68 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 118 \\ 83 \\ 67 \\ 62\frac{1}{2} \\ 73 \end{array} $	1,955,155 1,003,609 2,206,212 6,247,590 2,974,390	
1885 1886 1887 1888 1889 1889	2, 130, 000 2, 053, 000 2, 365, 000 2, 171, 000	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	21,756,000 24,489,000 20,693,000 28,415,000 28,420,000 28,421,000	$57.9 \\ 53.8 \\ 54.5 \\ 58.8 \\ 42.3$	$\begin{array}{c} 12,595,009\\ 13,181,009\\ 11,283,000\\ 16,722,000\\ 12,010,090 \end{array}$	$58\frac{1}{53}$ $55\frac{1}{50}$ 44	$\begin{array}{c} 61 \\ 51\frac{1}{2} \\ 61\frac{1}{2} \\ 52 \\ 45\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$58 \\ 54\frac{1}{2} \\ 63 \\ 39 \\ 49\frac{1}{2}$	$\begin{array}{c} 61 \\ 56\frac{1}{2} \\ 68 \\ 41\frac{1}{2} \\ 54 \end{array}$	216, 699 377, 302 94, 827 309, 266 2, 280, 975	
1890 1891 1892 1893 1894	$\begin{array}{c} 2,142,000\\ 2,176,000\\ 2,164,000\\ 2,038,000 \end{array}$	$12.0 \\ 14.6 \\ 12.9 \\ 13.0 \\ 13.7 \\$	25, 807, 000 31, 752, 000 27, 979, 000 26, 555, 000 26, 728, 000	62. 9 77. 4 54. 2 51. 3 50. 1	$\begin{array}{c} 16,230,000\\ 24,589,000\\ 15,160,000\\ 13,612,000\\ 13,395,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 64\frac{1}{2} \\ 86 \\ 46 \\ 45 \\ 47\frac{1}{3} \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 68\\92\\51\\47\\47\\49\end{array} $	83 701 503 443 621	92 79- 62 48 67	358, 263 12, 068, 628 1, 493, 924 249, 152 32, 045	

RYE-Continued.

		Aver-		Aver- age		Chic	ago cas bushel	sh pric , No. 2	e per	Domestic exports, in-
Year.	Acreage harvested.	age yield per acre.	Production.	farm price per bushel	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece	mber.		owing ay.	cluding rye flour, fiscal year beginning
				Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	fligh.	July 1.
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899 <i>1899</i>	A cres. 1,890,000 1,831,000 1,704,000 1,643,000 1,659,000 2,054,000	Bush. 14.4 13.3 16.1 15.6 14.4 12.4	Bushels. 27, 210, 000 24, 369, 000 27, 363, 000 25, 658, 000 23, 962, 000 25, 569, 000	Ccnts. 44.0 40.9 44.7 46.3 51.0	Dollars. 11,965,000 9,961,000 12,240,000 11,875,000 12,214,000	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 32 \\ 37 \\ 45_{1}^{3} \\ 52_{2}^{1} \\ 49 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 353\\ 42^{\frac{1}{2}}\\ 47\\ 55^{\frac{1}{2}}\\ 52 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cis. \\ 33 \\ 32\frac{3}{4} \\ 48 \\ 56\frac{1}{2} \\ 53 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 36\frac{1}{2} \\ 35\frac{1}{2} \\ 75 \\ 62 \\ 56\frac{1}{4} \end{array}$	Bushcls. 1,011,128 8,575,663 15,562,035 10,169,822 2,382,012
1900 1 901 1 902 1 903 1 904	1,591,000 1,988,000 1,979,000 1,907,000 -1,793,000	15.1 15.3 17.0 15.4 15.2	23,996,000 30,345,000 33,631,000 29,363,000 27,242,000	$51.2 \\ 55.7 \\ 50.8 \\ 54.5 \\ 68.8$	$\begin{array}{c} 12,295,009\\ 16,910,000\\ 17,081,000\\ 15,994,000\\ 18,748,000 \end{array}$	$45\frac{3}{4}$ 59 48 50 $\frac{1}{2}$ 73	$\begin{array}{r} 49\frac{3}{4}\\ 65\frac{3}{4}\\ 49\frac{3}{4}\\ 52\frac{1}{2}\\ 75\end{array}$	$51\frac{1}{54\frac{1}{2}}$ 48 69 $\frac{3}{4}$ 70	54 58 50 <u>1</u> 78 84	2, 345, 512 2, 712, 077 5, 445, 273 784, 068 29, 749
1905 1906 1907 1908 1909 <i>1909</i>	1,730,000 2,002,000 1,926,000 1,948,000 2,006,000 2,196,009	16.5 16.7 16.4 16.4 16.1 13.4	28, 486, 000 33, 375, 000 31, 566, 000 31, 851, 000 32, 239, 000 29, 520, 000	61. 1 58. 9 73. 1 73. 6 71. 8	17, 414, 000 19, 671, 000 23, 063, 000 23, 455, 000 21, 163, 000	$ \begin{array}{r} 64 \\ 61 \\ 75 \\ 75 \\ 72 \\$	$ \begin{array}{r} 68 \\ 65 \\ 82 \\ 77\frac{1}{1} \\ 80 \end{array} $	58 69 79 8 3 74		1,387,826769,7172,444,5881,295,701242,262
1910 ¹ 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	2,185,000 2,127,000 2,117,000 2,557,000 2,541,000 3,129,000 3,096,000	16. 0 15. 6 16. 8 16. 2 16. 8 17. 3 15. 3	34, 897, 000 33, 119, 000 35, 664, 000 41, 381, 000 42, 779, 000 54, 050, 000 47, 383, 000	71. 5 83. 2 66. 3 63. 4 86. 5 83. 4 122. 1	21, 303, 000 24, 953, 000 27, 557, 000 23, 636, 000 26, 220, 000 37, 018, 000 45, 083, 000 57, 857, 000	$ \begin{array}{r} 80 \\ 91 \\ 58 \\ 61 \\ 107\frac{1}{2} \\ 94\frac{1}{2} \\ 130 \\ \end{array} $		90 90 60 62 115 90 ¹ / ₂	$ \begin{array}{c c} 113 \\ 95\frac{1}{2} \\ 64 \\ 67 \\ 122 \\ 99\frac{1}{2} \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{r} 40,123\\ 31,384\\ 1,854,738\\ 2,272,402\\ 13,026,778\\ 15,250,151\end{array}$

 TABLE 50.—Rye: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849– 1916—Continued.

¹ Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 51.-Rye: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916.

[000 omitted.]

Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Acres. 1 3 7 151 70	Bushcls. 20 56 137 2,718 1,330	Dollars. 24 71 171 3,479 1,556	South Dakota Nebraska	250 192	Bushels. 4,655 4,500 3,072 667 246	Dollars. 5,819 5,310 3,564 734 317
260 1 23 75 20	4,420 15 356 938 320	4,818 18 392 1,004 381	Tennessee Alabama. Texas. Oklahoma. Arkansas	$15 \\ 4 \\ 2 \\ 9 \\ 1$	$ \begin{array}{r} 150 \\ 52 \\ 20 \\ 90 \\ 10 \end{array} $	$202 \\ 91 \\ 21 \\ 112 \\ 12$
55 5 13 75 185	534 49 124 1,088 2,590	694 91 198 1,306 3,082	Montana. Wyoming. Colorado. Utah.	$ \begin{array}{c} 10 \\ 10 \\ 28 \\ 12 \end{array} $	205 155 392 144	$197 \\ 167 \\ 412 \\ 144$
43 325 375 335 55	666 4,618 6,075 5,025	813 6,042 8,019 6,382 1,075	Washington Oregon California	7 30 8	102 510 104	32 113 556 121 57,857
	Acres. 1 3 7 151 70 260 1 23 75 20 55 5 13 75 185 43 325 375	Acreage. tion. 1 20 3 56 7 137 151 2,718 70 1,330 260 4,420 1 15 23 356 75 938 20 320 55 549 13 124 75 1,083 185 2,550 43 666 325 4,618 375 6,075 335 5,025	Acreage. Produce tion. value Dec. 1. 1 20 24 3 56 71 7 137 171 151 $2,718$ $3,479$ 70 $1,330$ $1,550$ 260 $4,420$ $4,818$ 15 15 18 23 356 302 75 938 $1,004$ 20 320 381 55 574 694 6 49 91 13 124 198 75 $1,088$ $1,306$ 852 5500 $3,082$ 325 $4,618$ $6,042$ 325 $4,618$ $6,042$ 325 $4,618$ $6,042$ 325 $6,075$ $8,019$	Acreage. I routle- tion. value Dec. 1. State. Acres. Bushcls. Dollars. North Daltota 3 56 71 South Dakota 7 137 171 Netraska 151 2,718 3,479 Kansas 20 3 1,550 Kentucky 20 1,330 1,550 Kentucky 20 320 381 Alabama 23 356 392 Texas 75 938 1,004 Oklahoma Oklahoma 20 320 381 Arkanses Montana 55 534 694 Montana Oklahoma 13 124 198 Colorado Idaho 13 24 198 Colorado Mashington 325 4,666 813 Washington California 335 5,025 6,382 United States <td>$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$</td> <td>Acreage.I rodule- tion.value Dec. 1.State.AcreageI rodule- tion.Acres.Bushels.Dollars.North Dal:ota</td>	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Acreage.I rodule- tion.value Dec. 1.State.AcreageI rodule- tion.Acres.Bushels.Dollars.North Dal:ota

RYE—Continued.

TABLE 52.-Rye: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1891-1917.

Year.	De- cem- ber of pre- vious year.	April.	May.	June.	When har- vested.	Year.	De- cem- ber of pre- vious year.	April.	May.	June.	When har- vested.
1901 1802 1893 1894 1895 1895 1895 1895 1895 1897 1898 1898 1899 1909 1941 1942 1943 1954 1955 1957	$\begin{array}{c} 94.9\\99.8\\91.0\\98.9\\98.2\\99.1\\89.9\end{array}$	95.4 87.0 85.7 94.4 87.0 82.9 88.9 92.1 84.9 84.8	P. ct. 97.2 88.9 82.7 85.7 85.7 85.2 85.2 88.5 94.5 85.2 88.5 94.6 83.4 83.3 81.2	P. ct. 95.4 91.0 84.6 93.2 85.7 85.2 89.9 97.1 84.5 87.6 93.9 88.1 90.6 86.3	$\begin{array}{c} P. ct.\\ 93.9\\ 92.8\\ 85.3\\ 87.0\\ 80.7\\ 88.4\\ 93.4\\ 94.6\\ 85.6\\ 80.4\\ 93.0\\ 90.2\\ 89.5\\ 88.9\end{array}$	1905	P. ct. 90.5 95.4 96.2 91.4 87.6 91.1 92.6 93.3 93.5 93.5 93.5 93.5 91.5 88.8	P. ct. 92.1 90.9 92.0 89.1 87.2 92.3 89.3 87.9 89.3 87.9 89.3 91.3 89.5 87.8	P. ct. 93.5 \$2.9 88.0 90.3 88.1 91.3 90.0 87.5 91.0 93.4 93.3 88.7	P. ct. 94.0 89.9 88.1 91.3 89.6 90.6 88.6 90.6 88.6 88.6 90.9 93.6 92.0 86.9	P. ct. 93.2 91.3 89.7 91.2 91.4 87.5 85.0 88.2 88.6 92.9 92.0 87.0

TABLE 53.-Rye: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			Z	'ield	per	acrø	(bus	hels)	l.			F	arm		e per ats).	busł	nel	Val per (doll	lue acre lars).1
State.	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year average, 1911-1915.	1916
Vt. Mass. Conn. N. Y. N. J.	17.7 19.0 17.3	16.5 17.0 16.5	16.5 18.5 16.5	16.2 18.7 17.0	17.0 20.0 18.3	16.0 18.5 16.7	18.5 17.5 16.5	18.5 19.3 17.2	19.0 19.0 17.7	21.5 18.7	18.5 19.6 18.0	95 87	90 100 92 76 79	90 98 92 75 80	80 101 98 89 82	85 102 102 93 92	127 125 128	18.28 18.32 14.69	24.00 23.50 24.50 23.04 22.23
Pa. Del. Md. Va. W. Va.	15.2 15.5 12.9 13.3	16.5 16.0 14.0 12.0	15.5 15.0 12.5 13.0	14.0 14.1 12.3 13.5	15.5 16.1 13.5 12.9	15.0 14.5 11.5 11.0	14.0 15.5 12.5 13.0	14.0 14.4 12.3 13.5	17.5 17,0 13.0 14.5	16.5 14.5 14.0	15.0 15.5 12.5 16.0	88 83 87	77 81 80 85 84	74 79 76 81 87	83 92 86 90 90	84 99 88 93 93	123 110 107 119	$13.62 \\ 12.98 \\ 11.20 \\ 11.73 $	18.53 18.45 17.05 13.38 19.04
N. C S. C Ga Ohio Ind.	. 10. 1 9. 3 16. 4 15. 4	10.0 9.0 17.2 17.0	9.6 8.7 16.5 15.0	9.8 9.0 17.2 16.5	10.0 10.4 16.5 15.8	$ \begin{array}{c} 10.0 \\ 9.5 \\ 15.5 \\ 13.7 \\ \end{array} $	9.5 9.2 15.5 14.5	10.5 9.5 16.5 15.2	$ \begin{array}{c} 11.5 \\ 9.3 \\ 17.0 \\ 16.3 \end{array} $	10.0 9.2 17.5 16.0	$9.8 \\ 9.5 \\ 14.5 \\ 14.0$	148 140 81 78	$105 \\ 145 \\ 140 \\ 75 \\ 68$	98 150 135 69 62	105 150 150 81 85	83 82	185 160 120 119	$15.28 \\ 13.13 \\ 12.89 \\ 11.44$	$\begin{array}{c} 12.\ 61\\ 18.\ 13\\ 15.\ 20\\ 17.\ 40\\ 16.\ 63\end{array}$
Ill. Mi-h. Wis. Minn. Iowa.	14.9 17.3 18.7 18.4	14.5 18.0 18.5 17.8	15.5 19.0 18.5 20.0	15.5 16.3 19.0 17.8	15.3 16.0 17.0 18.5	14.6 17.0 18.7 18.0	$ \begin{array}{c} 13.3 \\ 18.3 \\ 23.0 \\ 19.0 \\ \end{array} $	14.3 17.5 19.0 18.2	16.0 16.5 18.8 19.0	18.5 19.5 18.5	$14.3 \\ 16.2 \\ 15.0 \\ 17.0 \\ 17.0 \\ 17.0 \\ 17.0 \\ 17.0 \\ 17.0 \\ 17.0 \\ 10.0 \\ $	80 79 73 73	70 65 61 50 62	65 62 57 48 60	85 91 91 89 77		130 132 127 115	$ \begin{array}{r} 11.53 \\ 13.31 \\ 13.55 \\ 13.20 \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 18.91 \\ 18.59 \\ 21.38 \\ 19.05 \\ 19.55 \end{array}$
Mo. N. Dak S. Dak Ne'r Kar3	15.5 16.6 15.8 14.5	516.0 517.0 517.0 517.0 512.0) 18. 0) 17. 5) 16. 0) 13. 3	18.4 17.5 16.5 14.2	8.5 17.0 16.0 14.0		18.0 19.5 16.0 15.9	14.4 13.2 14.5 14.6	17.1 17.0 16.0 20.0	19.5 17.5 16.0	13.3 18.0 16.0 14.5	70 69 69 78	80 47 52 56 68	75 45 50 60 75	87 84 78 74 80	76 73 76	$125 \\ 118 \\ 116 \\ 110$	$10.75 \\ 10.48 \\ 10.41 \\ 11.68 \\$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.53 \\ 16.62 \\ 21.24 \\ 18.56 \\ 15.95 \end{array}$
Ky. 9 C.ai 2 b. Tes C. h	. 11.3 . 11.2 . 13.2 . 12.1	5 10, 0 2 10, 5 2 10, 0 10, 0	(12.5) (10.0) (15.5) (13.5)	10.7 11.3 11.2 13.5	11.0 12.0 11.5 13.7	$ \begin{array}{c} 11.9 \\ 10.0 \\ 510.0 \\ 7 9.5 \end{array} $	(11.5) (11.5) (16.6) (12.6)	12.0 11.0 15.0 9.5	$ \begin{array}{c} 13.0 \\ 13.0 \\ 14.8 \\ 16.0 \\ \end{array} $	(10.0) (17.0) (13.5)	10.0 13.0 10.0 10.0	100 132 106 90	134 110 87	86	99 95	135 103 77	$135 \\ 175 \\ 120 \\ 125$	$\begin{array}{c} 11.\ 70\\ 14.\ 22\\ 15.\ 23\\ 10.\ 82 \end{array}$	14.45 13.50 22.75 12.00 12.50
Сл Мора Улуб, Сојо, Utoji,	$ \begin{array}{c} 22.2 \\ 19.8 \\ 17.0 \\ 16.8 \\ \end{array} $	2 22. 0 5 21. 5 9 20. 5	$\begin{array}{c} 20.0\\ 522.0\\ 515.0\\ 15.0\\ 15.0 \end{array}$	29.0 26.0 22.0 22.0 22.0	(20.0) (18.7) (14.0) (18.3)	23.0 20.0 12.0 15.5	$egin{array}{c} 23.5 \\ 19.6 \\ 19.5 \\ 19.5 \\ 15.6 \end{array}$	21.0 19.0 17.0 17.0	$) 21.6 \\) 17.6 \\) 17.5 \\ 0 17.5 \\ 0$	22.5 20.0 17.5 15.5	20.5 15.5 14.0 12.0	70 81 70 69	60 65 55 68	95 55 64 60 60	60	65	96 108 105 100	14.31 14.86 10.59 10.37	11.50 19.68 16.74 14.70 12.00
Id-ho. Wash Oreg Cal	$ \frac{119.8}{117.0} $) 16. (549.7)48.0	21.0	20.3 15.1 17.0	5 22. (19. 8) 17. (20.0 $ 516.0 $ $ 17.0$	21.0 17.7) 19.7 5 16.0) 18, 0) 14, 0	14.5 17.0 13.0	83 91 90	70 90	58 60 75 75	100	90 90	111 115 116	$14.72 \\ 14.81$	16. 15 16. 10 19. 55 15. 08

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

RYE-Continued.

 TABLE 54.—Rye: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1915 and 1916.

Month.		ited ites.	Atla	orth antic ates.	Atla	uth antic ates.	State	entral es east iss. R.	State	entral s west ss. R.	Cer	uth itral ites.	Far V ern S	West- tates.
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1 915
	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
January	85.3	90.2	88.8	88.9	90.9	92.7	86.5	93.5	81.4	87.7	97.2	97.1	77.8	76.1
February	88.3	100.6	92.7	96.8	92.6	96.0	89.8	105.7	84.6	99.3	89.8	101.7	78.9	84.7
March	85.6	105.4	88.2	106.7	96.8	102.5	86.8	108.3	81.2	102.8	91.7	108.6	80.7	89.6
April	83.6	100.4	90.4	101.3	96.0	95.4	84.6	101.9	76.7	99.2	92.3	105.4	81.7	93.9
May	83.7	101.9	88.7	102.6	93.7	95.4	84.4	103.0	78.8	101.0	92.2	103.1	78.3	100.9
June	83.8	98.1	90.2	99.5	91.8	98.1	84.9	98.6	78.1	95.6	91.3	100.9	73.6	95.2
July	83.3	93.7	89.4	95.1	87.9	95.3	83.3	93.3	79.4	94.6	84.0	92.4	81.8	82.1
August	83.4	89.0	88.6	92.8	90.5	92.5	84.6	88.5	77.9	87.0	96.3	94.9	80.0	S1.4
September	99.7	85.5	96.9	87.9	95.7	92.2	102.0	85.5	100.1	83.2	109.3	90.1	90.2	78.5
October	104.1	81.7	99.6	86.0	103.2	90.4	108.9	83.0	102.0	76.0	119.5	94.3	91.8	71.4
	115.3	85.7	115.8	86.5	103.7	95.1	117.3	86.8	114.8	83.2	129.5	98.7	105.9	71.4
December	122.1	83.4	116.6	88.3	118.9	9 8. 2	127.8	85.0	121.4	78.1	133.5	97.7	107.7	77.2
Average	97.8	90.0	98.9	91.8	97.6	94.3	99.8	91.1	98.6	85.6	106.4	96.8	89.6	79.8

TABLE 55.—Rye: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1916.

	Philad	elphia.	Cinci	nnati.	Chie	cago.	Dul	uth.		ancisco)0 lbs.).
Date.	Low.	High.	No	. 2.	No	. 2.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
	2011.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	ыşп.	LOW.	mgu.
1912.	Cents.		Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.		Cents.
January-June July-December	82 68	105 85	78 62	100 81	75 58	$ \begin{array}{c} 961 \\ 76 \end{array} $		$\frac{91\frac{1}{2}}{70}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 147\frac{1}{2} \\ 140 \end{array} $	172 172
1913. January-June. July-December	65 65	70 77	60 60	70 72	58 61	65 <u>1</u> 70 <u>1</u>	52 50	59 65	$132\frac{1}{2}$ 135	147 165
1914. January-June. July-December	65 65	$\begin{array}{c} 75\\125\end{array}$	62 60	71 115	58 55	$67 \\ 112\frac{1}{2}$	50 57	62 107	$152\frac{1}{2}$ 130	165 165
1915. January. February. March April May. June	115 125 125 110 110 105 105	125 130 130 120 115 110	$ \begin{array}{r} 113\frac{1}{2} \\ 118 \\ 103 \\ 110 \\ 112 \\ 107 \\ 107 $	130 133 120 116 120 113	$ \begin{array}{r} 111\frac{1}{2} \\ 115 \\ 112 \\ 115\frac{1}{2} \\ 115 \\ 115 \\ 114 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 126\frac{1}{2} \\ 131 \\ 121 \\ 118 \\ 122 \\ 119 \\ 119 \\ \end{array} $	106 113 106 106 110 110	$ \begin{array}{r} 123\frac{1}{2} \\ 128 \\ 119 \\ 116 \\ 118 \\ 114 \\ \end{array} $	160 200 200 200 200 (¹)	225 225 225 225 225 225 (¹)
January-June	105	130	107	133	$111\frac{1}{2}$	131	106	128	160	225
July. August. September October. November December.	$92 \\ 90 \\ 91 \\ 95 \\ 100 \\ 105$	99 95 105 112 110 112	98 93 92 98 98 98 95	112 105 102 107 107 107	$96 \\ 96 \\ 91 \\ 95 \\ 94 \\ 94\frac{1}{2}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 119 \\ 100\frac{1}{2} \\ 107 \\ 103 \\ 98\frac{1}{2} \end{array} $	95 91 89 90 87 87	$ \begin{array}{r} 111 \\ 107 \\ 96 \\ 99 \\ 96 \\ 93 \\ 93 \end{array} $	(1) 155 145 145 155 155	(1) 165 160 160 160 160
July-December	90	112	92	112	91	119	87	111	145	165
1916. January February March April May Juno	$106 \\ 110 \\ 115 \\ 105 \\ 95 \\ 90$	112 115 118 110 105 95	99 90 90 98 92 92	104 106 100 104 101 100	97 90 90 <u>1</u> 94 96 <u>1</u> 97	$ \begin{array}{r} 1043 \\ 103 \\ 96 \\ 981 \\ 991 \\ 991 \\ 992 \\ \end{array} $	93 87 87 91 91 91	98 97 91 96 95 95	$155 \\ 150 \\ 152\frac{1}{2} \\ 152\frac$	160 160 160 155 155 155
January-June	90	115	92	104	90	1043	87	98	150	160
July. August Septomber Octobor. November December.	$90 \\ 100 \\ 110 \\ 125 \\ 143 \\ 135$	$ \begin{array}{r} 100 \\ 110 \\ 125 \\ 150 \\ 155 \\ 155 \\ 155 \\ \end{array} $	96 103 123 125 139 138	$105 \\ 127\frac{1}{2} \\ 128 \\ 141 \\ 155 \\ 153$	94 100 115 124 140 130	$ \begin{array}{r} 101 \\ 1261 \\ 1255 \\ 141 \\ 153 \\ 151 \end{array} $	89 94 115 120 137 138	95 120 122 138 149 150	$152\frac{1}{2}$ $152\frac{1}{2}$ 175 195 215 225	155 180 200 225 235 265
July-December	90	155	96	155	94	153	89	150	152}	265

¹ Nominal

RYE-Continued.

TABLE 56.—Rye (including flour): International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)
Argentina. Bulgatia Canada Denmark Germary Notherlands.	Bushels. 861 673 12,029 127 319 51,979 20,291	Bushels. 451 146 5 10,418	Bushels. 194 501 197	Roumania Russia United States Other countries Total	Bushels. 2,601 33,170 2,034 480 114,567	Bushels. 1,241 20,298 8,164 100 40,823	Bushels. 13,273 13,655

IMPORTS.

Italy 1,215 233	1,215 233	537	1,436
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¹ Data for 1912.

BUCKWHEAT.

TABLE 57.-Buckwheat: Acreage, production, and value in the United States, 1849-1916.

Norg.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

Year.	Acre- age (thou- sands of acres).	A ver- age yield per acre (bush- els).	Pro- duc- tion (thou- sands of bush- els).	Aver- age farm price Dec. 1 (cents per bushel).	Farm value Dec. 1 (thou- sands of del- lars).	Year.	Acre- age (thou- sands of acres).	Aver- age yield per acre (bush- els).	Pro- duc- tion (thou- sands of bush- els).	Aver- age farm price Dec. 1 (cents per bushel).	Farm value Dec. 1 (thou- sands of dol- lars).
1849 1859 1859 1866 1867 1868 1859 1870 1871 1872 1873 1874 1875 1870 1871 1873 1874 1875 1870 1870 1870 1870 1870 1880 1881 1882 1884 1885 1884 1885 1884 1885 1884 1885 1884 1885 1885 1884 1885 1884 1883 1884 1885 1883 1883 1883 1883	$\begin{array}{c} 1,046\\ 1,228\\ 1,114\\ 1,029\\ \hline\\ 537\\ 414\\ 448\\ 453\\ 576\\ 6650\\ 673\\ 6400\\ 848\\ 823\\ 829\\ 829\\ 829\\ 829\\ 817\\ 857\\ 857\\ 879\\ 914\\ 918\\ 911\\ 933\\ 837\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ 21.8 \\ 17.4 \\ 17.8 \\ 16.9 \\ \\ & & \\ 18.3 \\ 20.1 \\ 18.1 \\ 17.7 \\ 17.5 \\ 14.5 \\ 15.7 \\ 17.5 \\ 15.7 \\ 18.2 \\ 20.5 \\ 15.7 \\ 18.2 \\ 20.5 \\ 15.8 \\ 12.9 \\ 13.8 \\ 12.9 \\ 13.2 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 13.2 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 13.2 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 13.2 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 13.2 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 13.2 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.5 \\$	$\begin{array}{c} 8, 957\\ 17, 572\\ 22, 792\\ 21, 359\\ 19, 864\\ 17, 431\\ 9, 822\\ 9, 842\\ 9, 842\\ 9, 8329\\ 8, 329\\ 8, 329\\ 8, 329\\ 8, 134\\ 7, 838\\ 8, 017\\ 12, 247\\ 13, 140\\ 10, 082\\ 9, 660\\ 10, 177\\ 12, 247\\ 13, 140\\ 11, 817\\ 14, 618\\ 9, 486\\ 11, 019\\ 7, 669\\ 11, 168\\ 9, 486\\ 11, 019\\ 7, 669\\ 11, 168\\ 9, 486\\ 11, 019\\ 7, 669\\ 11, 168\\ 9, 486\\ 12, 050\\ 12, 110\\ 12, 1$	$\begin{array}{c} & & & \\$	$\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & 15,413 \\ & 16,812 \\ & 15,490 \\ & 12,535 \\ & \\ & 6,037 \\ & 6,203 \\ & 5,979 \\ & 5,844 \\ & 6,255 \\ & 6,436 \\ & 6,543 \\ & 6,441 \\ & 7,856 \\ & \\ & 8,603 \\ & 8,039 \\ & 6,304 \\ & 6,519 \\ & 7,057 \\ & 6,462 \\ & 6,113 \\ & \\ & 7,628 \\ & 6,113 \\ & \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	878 860 833 841 805 792	$\begin{array}{c} 14.7\\ 15.0\\ 14.1\\ 14.9\\ 16.6\\ 18.7\\ 20.9\\ 17.3\\ 16.6\\ 18.7\\ 15.0\\ 18.6\\ 18.1\\ 17.7\\ 18.6\\ 19.2\\ 19.2\\ 19.8\\ 20.9\\ 20.5\\ 21.1\\ 17.9\\ 19.8\\ 20.9\\ 20.5\\ 21.1\\ 17.2\\ 21.9\\ 31.9\\ 19.8\\ 20.9\\ 17.9\\ 20.5\\ 21.1\\ 19.8\\ 21.9\\ 19.8\\ 20.9\\ 17.9\\ 21.3\\ 19.8\\ 21.9\\ 19.8\\ 21.9\\ 19.8\\ 21.9\\ 19.8\\ 21.9\\ 19.8\\ 22.9\\ 17.9\\ 22.9\\ 19.8\\ 21.9\\ 21.9\\$	$\begin{array}{c} 12,433\\12,761\\12,143\\12,143\\12,143\\12,132\\12,668\\15,342\\14,907\\14,907\\14,907\\14,907\\15,126\\14,500\\14,244\\15,008\\14,585\\14,642\\14,500\\15,874\\14,585\\14,642\\14,288\\14,642\\17,598\\14,642\\17,598\\14,642\\17,598\\14,642\\17,598\\14,642\\13,881\\14,642\\14,849\\17,598\\14,642\\13,856\\14,642\\14,864\\14,642\\14,864\\14,642\\14,864\\14$	$\begin{array}{c} 57.4\\ 57.0\\ 51.8\\ 53.3\\ 55.6\\ 45.2\\ 42.1\\ 45.0\\ 55.7\\ 55.8\\ 56.3\\ 59.6\\ 60.7\\ 62.2\\ 58.7\\ 59.6\\ 60.7\\ 62.2\\ 58.7\\ 59.6\\ 60.8\\ 75.6\\ 70.1\\ 66.1\\ 72.6\\ 66.1\\ 72.5\\ 76.4\\ 78.7\\ 112.9\\ 76.4\\ 78.7\\ 112.9\\ 76.7\\ 112.9\\ 76.7\\ 112.9\\ 76.7\\ 112.9\\ 76.7\\ 112.9\\ 75.5\\ 76.4\\ 78.7\\ 76.7\\$	$\begin{array}{c} 7, 133\\ 7, 272\\ 6, 296\\ 6, 040\\ 6, 036\\ 5, 522\\ 6, 310\\ 6, 310\\ 6, 310\\ 6, 310\\ 6, 310\\ 6, 310\\ 6, 310\\ 6, 310\\ 6, 310\\ 7, 310\\$

Figures adjusted to consus basis.

Statistics of Buckwheat.

BUCKWHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 58.—Buckwheat: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916.

[000 omitted.]

State.	Acre- age.	Pro- duc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acre- age.	Pro- duc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Maine. New Hampshire. Vermont. Massachusetts. Connecticut. New York. New York. New Jersey. Pennsylvania. Delaware. Maryland.	$ \begin{array}{r} 12 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 290 \\ 15 \\ 270 \\ 3 \\ 10 \\ \end{array} $	Bush. 336 20 210 32 57 3,480 285 3,780 57 189	Dolls. 319 220 45 68 4,246 308 4,196 67 208	Ohio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Missouri Nebraska Tennessee	Acres. 19 8 4 75 20 10 10 4 1 3	Bush. 336 144 68 825 280 150 150 56 17 54	Dolls. 370 161 88 019 325 168 188 74 19 54
Virginia. West Virginia. North Carolina.	$25 \\ 36 \\ 10$	$ \begin{array}{r} 480 \\ 659 \\ 175 \end{array} $	$456 \\ 666 \\ 119$	United States	845	11,840	13,364

 TABLE 59.—Buckwheat: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1896-1916.

Year.	Aug.	Sept.	When har- vested.	Year.	Aug.	Sept.	When har- vested.	Year.	Aug.	Sept.	When har- vested
1896 1897 1898 1899 1900 1901 1902	P. ct. 96.0 94.9 87.2 93.2 87.9 91.1 91.4	$\begin{array}{c} P. \ ct. \\ 93. 2 \\ 95. 1 \\ 88. 8 \\ 75. 2 \\ 80. 5 \\ 90. 9 \\ 86. 4 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} P. ct. \\ 86.0 \\ 90.8 \\ 76.2 \\ 70.3 \\ 72.8 \\ 90.5 \\ 80.5 \end{array}$	1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1903 1909	$\begin{array}{c} P. \ ct. \\ 93. \ 9 \\ 92. \ 8 \\ 92. \ 6 \\ 93. \ 2 \\ 91. \ 9 \\ 89. \ 4 \\ 86. \ 4 \end{array}$	P. ct. 91.0 91.5 91.8 91.2 77.4 87.8 81.0	P. ct. 83.0 83.7 91.6 84.9 80.1 81.6 79.5	1910 1911. 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	P. ct. 87.9 82.9 88.4 85.5 88.8 92.6 87.8	P. ct. 82, 3 83, 8 91, 6 75, 4 87, 1 88, 6 78, 5	P. ct. 81.7 81.4 89.2 65.9 83.3 81.9 66.9

TABLE 60.—Buckwheat: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			2	lield	per	acre	(bu	shels	;).			F	arm		e per nts).	busl	lel	per	lue acre lars).1
State.	10-year aver- age,1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year aver- age,1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year average, 1911-1915.	1916
N. H. Vt	$\begin{array}{c} 24.2\\ 19.6\\ 18.7\\ 19.9\\ 2).5\\ 19.6\\ 20.3\\ 18.4\\ 19.2\\ 21.3\\ 18.0\\ 20.0\\ 17.3\\ 18.2\\ 15.3\\ 16.9\\ 15.7\\ 15.4\\ 17.8\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 22.0\\ 22.0\\ 22.0\\ 16.0\\ 17.5\\ 16.5\\ 19.0\\ 19.0\\ 19.0\\ 19.0\\ 19.5\\ 15.5\\ 19.5\\ 15.5\\ 17.0\\ 15.5\\ 16.0\\ 14.7\\ 15.0\\ 14.5\\ \end{array}$	21.522.00 18.02 18.02 21.44 20.00 19.22 19.22 18.00 18.55 18.00 18.55 15.22 18.25 15.22 18.25 15.22 18.25 19.20 11.80 11	$\begin{array}{c} 22.0\\ 22.0\\ 19.3\\ 19.5\\ 24.0\\ 21.8\\ 19.5\\ 19.5\\ 19.5\\ 19.5\\ 19.5\\ 19.8\\ 21.2\\ 17.3\\ 18.2\\ 112.3\\ 15.2\\ 15.2\\ 15.2\\ 0\\ 21.0\\ 21.0\\ 0\\ 16.0\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 31.0\\ 24.0\\ 22.0\\ 19.5\\ 23.0\\ 21.5\\ 19.5\\ 20.5\\ 18.0\\ 23.0\\ 19.0\\ 19.0\\ 18.0\\ 19.0\\ 18.0\\ 14.0\\ 14.9\\ 16.5\\ 20.0\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 27.3\\ 24.3\\ 21.0\\ 19.0\\ 21.3\\ 20.0\\ 21.9\\ 20.0\\ 21.9\\ 20.0\\ 21.0\\ 21.0\\ 21.0\\ 19.0\\ 21.0\\ 19.0\\ 21.0\\ 19.0\\$	$\begin{array}{c} 31.0\\ 30.0\\ 21.0\\ 20.5\\ 23.8\\ 22.0\\ 24.2\\ 16.0\\ 17.5\\ 21.5\\ 24.0\\ 17.5\\ 19.5\\ 22.0\\ 17.0\\ 19.0\\ 19.0\\ 17.0\\ 19.0\\ 15.0\\ 15.0\\ 15.0\\ 18.0\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 31.0\\ 25.0\\ 17.0\\ 17.0\\ 14.3\\ 22.0\\ 18.5\\ 17.0\\ 18.5\\ 17.0\\ 18.5\\ 17.0\\ 18.5\\ 17.0\\ 18.5\\ 17.0\\ 15.0\\ 15.0\\ 11.0\\ 22.0\\ 0\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 25.0\\ 28.0\\ 18.5\\ 18.5\\ 23.0\\ 21.0\\ 20.5\\ 19.0\\ 19.0\\ 19.0\\ 19.0\\ 18.5\\ 19.0\\ 18.5\\ 19.0\\ 18.5\\ 17.7\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 17.5\\ 18.5\\ 5\\ 15.5\\ 18$	$\begin{array}{c} 30.0\\ 27.0\\ 27.0\\ 16.0\\ 20.0\\ 19.0\\ 21.0\\ 20.0\\ 20.0\\ 20.0\\ 20.0\\ 20.0\\ 22.0\\ 0\\ 22.0\\ 0\\ 23.0\\ 17.5\\ 13.0\\ 17.5\\ 13.0\\ 15.0\\ 20.0\\ 15.0\\ 20.0\\ \end{array}$	22.00 17.5 16.00 19.00 11.00 11.00 15.00 17	76 79 88 93 78 79 74 74 76 78 80 80 79 91 73 75 85 95	$\begin{array}{c} 70\\ 72\\ 85\\ 85\\ 85\\ 64\\ 72\\ 64\\ 66\\ 71\\ 75\\ 75\\ 75\\ 75\\ 75\\ 75\\ 75\\ 75\\ 75\\ 75$	566 680 800 95 810 733 695 75 50 70 694 81 855 758 60 81 85 758 60 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80	600 700 822 84 95 76 83 76 83 76 83 76 81 84 38 37 66 75 95 71 76 0 77 93 81 90	$\begin{array}{c} 79\\ 81\\ 82\\ 955\\ 80\\ 83\\ 75\\ 72\\ 80\\ 80\\ 82\\ 75\\ 80\\ 80\\ 82\\ 75\\ 80\\ 95\\ 72\\ 83\\ 75\\ 80\\ 95\\ 95\\ 95\\ 95\\ 95\\ 95\\ 95\\ 95\\ 95\\ 95$	$\begin{array}{c} 100\\ 105\\ 140\\ 120\\ 122\\ 108\\ 111\\ 118\\ 110\\ 95\\ 101\\ 85\\ 110\\ 112\\ 130\\ 115\\ 116\\ 112\\ 125\\ 133\\ 110\\ 112\\ 125\\ 133\\ 110\\ 101\\ 101\\ 101\\ 101\\ 101\\ 101$	$\begin{array}{c} 21.34\\ 21.47\\ 16.18\\ 17.80\\ 15.01\\ 15.01\\ 15.41\\ 12.59\\ 13.52\\ 15.62\\ 13.52\\ 15.03\\ 13.23\\ 16.10\\ 11.59\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 12.58\\ 13.17\\ 12.10\\ 13.17\\ 13$	22.80 20.00 18.38 22.40 22.80 14.64 22.52 15.54 22.42 20.52 18.24 19.47 20.16 22.10 12.65 16.24 15.54 22.10 12.65 16.24 18.75 18.75
Tenn U. S	16.8	15.0	15.3	15.0	15.0	16.0	18.0	15.0	2 2. 3	18.0	18.0	81	78	75	78	76	100	13,80	

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

BUCKWHEAT-Continued.

TABLE 61.—Buckwheat: Farm price per bushel on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1915 and 1916.

Month.		ited tes.		rth intic tes.	Atla	ith intic tes.		entral s east ss. R.	States	entral s west ss. R.	South Central States.	
	1916	1915	1916	1915	191 6	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
January. February March. April. May. June	80.7 83.2 83.1	Cts. 77.9 83.7 85.5 85.3 84.6 86.9	Cts. 81.6 81.1 83.0 83.5 85.2 88.7	Cts. 77.6 84.0 87.0 84.8 84.7 87.6	Cts. 82.5 81.3 84.9 81.9 83.1 81.2	Cts. 81.2 85.0 85.1 89.2 89.0 86.7	Cts. 78.1 75.6 79.6 79.0 84.4 80.0	Cts. 76.5 80.8 77.0 85.1 79.6 82.7	Cts. 87.7 93.0 102.7 101.0 93.5 100.0	Cts. 87.5 79.0 82.5 90.0 90.5 91.0	Cts. 80.0 76.0 74.0 74.0 74.0 74.0	Cls. 74.0 76.0 80.0 78.0 77.0 76.0
July . August . Sepfember . October . November . December .	89.0 86.4 90.4 102.9	92.1 89.2 81.4 73.7 78.5 78.7	94.8 90.8 87.1 90.8 104.6 114.9	93.3 91.3 81.6 73.9 79.0 79.0	85.6 83.9 84.4 84.6 88.8 99.1	87.1 83.2 82.0 77.0 75.2 79.1	90.6 76.9 82.4 91.4 105.9 114.5	86.2 78.9 78.3 68.0 76.3 75.7	87.0 91.7 98.5 87.5 115.0 120.4	117.5 102.0 97.5 88.0 97.5 81.5	77.0 75.0 76.0 80.0 77.0 100.0	77.0 77.0 75.0 70.0 71.0 76.0

FLAX.

TABLE 62.-Flax: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1913-1915.

[000 omitted.]

		Area.				I	Production.		
Country.	1012	1014	1015		Seed.		_	Fiber.	
	1913	1914	1915	1913	1913 1914 1915			1914	1915
NORTH AMERICA. United States	Acres. 2,291	A cres. 1,645	A cres. 1, 387	Bushels. 17,853	Bushcls. 13,749	Bushels. 14,030	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
Canada: Quebee Ontario Manitoba Saskatehewan Alberta	$^{1}_{\substack{54\\1,386\\105}}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 1 \\ 5 \\ 40 \\ 958 \\ 80 \\ 80 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 4 \\ $	9 164 632 15, 579 1, 155	$\begin{array}{r} 8\\ 84\\ 338\\ 6,131\\ 614\end{array}$	$7\\62\\374\\9,061\\1,124$			
Total Canada	1, 553	1,084	806	17, 539	7,175	10,628			
Mexico	(1)	(1)	(1)	150	150	150			
Total	(1)	(1)	(1)	35, 542	21,074	24,808			
SOUTH AMERICA.		1							
Argentina Uruguay	4, 283 141	4, 397 128	4, 258 101	44, 486 1, 302	39, 171 963	44, 309 588			
Total	4, 424	4, 525	4,359	45,788	40,134	44,897			
EUROPE.		1							
Austria-Hungary: Austria. Hungary proper. Croatia-Slavonia. Bosnia-Herzego-	90 32 16	2 57 (1) (1)	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	608 255 18	* 455 (1) (1)	(1) (1) (1)	48, 976 29, 999 8, 640	\$ 37,046	$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1\\i\end{pmatrix}$
vina	(1)	(1)	(1)	4	(1)	(1)	1,000	(1)	(1)
Total Austria- Hungary				885			88, 615		
Belgium Bulgaria France ⁸		$32 \\ 2 \\ 47$		387 8 740		(1) (1) (1)	39, 4 37 (¹) 48, 437	(1) (1) 23, 370	(1) (1) 43, 497

No official statistics.
 Galfeia and Bukowina not included.

⁸ Excluding the invaded zone in 1914 and 1915,

FLAX-Continued.

				1000 01	Livecu.j				
		Area.				1	Production.		
Country.					Seed.	;		Fiber.	
	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915
EUROPE-contd.		A cres.	A cres.	Databala	Barchelo	Bushels.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
Ireland Italy Netherlands Roumania Russia:	A cres. 59 22 36 67	49 22 19 21	53 21 22 14	(1) 405 326 569	(1) 323 212 165	(1) 323 (1) 134	28,341 5,732 16,606 4,759	18, 202 5, 070 10, 811 2, 137	21,648 5,511 10,818 1,187
Russia proper Poland Northern Cau-	3, 443 88	3, 401 (¹)	3,060 (1)	22, 898 878	14,222 (¹)	$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$			
casia	144	182	48	680	1,391	(1)			
Total						1	1, 152, 349	868, 613	
Serbia Sweden ²	(¹) 3	(¹) 3	$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	(1) 3	(¹) 3		(¹) 481	(1) 401	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$
Total									
ASIA.									
India: British Native States	4, 125 433	3,031 (¹)		21,684 (1)	15, 448 (¹)	15,880 (1)			
Total	4,558	3,031	3, 325	21,684	15,448	15,880			
Russia: Central Asia (4 Governments	117	105	94	575	836	(1)		1	
of) Siberia (4 Gov-						1			
ernments of) Transcaucasia (1	176	191		1,094		(1)			
Government of)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Total									
AFRICA.									
Algeria	(1)	(1)	(1)	15	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Grand total				132,477			1,384,757		

TABLE 62.-Flax: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1913-1915-Contd.

[000 omitted.]

¹ No official statistics.

² Includes hemp.

TABLE 63.—Flax (seed and fiber): Total production of countries named in Table 62, 1896-1915.

	Produ	action.	~~	Produ	action.
Year.	Seed.	Fiber.	Year.	Seed.	Fiber.
1836 1837	Bushels. 82,681,000 57,596,000 72,938,000 62,332,000 72,314,000 83,891,000 110,455,000 110,455,000 100,458,000	Pounds. 1,714,205,000 1,498,054,000 1,138,703,600 1,315,941,000 1,050,200,000 1,561,810,000 1,922,383,000 1,517,922,000 1,494,229,000	1906	100, 850, 000 100, 820, 000 85, 253, 000 101, 339, 000 130, 291, 000 132, 477, 000	

FLAX-Continued.

TABLE 64.—Flaxseed: Acreage, production, value, and condition in the United States, 1849-1916.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

			Average		Cor	dition o	f growing	g crop.		
Acreage.	Average yield per acre.	Production.	price per bushel Dec. 1.	rice Farm value ber Dec. 1. Ishel		Aug. 1.	Sept. 1.	When har- vested.		
Acres.	Bushels.	Bushels. 562,000	Cents.				<i>P.ct.</i>	P. ct.		
		7,170,000								
1,819,000 2,111,000	7.8 9.5	10,250,000 19,979,000								
3,740,000 3,253,000 2,264,000	7.8 8.4 10.3	29,285 000 27,301,000 23,401,000	105.2 81.7 99.3	30,815,000 22,292,000 23,229,000	86.2 86.6	80.3 78.9	80.5 85.8	74.0 87.0		
2 , 535, 000 2 , 506, 000	11. 2 10. 2	25, 576,000	101.3	24,049,000 25,899,000	92. 1 93. 2	90. 7 92. 2	94, 2 89, 0	91.5 87.4		
2,864,000 2,679,000 2,742,000	9.0 9.6 9.4	25,851,000 25,805,000 25,856,000	95.6 118.4	$24,713,000 \\ 30,577,000$	91. 2 92. 5	91. 9 86. 1	85.4 82.5	78. 0 81.2		
2,083,000 2,467,000	9.4 5.2	19,513,000 12,718,000	153.0 231.7	29,796,000 29,472,000	$95.1 \\ 65.0$	92.7 51.7	88.9 48.3	84.9 47.2		
2,757,000 2,851,000	7.0 9.8	19,370,000 28,073,000	182.1 114.7	35,272,000 32,202,000	80.9 88.9	71.0 87.5	68.4 86.3	69. 6 83. 8		
1,645,000 1,387,000	8.4 10.1	13,749,000 14,030, 0 00	$126.0 \\ 174.0$	17,318,000 24,410,000	90.5 88.5	82.1 91.2	72.9 87.6	74.7 77.4 84.5 86.2		
	A cres. 1,319,000 2,111,000 3,740,000 3,740,000 2,535,000 2,535,000 2,535,000 2,544,000 2,742,000 2,742,000 2,747,000 2,757,000 2,551,000 2,757,000 2,551,000 2,555,000 2,	Acresge. yield per acre. Acres. Bushels. 1,319,000 7.8 2,111,000 9.5 3,740,000 7.8 2,254,000 10.3 2,506,000 10.2 2,566,000 9.0 2,742,000 9.4 2,742,000 9.4 2,467,000 5.2 2,765,000 9.4 2,467,000 5.2 2,581,000 9.8 2,467,000 7.8 1,387,000 8.4 1,465,000 9.4 2,467,000 5.2 2,5851,000 9.8 1,387,000 8.4 1,387,000 10.1	Acresge. yield per acre. Froduction. A cres. Bushels. $562,000$ $667,600$ $67,600$ $77,170,600$ $1,319,000$ $7,8$ $10,250,000$ $2,506,000$ $7,170,600$ $7,170,600$ $3,233,000$ $8,4$ $27,30,000$ $2,506,000$ 10.3 $22,478,000$ $2,506,000$ 10.2 $25,576,000$ $2,506,000$ 10.2 $25,551,000$ $2,742,000$ $9,4$ $25,856,000$ $2,742,000$ $9,4$ $25,856,000$ $2,742,000$ $9,4$ $25,856,000$ $2,742,000$ $9,4$ $25,856,000$ $2,742,000$ $9,4$ $25,856,000$ $2,742,000$ $9,4$ $25,856,000$ $2,742,000$ $9,4$ $25,856,000$ $2,647,000$ 5.2 $12,718,000$ $2,851,000$ 8.4 $17,613,000$ $2,851,000$ 8.8 $28,073,000$ $2,851,000$ 8.8 $25,073,000$	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Acreage. Average yield per acre. Production. farm price per bushel Dec. 1. Farm value Dec. 1. Acres. Bushels. Bushels. $\delta c_{3} 0 0 0$ July 1. Acres. Bushels. $\delta c_{3} 0 0 0$ July 1. $A cres.$ Bushels. $\delta c_{3} 0 0 0$ July 1. $A cres.$ Bushels. $\delta c_{3} 0 0 0$ July 1. $A cres.$ Bushels. $\delta c_{3} 0 0 0$ July 1. $A cres.$ Bushels. $\delta c_{7} 0 0 0$ July 1. $A cres.$ Bushels. $\delta c_{10} 0 0 0$ July 1. $A cres.$ Bushels. $\delta c_{10} 0 0 0$ July 1. $A cres.$ $B u shels.$ $B u shels.$ $D c l a s.$ $A cres.$ $B u shels.$ $B u shels.$ $D c l a s.$ $A cres.$ $B u shels.$ $B u shels.$ $D c l a s.$ $A cres.$ $B u shels.$ $B u shels.$ $D c l a s.$ $A cres.$ $B u shels.$ $B u shels.$ $D c s s.$ $A cres.$ $B u shels.$ $B u shels.$ <	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $		

¹ Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 65.—Flaxseed: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916.

State.	Acreage.	Average yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	Average farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Missouri North Dakota	$\begin{array}{c} A crcs. \\ 5,000 \\ 275,000 \\ 18,000 \\ 5,000 \\ 790,000 \end{array}$	Bushels. 12.0 8.5 10.0 7.0 10.3	Bushels. 60,000 2,338,000 180,000 35,000 8,137,000	Dollars. 2.40 2.40 2.15 2.12 2.52	Dollars. 144,000 5,611,000 387,000 74,000 20,505,000
South Dakota Conaska Kansas Montana Wyoming Colorado. United States.	150,000 4,000 30,000 2,000 1,000 1,605,000	9.3 8.0 5.8 9.5 7.0 6.0 9.6	$1,395,000 \\ 32,000 \\ 174,000 \\ 3,088,000 \\ 14,000 \\ 6,000 \\ 15,459,000$	2.47 2.30 2.34 2.48 2.25 1.95 2.48	3,446,000 74,000 407,000 7,658,000 32,000 12,000 38,350,000

Statistics of Flax.

FLAX-Continued.

TABLE 66.—Flaxseed:	Yield per acre,	price per bushel Dec. 1	, and valu	e per acre, by States.
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		Yield per acre (bushels).							Farm	ı price (cer	per l ats).	oushe	1	per	alue acro lars).1				
State.	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1161	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-yearaverage, 1911-1915.	1916.
Wis. Minn Iowa. Mo. N. Dak	9.4 10.2	10.5 11.5 10.0	$10.6 \\ 10.9 \\ 7.0$	8.1	7.5 12.2 8.4	8.0 8.0 3.0	$10.2 \\ 11.5 \\ 6.0$	9.0 9.4 5.0	9.3 9.5 8.0	10.5 9.0 8.0	8.5 10.0	157 147 138	$120 \\ 124 \\ 110$	123 115		176 150 135	240 215 212	$13.65 \\ 13.10 \\ 7.43$	28, S0 20, 40 21, 50 14, 84 25, 96
S. Dak Nebr Kans Mont Wyo Colo	8.5 6.4	11.0 10.0	10.7 11.0 6.5 11.5		8.0 8.2	5.3 5.0 3.0 7.7 7.0	9.5 6.0 12.0 12.0	6.0 6.0 9.0 9.9	7.0 6.0 8.0 7.0	10.5 13.0	8.0 5.8 9.5	147 145 153	130	116 115	119 125 120	147 145 170 145	230 234 218 225	7.24 13.02	18.40
U. S	8.6	9.0	9.6	9.4	5.2	7.0	9.8	7.8	8.4	10.1	9.6	156.3	114.7	119.9	126.0	174.0	248.1	12.31	23.89

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

TABLE 67.—Flaxseed: Farm price per bushel, on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1915 and 1916.

Month.	United	States.	North Central States east of Mississippi River.		North (States v Missis Riv	west of sippi	Far Wo Stat	
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
January February March April May June	202.5 202.1	Cents. 134.8 163.7 157.9 167.7 169.6 169.5	Cents. 200. 0 150. 0 192. 0 193. 0 180. 0	Cents. 135.0 140.0 130.0 150.0 130.0	Cents. 184.7 211.2 204.6 201.8 190.9 174.1	Cents. 136. 8 161. 6 160. 0 167. 3 169. 7 168. 7	Cents. 193. 0 210. 0 192. 0 205. 0 197. 0 191. 0	Cents. 125.0 175.0 148.0 170.0 170.0 175.0
July August. September October. November December.	178 1 1	$\begin{array}{c} 152.5\\ 144.6\\ 143.5\\ 148.1\\ 162.9\\ 174.0 \end{array}$	160. 0 161. 0 200. 0 200. 0 218. 0 240. 0	155. 0 100. 0 125. 0 180. 0	$\begin{array}{c} 164.1\\ 176.3\\ 188.6\\ 199.1\\ 234.0\\ 248.2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 153,8\\ 145,1\\ 145,6\\ 148,3\\ 163,9\\ 175,0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 158.0\\ 190.0\\ 200.0\\ 200.0\\ 240.0\\ 247.8 \end{array}$	$146.0 \\ 142.0 \\ 135.0 \\ 148.0 \\ 158.0 \\ 169.6$

FLAX-Continued.

TABLE 68.—Flaxseed: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1916.

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Cinci	nnati.	Minne	apolis.	Milwa	aukee.	Dul	uth.	
Date.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.		North- tern.	Low.	High.	
					Low.	High.			
1912. January-June. July-December		\$2.56 2.80	\$2.01 1.22	\$2.36 2.10			\$2.00 1.22	\$2.53 2.20 3	
1913. January-Juno. July-December	$\begin{array}{c} 1.50\\ 1.50\end{array}$	$1.50 \\ 1.50$	$1.23\frac{1}{3}$ $1.31\frac{1}{4}$	1.40 1.53 1	$1.25\frac{1}{1}$ $1.30\frac{3}{4}$	$1.42\frac{3}{1}$ $1.54\frac{1}{2}$	1.22§ 1.34§	1.39 1.53]	
1914. JanuaryJune.	$\begin{array}{c} 1.50\\ 1.40 \end{array}$	1.50 1.50	1.471 1.28	$1.61\frac{1}{4}$ 1.88	1.451 1.30	1.75 1.93	1.48 1.283	1.63 1 1.93	
1915. January. February. March. April. May. June.		$1.80 \\ 1.80 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.70$	$\begin{array}{c}1.59\frac{1}{2}\\1.80\frac{1}{8}\\1.80\\1.85\\1.85\\1.68\frac{1}{2}\end{array}$	1.941 1.922 2.081 1.971 2.001 1.86	$1.51\frac{1}{2}$ 1.81 1.81 1.85 1.87 $1.68\frac{1}{2}$	1.981.8712.051.951.9811.84	$1.61\frac{1}{2}$ $1.83\frac{1}{2}$ $1.84\frac{1}{4}$ $1.86\frac{1}{2}$ 1.91 $1.70\frac{1}{2}$	$1.93 \\ 1.911 \\ 2.09 \\ 1.981 \\ 2.021 \\ 1.851 $	
January-June	1.70	1.80	1.593	2.08^{1}_{2}	$1.51\frac{1}{2}$	2.05	$1.61\frac{1}{2}$	2.09	
July. August. September October. November. December.		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	$ \begin{array}{r} 1.52\frac{1}{2}\\ 1.60\\ 1.61\frac{1}{2}\\ 1.77\\ 1.82\frac{1}{3}\\ 1.98\frac{1}{3} \end{array} $	$1.75\frac{1}{4}$ $1.74\frac{1}{2}$ $1.87\frac{1}{2}$ $1.91\frac{1}{2}$ $2.09\frac{1}{2}$ 2.21	$ \begin{array}{r} 1.52\frac{1}{2}\\ 1.60\\ 1.61\frac{1}{2}\\ 1.77\\ 1.82\frac{1}{2}\\ 1.97 \end{array} $	$1.73\frac{1}{4}$ $1.72\frac{1}{2}$ $1.84\frac{1}{2}$ $1.87\frac{1}{2}$ $2.07\frac{1}{2}$ 2.18	$1.53 1.58\frac{1}{2} 1.62 1.76 1.87\frac{1}{2} 2.00\frac{1}{4}$	1.76½ 1.69 1.82½ 1.90½ 2.12½ 2.20½	
July-Decomber	1.70	1.70	1.521	2.21	$1.52\frac{1}{2}$	2.18	1.53	2.201	
1916. January. February. March. April. May. Juno.	2.85 2.85	2.85 2.85 2.85 2.85 2.85	$\begin{array}{c} 2.153\\ 2.25\\ 2.153\\ 2.00\\ 1.83\\ 1.73\\ 1.73\\ 1\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.41 \frac{1}{4} \\ 2.39 \\ 2.35 \frac{1}{2} \\ 2.22 \frac{1}{4} \\ 2.09 \frac{1}{4} \\ 1.89 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.153\\ 2.25\\ 2.153\\ 2.00\\ 1.83\\ 1.73\\ 1\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.38\\ 2.35\\ 2.32\frac{1}{2}\\ 2.19\frac{1}{2}\\ 2.05\frac{1}{1}\\ 1.84\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$2.17\frac{3}{2}$ 2.23 $2.15\frac{3}{2}$ 2.01 $1.84\frac{1}{2}$ 1.76	2. 423 2. 433 2. 324 2. 324 2. 194 2. 053 1. 974	
January-June	2.85	2.85	$1.73\frac{1}{2}$	2.35½	1.731	2.38	1.76	2.4	
July Aug:131 September October November December	2.851.501.501.501.802.25	2.85 1.50 1.50 1.80 2.25 2.25	$1.77 \\ 1.60 \\ 2.003 \\ 2.40 \\ 2.593 \\ 2.75$	2.12 2.28 2.31 2.70 2.93 2.94	1.772.042.0032.402.5932.7612.761	2.08 2.24 2.28 2.67 2.89 2.883	1.802.052.022.432.652.792.79	2.11 2.26 3.31 2.72 2.94 2.93	
July-December	1.50	2.85		2.94	1.77	2.89	1.80	2.945	

RICE.

TABLE 69.—Rice: Area and production in undermentioned countries, 1913-1915.

[Expressed in terms of cleaned rice.]

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1913	1914 .	1915	1913	1914	1915
NORTH AMERICA.						
United States Hawaii ¹ . Porto Rico ¹ .	A cres. 827,000 9,000 16,000	A cres. 694,000 (³) (³)	A cres. 803,000 (3) (3)	Pounds. 715, 111, 000 25, 820, 000 4, 298, 000	Pounds. 656, 917, 000 (²) (²)	Pounds. 804,053,000 (*) (*)
Central America: Guatemala Salvador Costa Rica Honduras Mexico	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(²) 27,000 7,000 (²) 41,000	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	3,501,000 (2) (3) (2) (2) (2) (2)	24,085,000 12,344,000 (2) (3) 33,921,000	24, 015, 000 (2) (3) 3, 252, 007 (2)
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina. Brazil: São Paulo British Guiana. Dutch Guiana Peru.	³ 20,000 231,000 42,000 (²) 138,000	(*) (*) 34,000 (*) (*) (*)	(2) (2) 47,000 (2) (2)	(⁸) 109, 625, 000 61, 185, 000 4, 918, 000 108, 869, 000	(³) 116, 416, 000 51, 160, 000 6, 913, 000 (²)	(2) 79,380,000 91,630,000 (2) 85,500,000
EUROPE.					1	
Bulgaria. France. Italy.	7,000 1,000 362,000	(2) (3) 361,000	(⁸) (²) 356,000	5,656,000 980,000 739,221,000	(2)	(2) (2) 762, 900, 000
Russia (Northern Cau- casia) Spain	1,000 96,000	1,000 97,000	(³) 102,000	564,000 303,310,000	729,000 336,925,000	(³) 320, 022, 000
ASIA.						1
India: British 4 Native States Ceylon 5 Federated Malay States	75, 425, 000 2, 518, 000 672, 000 124, 000	76, 625, 000 (2) 685, 000 (2)	76, 792, 000 (2) (2) (2)	64, 490, 272, 000 (²) 356, 191, 000 87, 321, 000	61,022,080,000 (³) 290,819,000 (²)	73, 644, 480, 000 (3) (2) (2) (2)
Japanese Empire: Japan Chosen Formosa Java and Madura ⁶ Philippine Islands	7,425,000 2,560,000 1,222,000 6,310,000 2,820,000	7,434,000 (³) 1,235,000 6,346,000 3,076,000	7,563,000 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	15,787,969,000 3,167,719,000 1,610,461,000 7,951,044,000 1,512,285,000	17,903,918,000 3,678,878,000 1,447,709,000 7,826,026,000 1,403,516,000	17, 569, 018, 000 3, 518, 928, 000 (²) (⁸) 1, 099, 914, 000
Russia: Transcaucasia and Turkestan ⁷ . Straits Settlements Siam.	668,000 8 92,000 5,286,000	636,000 (³) 5,096,000	(1) (2)	512, 947, 000	380, 546, 000 (³) 5, 711, 133, 000	(2)
AFRICA.						1
Egypt. Nyasaland	252, 000 (²)	37,000 (²)	331,000 (³)	505, 118, 000 3, 385, 000		806, 610, 000 1, 606, 600
OCEANIA.						
Australia. Fiji	(°) 14,000	(⁹) 12,000	(2) (3)	75,000 (³)	7,000 ⁽²⁾	(3) (2)

¹ Census of 1909. ² No official statistics. ³ Census of 1908.

^a Census of 1905.
^c Excluding a large area the production of which is not officially reported.
^e Excluding production for Matara, which in 1913 was 55,483,000 pounds.
^e Excluding Socrakarta, Djokjakarta and private lands.
^e Excluding Khiva and Bokhara.
^e Data for 1912.
^e Less than 500 acres.

RICE-Continued.

TABLE 70.—Rice (cleaned): Total production in principal countries for which estimates are available, 1900–1913.

[The figures below include the principal countries for which estimates are available. The totals shown are merely approximate. China and French Indo-China are not included below. Three Provinces of China in 1910 produced 47,204,000,000 pounds of rice. The totals below may represent at least two-thirds of the total world production of rice.]

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1900 1001 1002 1903 1903	94,400,000,000 101,600,090,000	1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	$\begin{array}{c} Pounds.\\ 102,400,000,000\\ 105,800,000,000\\ 100,300,000,000\\ 102,900,000,000\\ 127,700,000,000\\ \end{array}$	1910 1911 1912 1913	Pounds. 126, 100, 000, 000 102, 100, 000, 000 97, 300, 000, 000 100, 700, 000, 000

 TABLE 71.—Rice: Acreage, production, value, and condition, in the United States, 1904-1916.

				Average		Con	dit ion of	f growing	crop.
Year.	Acreage.	A verage yield per acre.	Production.	price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.	July 1.	Λug. 1.	Sept. 1.	When har- vested.
1904 1905 1906 1907 1908	Acres. 662,000 482,000 575,000 627,000 655,000	Bushels. 31.9 23.2 31.1 29.9 33.4	Bushels. 21, 096, 000 13, 607, 000 17, 855, 000 18, 738, 000 21, 890, 000	Cents. 65. 8 95. 2 90. 3 85. 8 81. 2	Dollars. 13,892,000 12,956,000 16,121,000 16,081,000 17,771,000	Per ct. 88.2 88.0 82.9 88.7 92.9	Pcr ct. 90. 2 92. 9 83. 1 88. 6 94. 1	Per ct. 89.7 92.2 86.8 87.0 93.5	Per ct. 87.3 89.3 87.2 88.7 87.7
1909 1909 1910 1911	720,000 610,000 723,000 696,000	33.8 35.8 33.9 32.9	24, 308, 000 21, 839, 000 24, 510, 000 22, 934, 000	79.6 67.8 79.7	17, 383, 000 16, 624, 000 18, 274, 000	90.7 86.3 87.7	84.5 87.6 88.3	84.7 88.8 87.2	81. 2 88. 1 85. 4
1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	723,000 827,000 694,000 803,000 866,000	$\begin{array}{r} 34.7\\ 31.1\\ 34.1\\ 36.1\\ 47.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 25,054,000\\ 25,744,000\\ 23,649,000\\ 28,947,000\\ 40,702,000 \end{array}$	93.5 85.8 92.4 90.6 88.9	23, 423, 000 22, 090, 000 21, 849, 000 26, 212, 000 36, 187, 000	86.3 88.4 86.5 90.5 92.7	86.3 88.7 87.6 90.0 92.2	88.8 88.0 88.9 82.3 91.2	89. 2 80. 3 88. 0 80. 9 91. 5

TABLE 72.—Rice: Acreage, production, and farm value, by States, 1916.

State.	Acreage.	Average yield per acre.	Produc- tion.	Average farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.
North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida Missouri	Acres. 300 3,500 800 700 200	Bushels. 21.0 14.0 20.0 25.0 51.0	Bushels. 6,000 49,000 16,000 18,000 10,000	Cents. 85 90 87 75 100	Dollars. 5,000 44,000 14,000 14,000 10,000
Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana. Texas. Arkangas. California. United States.	300 1,900 443,300 235,000 125,000 55,300 866,300	$25.0 \\ 28.0 \\ 46.0 \\ 45.0 \\ 50.5 \\ 59.0 \\ 47.0 \\ 47.0 \\ $	8,000 53,000 20,392,000 10,575,000 6,312,000 3,263,000 40,702,000	75 80 90 86 96 78 88.9	$\begin{array}{r} 6,000\\ 42,000\\ 18,353,000\\ 9,094,000\\ 6,060,000\\ 2,545,000\\ \hline 36,187,000\\ \end{array}$

Statistics of Rice.

RICE—Continued.

		Yield per acre (bushels).									Farm price per bushel (cents).				Value per acre (dollars). ¹				
. State.	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year average, 1911-1915.	1916
N. C. S. C. Ga. Fla. Mo.	$22.9 \\ 27.1$	27.0 34.0	25.2 24.0 25.0 25.0 	25.6 23.9	21.0 22.0	11.7 26.8	25.0 30.0	30.0 32.0	26.0 28.0	24.3 29.3 25.0	$14.0 \\ 20.0$	91 89 80	90 93 90 90	80 90 83 60	75 92 89 70	85 90 88 75 100	90 87 75	20.96 24.98 18.50	17.85 12.60 17.40 18.75 51.00
Ala. Miss. La. Tex. Ark. Cal.	29.5 33.6 34.5 40.9	22.0 28.0 32.0 37.0	45.0 31.0 33.0 34.5 41.0	30.0 33.8 34.0 40.0	30.0 34.4 33.0 40.0	36.0 31.5 34.3 39.0	35.0 33.5 35.5 37.5	28.0 29.0 32.0 36.0	30. 0 32. 1 33. 8 39. 8	25.0 34.2 30.5 48.4	28.0 46.0 45.0 50.5	81 84 84 88	90 90 93 94 94 91	60 70 84 86 90 100	70 85 93 92 90 100	95	80 90 86 96	25.26 28.21 29.31 36.29	18.7522.4041.4038.7048.4846.02
U. S	34.7	29.9	33.4	33.8	33.9	32.9	34.7	31.1	34.1	36.1	47.0	84.5	93.5	8 5. 8	92.4	90.6	88.9	29.90	41.77

TABLE 73.-Rice: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

TABLE 74.-Rice: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1916.

	New	York.	Cincir	mati.	Lake (Charles.	New O	rleans.	Houston.	
Date.	Domestic (good).		Prime.		Rough.1		Honduras, cleaned.		Head rice, cleaned.	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	$Cts. 4\frac{1}{4} \\ 4\frac{3}{4}$	Cts. 51 51	Cts. 6 6	Cts. 7 7	Dolls.	Dolls.	Cts. 21 2	Cts. 53	Cts. 43 4	Cts. 51
1913. JanJune July-Dec	43433	5 51	C1 C2	$6\frac{1}{4}$ $6\frac{1}{4}$	$2.50 \\ 2.00$	$3.82 \\ 3.76$	$^{23}_{1.15}$	5§ 7	4 41	$5\frac{1}{2}$
1914. JanJune July-Dec	43 43	5 578	5 34 354	61 61	$\begin{array}{c} 1.40\\ 2.00 \end{array}$	$3.76 \\ 4.55$	$ \begin{array}{c} 1_{1} \\ 1_{2} \\ 1_{2} \end{array} $	61 63	33	53 51
1915. January. February. March April. May. June.	5 555555555555555555555555555555555555	51212 51212 51212 51212 51212 51212 512	534354 6 6 6 6	614 612 612 612 612 612 612	2.85 3.00 3.00	4.10 4.50 4.61½	21 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 3	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	44444444	449494-25-20 4444-25
JanJune	5	51	54	61/2	2.85	$4.61\frac{1}{2}$	21	5^{3}_{4}	41/2	5
July August September October. November. December.	5 5 4 2 4 2 5 5 5	515 555 555 555 555		612 612 6 6 53 53 53	$\begin{array}{c} 3.05 \\ 2.90 \\ 2.80 \\ 3.17 \\ 3.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3.47\\ 3.63\\ 3.35\\ 3.65\\ 3.65\\ 3.65\end{array}$	3 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	5545555	444444444444444444444444444444444444444	55555555555555555555555555555555555555
July-Dec	4 <u>1</u>	$5\frac{1}{2}$	5	61	2.80	3.65	2	51	43	53

 ² Mar. 15, the grade was changed to fancy head.

Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

RICE-Continued.

TABLE 74.—Rice: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1916-Continued.

	New	York.	Cincir	nnati.	Lake C	harles.	New Orleans.		Houston.		
Date.	Domestic (good.)		Pri	Prime.		Rough.1		Honduras, cleaned.		Head rice, cleaned.	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	
1916. January February March April May June	Cts. 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	Cts. 51151515151	Cts. 555555555555555555555555555555555555	Cts. 555555555555555555555555555555555555	Dolls. 2.65 3.00 2.85 3.00 3.25 3.75	D olls. 3.35 3.55 3.80 4.02 4.02 4.25	Cts. 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	Cts. 5545555555555555555555555555555555555	Cts. 4 4 4 3 4 3 4 3 4	Cts. 41 42 44 44 44 44 44 44 44	
JanJune	5	51	51	53	2.65	4.25	2	$5\frac{1}{2}$	334	43	
July August September October November December	55555551	55555555555555555555555555555555555555	55555555	10 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50	2.60 2.65 3.35 3.25	3. 38 3. 40 3. 65 3. 60	234 212 24 22 24 22 24 22 22 22 22 22 22 22	518 5 43 5 43 5 11 5 11 5 11 5 11	34034 334 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	44444	
July-Dec	5	51/2	51	53	2.60	3.65	$2\frac{1}{2}$	51	334	43	

¹ Per barrel of 162 pounds.

TABLE 75.—Rice: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[Mostly cleaned rice. Under rice is included paddy, unhulled, rough, cleaned, polished, broken, and cargo rice, in addition to rice flour and meal. Rice bran is not included. Rough rice or paddy, where specifi-cally reported, has been reduced to terms of cleaned rice at ratio of 162 pounds rough, or unhulled, to 100 pounds cleaned. "Rice, other than whole or cleaned rice," in the returns of United Kingdom is not considered paddy, since the chief sources of supply indicate that it is practically all hulled rice. Cargo rice, a mixture of hulled and unhulled, is included without being reduced to terms of cleaned. Broken rice and rice flour and meal are taken without being reduced to terms of whole cleaned rice. See "Gen-eral note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)
Belgium British India Dutch East Indies. France. French Indo-China. Germany Netherlands.	144,609 65,044 2,831,962 406,414	$\begin{array}{r} 4,520,152\\ 108,792\\ 123,021\\ 3,060,373 \end{array}$	329,591	Penang. Siam. Singapore. Other countries Total.		Pounds. 354,835 2,605,150 908,438 970,899 13,185,081	Pounds. 2,421,283

IMPORTS.

1 Data for 1912.

STATISTICS OF CROPS OTHER THAN GRAIN CROPS, 1916.

POTATOES.

TABLE 76.—Potatoes: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915
NORTH AMERICA.	Acres.	Acres.	A cres.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
United States	3,668,000		3, 734, 000	331, 525, 000	409, 921, 000	359, 721, 000
Canada: Prince Edward Is- land. Nova Scotia New Brunswick Quebec. Ontario. Manitoba. Saskatchewan. Alberta. British Columbia.	$\begin{array}{c} 32,000\\ 32,000\\ 44,000\\ 116,000\\ 152,000\\ 26,000\\ 31,000\\ 26,000\\ 15,000\\ 15,000\end{array}$	32,000 32,000 44,000 115,000 154,000 27,000 31,000 26,000 15,000	$\begin{array}{c} 31,000\\ 34,000\\ 40,000\\ 117,000\\ 155,000\\ 28,000\\ 30,000\\ 27,000\\ 16,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6, 219, 000\\ 5, 369, 000\\ 10, 629, 000\\ 20, 504, 000\\ 18, 105, 000\\ 5, 120, 000\\ 5, 138, 000\\ 4, 350, 000\\ 3, 110, 000\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6,806,000\\ 7,165,000\\ 10,534,000\\ 21,811,000\\ 25,772,000\\ 3,172,000\\ 4,085,000\\ 3,652,009\\ 2,675,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3,558,000\\ 4,759,000\\ 5,772,000\\ 17,510,000\\ 14,362,000\\ 3,104,000\\ 4,428,000\\ 5,155,000\\ 3,956,000\\ \end{array}$
Total Canada	474,000	476,000	478,000	78, 544, 000	85, 672, 000	62,604,000
Mexico. Newfoundland	(3) (3)	(3) (3)	(3) (3)	¹ 924,000 ² 1,524,000	(3) (3)	(3) (3)
Total		·		412, 517, 000		
SOUTH AMERICA.		1				
Argentina. Chile.	278,000 78,000	293,000 81,000	3 06,000 (³)	33, 029, 000 8, 753, 000	(³) 9, 169, 000	(³) 9, 482, 000
Total	371,000	387,000		46, 782, 000		
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary proper Croatia-Slavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina.	1,513,000 194,000	41,774,000 1,513,000 (³) (³)	(³) (³) (³) (³)	424, 457, 000 179, 133, 000 21, 140, 000 2, 998, 000	⁴ 285, 070, 000 195, 266, 000 (⁸) (³)	(3) (3) (3) (3) (3)
Total Austria- Hungary	4,926,000			627, 728, 000		
Belgium Bulgaria Denmark Finland France Germany Italy Luxemburg Malta Netherlands Norway Roumania 6 Do.7 Russia, European: Russia proper		411,000 (3) 5 151,000 (3) 3,676,000 727,000 (3) 424,000 (3) 26,000 56,000 8,652,000	(⁸) (³)	$\begin{array}{c} 117, 613, 000\\ 2 503, 000\\ 42, 221, 000\\ 23, 424, 000\\ 490, 194, 000\\ 1, 988, 591, 000\\ 65, 734, 000\\ 7, 637, 000\\ 2 750, 000\\ 109, 260, 000\\ 22, 523, 000\\ 1, 066, 000\\ \hline \end{array}$	(*) (3) 37, 335, 000 37, 344, 000 440 652, 000 1, 675, 370, 000 5, 288, 000 28, 588, 000 27, 548, 000 2, 654, 000 2, 654, 000 1, 083, 000	(3) (4) (42, 350, 000 (3) (3) (1, 933, 161, 000 (3) (3) (26, 741, 000 (3, 765, 000 (3, 765, 000 (3, 765, 000 (3, 765, 000 (3, 765, 000 (3, 765, 000) (3, 765
Poland	2,662,000 194,000	⁽³⁾ 204,000	⁽³⁾ 8 167,000	383, 736, 000 16, 720, 000	(³) 17, 907, 000	(³) 8 15, 897, 000
European ¹ Data for 1906.	11,520,000		6	1, 274, 455, 000 Area for 1912.		

Data for 1906.
 Production for 1912.
 No official statistics.
 Galicia and Bukowina not included.

⁶ Area for 1912.
⁶ Grown alone.
⁷ Grown with corn.

Fincludes one government of Transcaucasia.

POTATOES-Continued.

TABLE 76.—Potatoes:	Area	and	production	of	undermentioned	countries,	1913–1915—
			Contin	ue	d.		

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915
EUROPE—continued. Serbia Spain. Sweden Switzerland	Acres. ¹ 31,000 ¹ 632,000 383,000 137,000	Acres. (²) 688,000 376,000 137,000	Acres. (2) (2) 382,000 159,000	Bushels. ³ 2, 173, 000 ³ 93, 059, 000 58, 206, 000 31, 783, 000	Bushels. (²⁾ 76, 657, 000 48, 817, 000 22, 046, 000	Bushels. (2) (2) 78, 806, 000 38, 672, 000
United Kingdom: England Scotland Wales Ireland	$\begin{array}{c} 417,000\\ 149,000\\ 25,000\\ 582,000 \end{array}$	436,000 152,000 25,000 583,000	$\begin{array}{r} 437,000\\144,000\\26,000\\594,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 102, 834, 000\\ 36, 243, 000\\ 5, 233, 000\\ 139, 602, 000 \end{array}$	$104, 804, 000 \\ 40, 230, 000 \\ 5, 445, 000 \\ 128, 642, 000$	100, 881, 000 36, 291, 000 5, 821, 000 138, 509, 000
Total United Kingdom	1,173,000	1, 196, 000	1, 201, 000	283, 912, 000	279, 121, 000	281, 502, 000
Total				5, 257, 659, 000		
ASIA. Japan	186,000	204,000	194,000	26,139,000	32, 312, 000	25, 077, 000
Russia, Asiatic: Central Asia (4 gov- ernments of) Siberia (4 govern- ments of)	99,000 298,000	110,000	4 109,000 296,000	5, 230, 000 27, 773, 000	8, 111, 000 47, 075, 000	4 9, 076, 000 24, 308, 000
Transcaucasia (1 government of)	2,000	2,000	(5)	148,000	90,000	(3)
Total Russia, Asi- atic	399,000	553,000		33, 151, 000	55, 276, 000	
Total	585,000	757,000		59,290,000	87, 588, 000	
AFRICA.						
Algeria Union of South Africa	48,000 6 62,000	$\binom{2}{2}$	(2) (2)	2, 119, 000 6 3, 685, 000	(2) (2)	(2) (2)
Total	110,000			5, 804, 000		
AUSTRALASIA.						
Australia: Queensland New South Wales Victoria. South Australia Western Australia Tasmania.	9,000 34,000 45,000 9,000 5,000 7,25,000	$10,000 \\ 39,000 \\ 75,000 \\ 11,000 \\ 5,000 \\ 31,000$	8,000 39,000 63,000 8,000 5,000 32,000	$\begin{array}{c} 612,000\\ 3,145,000\\ 7,135,000\\ 1,235,000\\ 506,000\\ 7,2,711,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 618,000\\ 3,573,000\\ 6,593,000\\ 1,230,000\\ 665,000\\ 3,001,000\end{array}$	598,000 3,989,000 7,056,000 673,000 550,000 2,946,000
Total Australia	130,000	171,000	157,000	15, 344, 000	15, 680, 000	15, 812, 000
New Zealand	23,000	29,000	22,000	5, 514, 000	5, 869, 000	4, 952, 000
Total Australasia.	153,000	200,000	179,000	20, 858, 000	21, 549, 000	20, 764, 000
Grand total				5, 802, 910, 000		

Area for 1912.
 No official statistics.
 Production for 1912.
 Includes Province of Oural.

⁵ Included in Northern Caucasia.
⁶ Census of 1911.
⁷ Includes Federal territory.

TABLE 77.—Potatoes: Total production of countries mentioned in Table 76, 1900-1915.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1 900 1 901 1 902 1 903	Bushels. 4, 3×2, 031, 000 4, 669, 958, 000 4, 674, 000, 000 4, 409, 793, 000	1904 1905 1905 1907	5,254,598,000 4,789,112,000	1908 1909 1910 1911			

Statistics of Potatoes.

POTATOES—Continued.

TABLE 78.—Polatoes: Average yield, per acre, of undermentioned countries in 1900-1915.

Year.	United States.	Russia (Euró- pean). ¹	Ger- many. ¹	Austria.1	Hungary proper. ¹	France.1	United King- dom. ¹
Average (1900-1909)	Bushels. 91.4	Bushels. 99.9	Bushels, 200.0	Bushels, 151, 1	Bushels. 118.7	Bushels, 133.8	Bushels. 193.8
1906	95.4 85.7 106.8 93.8	$\begin{array}{r} 94.9\\ 102.4\\ 102.9\\ 111.5\\ 121.1\\ 104.2\\ 121.5\\ 110.6\\ 102.8\end{array}$	193. 3205. 3209. 2208. 9196. 1153. 9223. 5235. 8200. 1	158. 4173. 2154. 0157. 3160. 0137. 2149. 0134. 7160. 7	$\begin{array}{c} 128.\ 7\\ 126.\ 6\\ 96.\ 6\\ 125.\ 2\\ 117.\ 4\\ 106.\ 3\\ 129.\ 2\\ 118.\ 4\\ 129.\ 0\end{array}$	99.5 136.2 163.7 160.3 81.9 121.8 142.9 127.3	192.2 171.0 231.1 222.1 241.5 177.0 242.0 233.3 234.1
Average (1906–1915)	97.5						215.3

¹ Bushels of 60 pounds.

TABLE 79.—Polatoes: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849–1916.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

		Aver-		Aver- age			ago cas hel, fai			Domestic exports,	Imports during
Year.	Acreage.	age yield per acre.	Production.	farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm value Dec. 1.		mber.		owing ay.	fiscal year be- ginning July 1.	fiscal year be- ginning July 1.
	-			D.c., 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.		
1849 1859	A cres.	Bush.	Bushels. 65,798,000 111,149,000	Cts.			Cts.			Bushels. 155,595 380,372	Bushels.
1867 1868	1,069,000 1,192,000 1,132,000 1,222,000	100. 2 82. 0 93. 8 109. 5	107,201,000 97,783,000 106,090,000 133,886,000 143,337,000	$\begin{array}{r} 47.3 \\ 65.9 \\ 59.3 \\ 42.9 \end{array}$	50,723,000 64,462,000 62,919,000 57,481,000					378,605 508,249	$198,265 \\ 209,555 \\ 138,470 \\ 75,336$
1870 1871 1872 1873 1874	1,221,000 1,331,000	86.6 98.7 85.3 81.9 80.9	$114,775,000\\120,462,000\\113,516,000\\106,089,000\\105,981,000$	$\begin{array}{c} 65.0 \\ 53.9 \\ 53.5 \\ 65.2 \\ 61.5 \end{array}$	74,621,000 64,905,000 60,692,000 69,154,000 65,223,000	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	553,070 621,537 515,306 497,413 609,642	$\begin{array}{r} 458,758\\96,259\\346,840\\549,073\\188,757\end{array}$
1875 1876 1877 1878 1879 1879	1,742,000 1,792,000	110.5 71.7 94.9 69.9 98.9	$166,877,000\\124,827,000\\170,092,000\\124,127,000\\181,626,000\\169,459,000$	$\begin{array}{r} 34.4\\ 61.9\\ 43.7\\ 58.7\\ 43.6\end{array}$	57, 358, 000 77, 320, 000 74, 272, 000 72, 924, 000 79, 154, 000				· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	$\begin{array}{c} 704,379\\ 529,650\\ 744,409\\ 625,342\\ 696,080 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 92,148\\ 3,205,555\\ 528,584\\ 2,624,149\\ 721,868\end{array}$
1880 1881 1882 1883 1884	2,042,000 2,172,000 2,289,000 2,221,000	91.0 53.5 78.7 90.9 85.8	$\begin{array}{c} 167,660,000\\ 109,145,000\\ 170,973,000\\ 208,164,000\\ 190,642,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 48.3\\ 91.0\\ 55.7\\ 42.2\\ 39.6 \end{array}$	81,062,000 99,291,000 95,305,000 87,819,000 75,524,000					638,840 408,286 439,443 554,613 380,868	${ \begin{array}{c} \textbf{2,170,372} \\ \textbf{8,789,860} \\ \textbf{2,362,362} \\ \textbf{425,408} \\ \textbf{658,633} \end{array} } }$
1885 1886 1887 1888 1889	2,287,000 2,357,000 2,533,000 2,648,000	77.2 73.5 56.9 79.9 77.4	$ \begin{array}{c} 175,029,000\\ 168,051,000\\ 131,103,000\\ 202,365,000\\ 204,881,000\\ 217,546,000 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{r} 44.7\\ 46.7\\ 68.2\\ 40.2\\ 35.4\end{array}$	78,153,000 78,442,000 91,507,000 81,414,000 72,611,000	44 70 30 33	47 83 37 45	33 65 65 24 30	50 90 85 45 60	$\begin{array}{r} 494,948\\ 434,864\\ 403,880\\ 471,955\\ 406,618\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,937,416\\ 1,432,490\\ 8,259,538\\ 883,380\\ 3,415,578\end{array}$
1890 1891 1892 1893 1894 1895	2,715,000 2,548,000 2,605,000	55.993.761.570.362.4100.6	$\begin{array}{c} 148,290,000\\ 251,424,000\\ 156,655,000\\ 183,034,000\\ 170,787,000\\ 297,237,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 75.8\\ 35.8\\ 66.1\\ 59.4\\ 53.6\\ 26.6 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 112, 342, 000\\ 91, 013, 000\\ 103, 568, 000\\ 108, 662, 000\\ 91, 527, 000\\ 91, 527, 000\\ 78, 985, 000 \end{array}$		$ \begin{array}{r} 93 \\ 40 \\ 72 \\ 60 \\ 58 \\ 24 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 95\\30\\70\\61\\40\\10\end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 110 \\ 50 \\ 98 \\ 88 \\ 70 \\ 23 \end{array} $	341,189 557,022 815,720 803,111 572,957 680,049	5,401,912 186,871 4,317,021 3,002,578 1,341,533 175,240

¹ Burbank to 1910.

POTATOES-Continued.

		Aver-		Aver- age		Chica bus	ago cas bel, fair	h pric r to far	e per ncy.1	Domestic	
Year.	Acreage.	age yield per acre.	Production.	farm price per bushel	Farm value Dec. 1.	Dece:	mber.		owing ay.	exports, fiscal year be- ginning July 1.	during fiscal year be- ginning July 1.
				Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.		
1896 1897 1898 1899 <i>1899</i>	A cres. 2,767,000 2,535,000 2,558,000 2,581,000 2,939,000	Bush. 91.1 64.7 75.2 88.6 93.0	Bushels. 252, 235, 000 164, 016, 000 192, 306, 000 228, 783, 000 273, 318, 000	Cts. 28.6 54.7 41.4 39.0	Dollars. 72, 182,000 89, 643,000 79, 575,000 89, 329,000	Cts. 18 50 30 35	Cts. 26 62 36 46	Cts. 19 60 33 27	Cts. 26 87 52 39	Bushels. 926,646 605,187 579,833 809,472	Bushels. 246,178 1,171,378 530,420 155,861
1900 1901 1902 1903 1904	2,611,000 2,864,000 2,966,000 2,917,000 3,016,000	$\begin{array}{r} 80.8\\ 65.5\\ 96.0\\ 81.7\\ 110.4\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 210,927,000\\ 187,598,000\\ 284,633,000\\ 247,128,000\\ 332,830,000 \end{array}$	47.1	90,811,000 143,979,000 134,111,000 151,638,000 150,673,000	40 75 42 60 32	48 82 48 66 38	35 58 42 95 20	$ \begin{array}{r} 60 \\ 100 \\ 60 \\ 116 \\ 25 \end{array} $	$741,483 \\528,484 \\843,075 \\484,042 \\1,163,270$	371,911 7,656,162 358,505 3,166,581 181,199
1905 1905 1907 1908 1909 <i>1909</i>	2,997,000 3,013,000 3,128,000 3,257,000 3,525,000 3,669,000	87.0 102.2 95.4 85.7 106.8 106.1	260,741,000 308,038,000 298,262,000 278,985,000 376,537,000 389,195,000	$\begin{array}{r} 61.7 \\ 51.1 \\ 61.8 \\ 70.6 \\ \hline 54.1 \end{array}$	160, 821, 000 157, 547, 000 184, 184, 000 197, 039, 000 210, 662, 000	55 40 46 60 20	66 43 58 77 58	48 55 50 70 16	73 75 80 150 34	1,000,326 1,530,461 1,203,894 763,651 999,476	1,948,160 176,917 403,952 8,383,956 353,208
19 10 ² 19 11 19 12 19 13 19 14 19 15 19 16	3,720,000 3,619,000 3,711,000 3,663,000 3,711,000 3,734,000 3,550,000	93.8 80.9 113.4 90.4 110.5 96.3 80.4	349 ,032,000 292,737,000 420,647,000 331,525,000 409,921,000 359,721,000 285,437,000	55.779.950.568.748.761.7146.1	$194,566,000\\233,778,000\\212,550,000\\227,903,000\\199,460,000\\221,992,000\\417,063,000$	$30 \\ 70 \\ 40 \\ 50 \\ 30 \\ 53 \\ 125$	$ \begin{array}{c} 48\\100\\65\\70\\66\\95\\190\end{array} $	35 90 33 60 34 80	75 200 70 90 150 110	2,383,887 1,237,276 2,028,261 1,794,073 3,135,474 4,017,760	218,984 13,734,695 337,230 3,645,993 270,942 209,542

TABLE 79.—Potatoes: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1916—Continued.

¹ Burbank to 1910.

² Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 80.—Potatoes: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916.

[000 omitted.]

State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.
Maine. New Hampshire Vermont. Massachusetts Rhode Island	23 25	Bushels. 25,500 1,800 2,576 2,275 370	Dollars. 36,210 2,988 3,581 3,981 684	North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky	Acres. 75 65 105 70 49	Bushels. 6,975 4,290 7,665 4,970 4,116	Dollars. 8,021 5,877 11,498 8,200 5,845
Connecticut. New York. New Jersøy. Pennsylvania. Delaware.	320 85	2,090 22,400 10,370 19,040 900	3,658 35,392 16,074 28,179 1,125	Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi. Louisiana Texas.	36 20 12 25 40	2,952 1,800 780 1,625 2,000	$\begin{array}{r} 4,398\\ 3,042\\ 1,248\\ 2,714\\ 3,800 \end{array}$
Maryland Virginia West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina	125	4,085 16,250 4,224 3,230 750	5,433 22,262 6,674 4,522 1,312	Oklahoma Arkansas Montana Wyoming Colorado	25 39 18	$1,802 \\ 1,625 \\ 4,875 \\ 2,340 \\ 6,900$	3,514 3,088 5,850 2,995 9,315
Georgia. Florida Ohio. Indiana. Illinois.	$\begin{array}{c}15\\140\\74\end{array}$	$900 \\ 1,110 \\ 6,300 \\ 3,256 \\ 7,250$	$1,575 \\ 2,220 \\ 11,466 \\ 5,763 \\ 12,978$	New Mexico Arizona Utah Nevada	$1 \\ 20 \\ 14$	816 115 3,600 2,660	1,428 207 4,680 3,458
Michigan. Wisconsin. Minne sota.	290 280	15,360 13,630 16,800	24,576 20,036 21,810	Idaho Washington Oregon California	60	$\begin{array}{r} 4,050 \\ 9,900 \\ 8,250 \\ 10,575 \end{array}$	5,144 9,702 7,425 14,805
Iowa. Missouri	115 91	$\frac{4,830}{5,460}$	8,452 9,828	United States.	3,550	285, 437	417,063

Statistics of Polatoes.

POTATOES-Continued.

TABLE 81. -Potatoes: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1895-1916.

Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.		P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.
1895	91.5	89.7	90.8	87.4	1906	91.5	89.0	85.3	82.2
1896	99.0	94.8	83.2	81.7	1907	90.2	88.5	80.2	77.0
1897	87.8	77.9	66.7	61.6	1908	89.6	82.9	73.7	68.7
1898	95.5	83.9	77.7	72.5	1909	93.0	85.8	80.9	78.8
1899	93.8	93.0	86.3	81.7	1910	86.3	75.8	70.5	71.8
1900	91.3	88.2	80.0	74.4	1911	76.0	62.3	59.8	62.3
1901	87.4	62.3	52.2	54.0	1912	88.9	87.8	87.2	85.1
1902	92.9	94.8	89.1	82.5	1913	86.2	78.0	69.9	67.7
1903	S8.1	87.2	84.3	74.6	1914	83.6	79.0	75.8	78.3
1904	93.9	94.1	91.6	89.5	1915	91.2	92.0	82.7	74.2
1905	91.2	87.2	80.9	74:3		87.8	80.8	67.4	62.6

TABLE 82 .- Potatoes: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

		Yield per acre (bushels).										Farm price per bushel (cents).				hel	a	e per ere ars).1	
State.	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year aver- age, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year aver- age, 1911-1915.	1916
Me N. H Vt Mass R. I	$206 \\ 126 \\ 124 \\ 116 \\ 122$	145 120 120 120 120 110		225 130 155 125 125		180 125 105 93 110	198 140 140 130 113	122 127 105	260 159 168 155 165	179 95 108 120 110	204 120 112 91 74	68 91	61 55 75	83	60 47 71	81 94	139 175	96.21 83.57 99.78	289.68 199.20 155.68 159.25 136.90
Conn. N. Y. N. J. Pa. Del.	104 94 102 83 89	100 98 120 88 99	80 82 72 72 82	120 120 90 78 96	$125 \\ 102 \\ 105 \\ 88 \\ 103$	85 74 73 56 60	107 106 108 109 100	92 74 95 88 87	140 145 108 105 80	95 62 130 72 95	70 90	74 85 78	58 66 57	80 82 80	61 58		158 155 148	60.38 77.84 59.90	166.25 110.60 189.10 103.60 112.50
Md Va W.Va N. C. S. C.	86 90 86 78 79	95 80 83 88 70	77 88 84 79 81	80 92 98 74 85	95 98 92 89 90	45 45 45 48 70	112 87 112 85 90	87 94 83 80 80	78 65 54 52 70	97 125 117 90 80	95 130 88 95 75	86 88 122	65 62 76 112	90 82	-	1	137 158 140 175	$ \begin{array}{r} 60.25 \\ 62.15 \\ 59.12 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 126.35\\ 178.10\\ 139.04\\ 133.00\\ 131.25 \end{array}$
Ga Fla Ohio Ind Ill.	74 84 79 77 75	83 80 76 87 87	78 83 77 57 71	81 95 93 95 91	82 90 82 84 75	72 90 65 58 50	78 93 112 114 101	81 76 64 53 46	60 80 95 80 60	65 80 82 95 110	60 74 45 44 58	125 78 76 81	$ \begin{array}{r} 110 \\ 53 \\ 50 \\ 60 \end{array} $	85 84 89	$ \begin{array}{r} 105 \\ 113 \\ 53 \\ 56 \\ 61 \end{array} $	115 70 56 59	200 182	$100.82 \\ 55.22 \\ 50.00 \\ 49.61$	$77.88 \\ 103.82$
Mich Wis. Minn. Iowa. Mo.	90 97 99 79 68	90 91 101 85 82	72 80 76 80 80	$105 \\ 102 \\ 115 \\ 89 \\ 85$	105 95 61 72 86	94 116 115 74 27	105 120 135 109 84	96 109 110 48 38	$121 \\ 124 \\ 114 \\ 86 \\ 45$	59 87 106 105 98	48 47 60 42 60	55 54 72		5	30 30 32 59 73	56 45 39 54 60	175	50.19 42.50	78.00 73.50 108.00
N. Dak S. Dak Nebr Kans Ky	95 82 73 64 77	89 84 73 65 80	85 90 78 80 62	$ \begin{array}{r} 110 \\ 80 \\ 78 \\ 79 \\ 92 \\ 92 \\ \end{array} $	$41 \\ 44 \\ 60 \\ 57 \\ 92 \\$	120 72 52 22 39	128 105 80 82 101	85 78 48 40 49	109 90 80 62 45	90 115 105 83 126	93 66 73 71 84	74 93 84	28 36 51 73 67	78 91 102	42 47 54 -77 84	41 35 42 74 55	115 137 150 165 142	43.98 42.68 45.75 53.30	106.95 90.42 109.50 117.15 119.28
Tenn. Ala. Miss. La. Tex.	73 83 84 68 59	85 95 90 67 73	80 85 91 82 71	75 80 87 75 50	80 80 85 55 51	41 78 83 69 57	88 81 89 73 63	64 84 80 70 52	43 79 80 70 61	88 80 90 51 65	82 90 65 65 50	100 116			91 101 95 97 104	63 90 84 95 105	149 169 160 167 190	$\begin{array}{c} 80.99\\ 81.43\\ 62.63\\ 65.58\end{array}$	$122.18 \\ 152.10 \\ 104.00 \\ 108.55 \\ 95.00$
Okla Ark Mont Wyo Colo	62 72 146 133 127	70 70 150 200 150	78 82 138 158 125	70 70 180 160 160	60 84 120 100 100	$ \begin{array}{r} 18 \\ 55 \\ 150 \\ 42 \\ 35 \\ 35 \\ 20 $	$ \begin{array}{r} 60 \\ 70 \\ 165 \\ 140 \\ 95 \\ \end{array} $	60 72 140 140 115	70 60 140 108 120	85 90 155 150 135	53 65 125 130 138	$ \begin{array}{r} 108 \\ 102 \\ 67 \\ 81 \\ 68 \end{array} $	93 92 40 60 41	$ \begin{array}{r} 105 \\ 100 \\ 67 \\ 65 \\ 65 \\ 65 \end{array} $	90 97 64 70 50	84 76 50 60 55	195 190 120 128 135	65.25 87.58 79.88 56.52	103.35 123.50 150.00 166.40 186.30
N. Mex Ariz. Utah Nev Idaho	88 105 153 164 158	100 140 100 200	$100 \\ 110 \\ 160 \\ 120 \\ 130$	85 90 180 180 200	47 92 142 150 142	80 95 140 160 180	100 125 185 178 185	68 75 180 160 170	100 110 140 130 155	100 95 125 172 125	102 115 180 190 150	106 133 67 82 60	65 125 49 60 29	140 135 58 68 50	95 120 60 70 48	95 100 63 70 56	130	123.50 95.36 115.16	234.00
Wash. Orog. Cal. U. S	145 127 130	$ \begin{array}{r} 150 \\ 125 \\ 145 \end{array} $	120 99 107	170 160 130	$ \begin{array}{r} 131 \\ 105 \\ 130 \end{array} $	$160 \\ 130 \\ 135$	167 155 130	123 135 119	128 97 138	$ \begin{array}{r} 135 \\ 115 \\ 130 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 165 \\ 150 \\ 141 \end{array} $	61 62 84	36 31 65	60 58 70	55 60 70	53 60 75	98 90 140	76.93 68.13 96.68	161.70 135.00 197.40
	00. 1	00.4	00.8	100.0	00.0	00.0	110.4	00.1	110.0	50.0	00.4	09.9	00.0	03.1	13. 1	01.1	140.1	99.44	117.48

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

POTATOES—Continued.

TABLE 83.—Potatoes:	Farm	price per	bushel	on j	first	of	each	month,	by	geographical
		division	s, 1915	and	1916.	•				

Month.	Uni Sta		Nor Atla Stat	ntic	Sou Atla Stat	ntic	N. Ce States of Mis	seast	N. Ce States of Mis	west	Sou Cen Sta	tral	Far V ern St	
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
January February March April May June July August September October November December	Cts. 70.6 88.0 91.4 97.6 94.8 98.8 102.3 95.4 109.3 112.0 135.7 146.1	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 49.7 \\ 50.4 \\ 50.4 \\ 47.8 \\ 50.5 \\ 50.8 \\ 52.1 \\ 56.3 \\ 50.5 \\ 48.8 \\ 60.8 \\ 60.8 \\ 61.7 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 106.\ 4\\ 109.\ 2\\ 113.\ 6\\ 109.\ 8\\ 114.\ 8\\ 121.\ 2\\ 101.\ 5\\ 106.\ 8\\ 110.\ 7\\ 146.\ 5\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 48.4 \\ 45.6 \\ 44.7 \\ 38.4 \\ 40.2 \\ 38.8 \\ 39.3 \\ 44.1 \\ 49.3 \\ 54.7 \\ 78.9 \\ 77.1 \end{array}$	88.4 94.1 100.2 102.6 108.0 101.3 85.3 91.9 93.8 127.4	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 81.1\\ 79.3\\ 81.4\\ 80.5\\ 80.3\\ 78.1\\ 68.2\\ 56.2\\ 57.8\\ 62.0\\ 66.7\\ 67.3\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cis.\\ 67.5\\ 87.4\\ 88.7\\ 90.5\\ 87.7\\ 91.9\\ 96.6\\ 96.0\\ 128.1\\ 132.3\\ 149.0\\ 163.4\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 37.2\\ 37.4\\ 36.1\\ 35.9\\ 36.5\\ 35.3\\ 36.6\\ 50.4\\ 42.8\\ 38.7\\ 50.7\\ 55.2 \end{array}$	73.4 82.4 85.1 81.1 84.3 90.2 83.0 105.0 112.0 130.9	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 49.5 \\ 52.3 \\ 54.4 \\ 51.7 \\ 54.5 \\ 54.0 \\ 58.8 \\ 64.0 \\ 45.7 \\ 39.9 \\ 40.1 \\ 46.1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 81.7 \\ 100.5 \\ 119.6 \\ 121.9 \\ 112.3 \\ 107.9 \\ 109.9 \\ 88.3 \\ 105.6 \\ 126.4 \\ 148.5 \\ 165.6 \end{array}$		116.9 104.0 85.8 102.0	Cts. 56.7 66.0 65.9 79.0 89.2 95.8 87.3 67.7 54.8 60.9

TABLE 84.—Potatoes: Wholesale price, 1912-1916.

		IND	<u> </u>							1~ 10				
	New	York.	Chie	cago.		ieapo- is.	St. I	ouis.	Cinci	nnati.	Den	ver.	San i cis	Fran- co.
Date.	weste	e and rn, per ounds.	fancy	ir to 7, per shel.	Per b	ushel.		oank, ushel.	Per b	ushel.		100 nds.	River	oank, rs, pe r ound s.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Lcw.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec			\$0.50 .32	\$2.00 1.15			\$0.90 .35	\$1.52 1.20	\$0.88 .50	\$1.50 1.15				
1913. JanJune July-Dec	\$1.70 1.75	\$2.87 2.37	.15 .50	.70 .82	\$0.33 .50	\$0.60 1.00	.30 .45	.87 .93	.30 .65	1.00 1.00	\$0.50 .60	\$4.00 2.50	\$0.20 .50	$1.65 \\ 1.25$
1914. · JanJune July-Dec	$2.00 \\ 1.25$	3.00 2.12	.56 .28	$1.75 \\ 1.65$. 55 . 28	$1.35 \\ 1.50$.65 .33	$1.60 \\ 1.50$.65	$1.15 \\ 1.70$	1.00	$2.50 \\ 2.75$. 80 . 60	1.65
1915. January February March A pril May June	$1.25 \\ 1.00 \\ 1.25 \\ $	$\begin{array}{c} 1.65 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.45 \end{array}$.30 .35 .30 .30 .34 .18	.50 .50 .47 1.50 1.50	.33 .33 .30 .37 .32 .32	.48 .65 .50 .45 .55 .55	.42 .38 .40 .48 .44 .52	• 54 • 53 • 55 • 48 • 52	.45 .45 .45 .45 .42 .30	.50 .50 .50 .50 .50 .45	.90 .90 1.00 1.25 1.50 1.50	$1.25 \\ 1.25 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.75 \\ 2.25$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.10\\ 1.20\\ 1.20\\ 1.30\\ 2.25\\ 1.00 \end{array}$	$1.25 \\ 1.35 \\ 1.30 \\ 1.30 \\ 3.50 \\ 1.75$
JanJune.	1.00	1.75	.18	1.50	.30	. 65	.38	. 55	.30	.50	. 90	2.25	1.00	3.50
July August September October November December	1.75 2.00 2.40	2.09 2.50 2.50 3.00	.17 .45 .32 .37 .38 .53		. 40 . 27 . 25 . 35 . 40 . 40	$1.00 \\ .50 \\ .36 \\ .65 \\ .60 \\ .90$.22 .27 .32 .40 .43 .65	.55 .56 .55 .60 .70 .96	$ \begin{array}{r} 30 \\ .35 \\ .35 \\ .50 \\ .55 \\ .65 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 35 \\ 45 \\ 50 \\ 75 \\ 70 \\ 90 \\ 90 $	$\begin{array}{c} 1.50 \\ 1.00 \\ .85 \\ .85 \\ .90 \\ 1.10 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.25\\ 2.00\\ 1.35\\ 1.25\\ 1.40\\ 1.60 \end{array}$.90 .95 .85 .90 1.00 1.25	$ \begin{array}{r} 1.00\\ 1.15\\ 1.00\\ 1.15\\ 1.25\\ 1.50 \end{array} $
July-Dec	1.75	3.00	. 17	. 95	. 25	1.00	.22	.96	.30	. 90	. 85	2.25	. 85	1.50
1916. January February March April May June	2.85 3.00 3.30 3.00 3.00 3.00 3.00	$\begin{array}{c} 3.85\\ 3.60\\ 3.75\\ 3.85\\ 3.90\\ 3.90\\ 3.90 \end{array}$. 80 . 80 . 80 . 60 . 80 . 85	$1.30 \\ 1.30 \\ 1.05 \\ 1.00 \\ 1.10 \\ 1.30$.75 .87 .77 .62 .75 .85	$1.35 \\ 1.25 \\ 1.20 \\ 1.10 \\ 1.25 \\ 1.20 $.94 .88 .73 .78 .92 1.03	$\begin{array}{c} 1.13 \\ 1.03 \\ 1.09 \\ 1.06 \\ 1.28 \\ 1.55 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} .65 \\ 1.05 \\ 1.00 \\ .85 \\ .85 \\ 1.15 \\ \end{array} $	$1.18 \\ 1.10 \\ 1.12 \\ 1.12 \\ 1.30 \\ 1.30$	$1.40 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.65 \\ 1.65 \\ 1.65 $	$\begin{array}{c} 2.15\\ 2.15\\ 2.00\\ 2.00\\ 5.00\\ 3.25\end{array}$.90 1.00 1.00 1.25 1.00 1.35	$1.60 \\ 1.60 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.60 \\ 2.25$
JanJune.	2.85	3.90	. 60	1.30	. 62	1.35	.73	1.35	.65	1.30	1.40	5.00	. 90	2.25
July	3.40 4.50	5.00 5.25 5.25	$ \begin{array}{r} .65 \\ .65 \\ .95 \\ 1.00 \\ 1.35 \\ 1.25 \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 1.05 \\ 1.90 \\ 2.00 \\ 1.90 \\ 1.85 \\ 1.90 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} .75\\ .90\\ 1.05\\ 1.00\\ 1.50\\ 1.40\end{array}$		$\begin{array}{r} 1.50 \\ 1.55 \\ 1.90 \\ 11.10 \\ 1.53 \\ 1.38 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} .83\\ 2.00\\ 2.10\\ 1.73\\ 1.80\\ 1.85\end{array}$.80 .80 .90 1.25 1.50 1.65	$\begin{array}{c} 1.25 \\ 1.15 \\ 1.30 \\ 1.70 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.90 \end{array}$	$1.65 \\ 1.65 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.75 \\ 2.50 \\ 2.25$	3.25 3.00 2.50 3.00 3. 00 3. 00 3. 00	$\begin{array}{r} 1.30 \\ 1.15 \\ 1.00 \\ 1.25 \\ 1.85 \\ 1.96 \end{array}$	1.90 2.25 2.00 2.50 2.40 2.27
July-Dec	3 .40	5.25	. 65	2.00	.75	1.75	.50	2.10	. 80	1.90	1.65	3.25	1.00	2.50

¹ Bulk home grown Early Ohio.

POTATOES-Continued.

TABLE 85.—Potatoes: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).
Argentina. Austria-Hungary Belgium. Canada. China. Denmark. France. Germany. Italy. Japan.	$\begin{array}{c} Bushels. \\ 794\\ 1, 179\\ 9, 067\\ 2, 012\\ 346\\ 510\\ 6, 654\\ 12, 216\\ 5, 177\\ 403\end{array}$	Bushels. 544 1,116 272 769 3,976 630 396	Bushels. 224 	Netherlands Portugal Russia United Kingdom United States Other countries Total	Bushels. 15, 279 556 3,007 2,502 911 1,817 1,745 64,175	Bushels, 15,234 672 1,007 1,743 1,803 2,715 995 31,962	Bushels. 311 2,102 1,231 3,900

IMPORTS.

Algeria Argentina. Austria-Hungary Belgium. Brazil. Canada. Cuba. Egypt. Finland. France. Germany. Netherlands.	314 4,506 4,683 1,095 400 2,225 549 385	$1.079 \\ 421 \\ 697 \\ 664 \\ 2,293 \\ 540 \\ 409 \\ 8,745 \\ 1,312$	979 1,533 	Norway. Philippine Islands. Portugal Sueden Switzerland. United Kingdom. United States. Other countries. Total.	176 330 686 395 735 3,443 17,444 3,171 2,508 68,795	174 311 1,291 493 452 4,873 6,184 800 1,298 32,041	64 317 3 1,117 4,011 236
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SWEET POTATOES.

TABLE 86.—Sweet potatoes: Acreage, production, and value, in the United States, 1849-1916.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns: figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

Year.	Acreage.	Average yield per acre.	Production.	Average farm price per bushel Dec. 1.	Farm valu e Dec. 1.
1849 1859 1869 1889 1889			Bushels. \$8,268,000 42,095,000 21,710,000 \$5,579,000 43,950,000		Dollars.
1839 1900 1901 1902 1903	544,000 517,000 532,000	79.1 88.9 81.7 85.2 89.2	<i>42,517,000</i> 48,346,000 44,697,000 45,344,000 48,870,000	46.7 50.6 57.5 58.1 58.3	19,870,000 24,478,000 25,720,000 26,358,000 28,478,000
1904 1905 1906 1907 1907 1908	548,000 551,000 554,000 565,000 599,000	88. 9 92. 6 90. 2 88. 2 92. 4	$\begin{array}{c} 48,705,000\\ 51,034,000\\ 49,948,000\\ 49,813,000\\ 55,352,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 60.\ 4\\ 58.\ 3\\ 62.\ 2\\ 70.\ 0\\ 66.\ 1\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 29,424,000\\29,734,000\\31,063,000\\34,858,000\\36,564,000\end{array}$
1009. 1910. 1911. 1912.	641,000 641,000 305,000 583,000	92.4 93.5 90.1 95.2	59, 232, 000 59, 938, 000 54, 538, 000 55, 479, 000	69.4 67.1 75.5 72.6	$\begin{array}{c} 41,052,000\\ 40,216,000\\ 41,202,000\\ 40,264,000 \end{array}$
1913. 1914. 1915. 1916.	$\begin{array}{c} 625,000\\ 603,000\\ 731,000\\ 774,000 \end{array}$	94.5 93.8 103.5 91.7	59,057,000 56,574,000 75,639,000 70,955,000	$\begin{array}{c} 72.\ 6\\ 73.\ 0\\ 62.\ 1\\ 84.\ 8\end{array}$	42, 884, 000 41, 294, 000 46, 980, 000 60, 141, 000

Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

SWEET POTATOES-Continued.

TABLE 87.—Sweet potatoes: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916.

[000 o	mitt	.ed.]
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State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.
New Jersey Pennsylvania Delawaro Maryland Virginia	1 5 9	Bushels. 2,300 100 625 1,134 5,070	Dollars. 2,760 135 506 998 4,563	Missouri Kansas Kentucky Tennessee Alabama	Acres. 7 4 10 27 85	Bushels. 490 368 900 2,700 6,290	Dollars. 735 552 900 2,349 4,655
West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida	$\begin{array}{c}2\\87\\66\end{array}$	280 9,309 5,676 7,520 2,500	353 6,982 4,825 6,091 2,150	Mississippi Louisiana Texas Oklahoma Arkansas	64	6,314 5,760 7,120 962 3,185	4,230 3,802 6,408 1,299 2,866
Ohio Indiana Illinois Iowa	1 3 8 3	99 300 720 273	$148 \\ 450 \\ 900 \\ 524$	California United States	6 774	960	960 60, 141

TABLE 88.—Sweet potatoes: Condition of crop, United States, on first of months named, 1896-1916.

Year. July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Year.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
$\begin{array}{c} P. ct.\\ 1896. \ldots \\ 89. 3\\ 1897. \ldots \\ 808. \ldots \\ 1899. \ldots \\ 859. \ldots \\ 859. \ldots \\ 859. \ldots \\ 859. \ldots \\ 85. 1\\ 1900. \ldots \\ 93. 7\\ 1901. \ldots \\ 93. 1\\ 1902. \ldots \\ 83. 6\end{array}$	87.1 86.4 92.0 84.1	$71.7 \\85.4 \\90.6 \\80.7$	P. ct. 71.1 89.9 74.9 80.0 79.0 79.7	1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	90.2 87.3 90.6 90.9 85.9 89.8	88.7		83.7 86.1 88.6 86.0 82.7 85.5		87.3 78.4 86.9 86.5 77.1 88.7		P. ct. 83.9 79.1 84.1 81.4 81.8 87.5 82.7	P. ct. 80.2 78.1 82.0 80.1 80.7 85.0 79.2

TABLE 89.—Sweet potatoes: Yield per acre, price per bushel Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			3	rield	per	acre	(bu	shels).			F٤	rm ;	price (cen	per its).	bush	el	Valu ac (doll	e per re ars). ¹
State.	10-year average, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year average, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year avorage, 1911-1915.	1916
N. J. Pa. I el. Md. Va.	$\begin{array}{c} 124 \\ 106 \\ 123 \\ 120 \\ 100 \end{array}$	$105 \\ 100 \\ 93 \\ 100 \\ 86$	$\begin{array}{r} 133 \\ 102 \\ 125 \\ 110 \\ 95 \end{array}$	$123 \\ 88 \\ 125 \\ 115 \\ 100$	$140 \\ 105 \\ 115 \\ 110 \\ 100$	$130 \\ 121 \\ 140 \\ 115 \\ 90$	120 120 120 125 90	138 110 135 141 108	100 105 120 125 92	155 105 135 130 110	$100 \\ 100 \\ 125 \\ 126 \\ 130$	86 91 68 70 72	84 75 68 63 75	78 -90 60 60 70	95 86 70 70 76	70 75 62 70 65	120 135 81 88 90	97.02 85.66 85.62	120.08 135.00 101.25 110.88 117.00
W. Va. N. C. S. C. Ga. Fla	$ \begin{array}{r} 102 \\ 96 \\ 91 \\ 86 \\ 110 \end{array} $	86 90 83 95 105	$72 \\ 93 \\ 88 \\ 86 \\ 115$	$100 \\ 99 \\ 95 \\ 93 \\ 105$	$ \begin{array}{r} 101 \\ 105 \\ 91 \\ 83 \\ 108 \end{array} $	110 86 84 81 108	$ \begin{array}{r} 115 \\ 90 \\ 105 \\ 90 \\ 112 \end{array} $	$91 \\ 100 \\ 92 \\ 87 \\ 110$	92 90 85 85 120	110 105 105 85 112	140 107 86 80 100	97 61 69 67 75	90 62 68 66 73	$ \begin{array}{r} 100 \\ 61 \\ 75 \\ 68 \\ 75 \\ 75 \\ \end{array} $	98 65 70 69 80	92 56 65 61 68	126 75 85 81 86	57.66 65.73 57.64	73.10 64.80
Ohio. E. 1. HL. Ios. 4. Mo.	100 95 93 94 85	85 90 90 75 82	83 71 80 93 91	$ \begin{array}{r} 110 \\ 101 \\ 110 \\ 110 \\ 90 \end{array} $	$98 \\ 104 \\ 110 \\ 98 \\ 102$	113 114 89 105 91	90 88	90 78 70 80 56	$110 \\ 100 \\ 84 \\ 100 \\ 84$	$ \begin{array}{r} 110 \\ 95 \\ 100 \end{array} $		100 98 98 122 99	87 89 95 108 95	106 103 106 150 105	96 90 95 127 96	98 90 82 108 82	$150 \\ 150 \\ 125 \\ 192 \\ 150$	95.32 87.04 112.46 80.12	148.50 150.00 112.50 174.72 105.00
Kans Ky Tean Ala Miss	55 1 92	95 85 82 80 92	105 84 89 85 92	82	101 85 85 85 94	97 85	97	95 98	$ \begin{array}{c} 110 \\ 105 \\ 100 \\ 93 \\ 90 \end{array} $	90 110	92 90 100 74 82	$ \begin{array}{c} 111 \\ 82 \\ 71 \\ 66 \\ 63 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 103 \\ 85 \\ 72 \\ 71 \\ 62 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 110 \\ 94 \\ 80 \\ 67 \\ 62 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 106 \\ 77 \\ 69 \\ 65 \\ 63 \\ \end{array} $	100 70 59 57 55	$ 150 \\ 100 \\ 87 \\ 74 \\ 67 $	77.17 64.70 62.47 58.16	87.00 54.76 54.94
La. Tex Okla Ark Cal	85 78 81 92 148	86 75 85 75 130	86 88 88 100 105	$90 \\ 50 \\ 70 \\ 58 \\ 160$	$93 \\ 56 \\ 70 \\ 98 \\ 160$	90 71 75 92 140	84 75 92 88 156	64 90		92 98 115 130 135	$90 \\ 89 \\ 74 \\ 91 \\ 160$	63 92 104 80 93	$ \begin{array}{r} 65 \\ 104 \\ 109 \\ 90 \\ 94 \\ \\ \\ $	70 95 104 80 100	64 87 89 77 87	50 70 73 61 80	66 90 135 90 100		80. 10 99. 90 81. 90
U. S	93.3	-5.2	92.4	90.1	93, 5	90, 1	95, 2	94.5	93. 8	103, 5	91.7	71.5	72, 6	72.6	73.0	62.1	84.8	67.70	77.70

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

Statistics of Sweet Potatoes.

SWEET POTATOES-Continued.

TABLE 90.—Sweet potatoes: Wholesale price per barrel, 1912-1916.

								New Y	ork.	
Date.	Balti	nore.	St. L	ouis.	New Or	leans.1	Jers	æy.	South	iern.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	\$2.00 1.00	\$4.50 6.00	\$1.50 .75	\$3.50 5.00	\$1.75 2.00	\$2.00 2.00	\$2.50 1.50	\$3, 50 3, 50	\$2.00 .50	\$3.00 6.00
1913. JanJune. July-Dec	2.00 .75	$3.50 \\ 7.00$	1.63 .88	$3.75 \\ 6.25$	2.00. 2.00	$2.00 \\ 2.00$	$2.00 \\ 1.25$	3.00 3.50	1.75 .40	$2.50 \\ 5.50$
1914. JanJune July-Dec	1.00 1.00	2.50 5.50	1.50 1.75	$2.50 \\ 4.50$	1.00 .80	3.20 3.50	$1.50 \\ 2.00$	2.00 3.50	.75 .75	$1.50 \\ 5.00$
1915. January. February. March April. May. June	1.50 1.50 1.50 1.50 1.50 4.00	$\begin{array}{r} 3.25 \\ 3.50 \\ 4.00 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.00 \end{array}$	2, 50 2, 50 2, 50	3. 25 3. 00 4. 50	$1.00 \\ 1.00 \\ 1.00 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.80 \\ 2.50$	1. 20 1. 60 2. 00 2. 00 2. 50 3. 00	2, 50	3.00	2,00 2,50	3.50 3.50
JanJune	1.50	5.50	2.50	4.50	1.00	3.00	2.50	3.00	2.00	3.50
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{3.50} \\ \textbf{2.25} \\ \textbf{1.25} \\ \textbf{1.00} \\ \textbf{1.25} \\ \textbf{.75} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6,50\\ 4,00\\ 2,50\\ 2,00\\ 2,00\\ 2,25 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 1.50\\ 1.90\\ 1.90\\ 2.00 \end{array} $	$3.40 \\ 2.40 \\ 2.25 \\ 2.75$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.50 \\ 2.00 \\ 1.00 \\ .70 \\ .70 \\ 1.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 3.00\\ 3.00\\ 1.80\\ 2.10\\ 1.20\\ 1.60\end{array}$	1.25 .50 1.75	2.25 2.25 2.50	2.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 .50	5.00 3.50 2.37 2.00 2.25
July-Dec	. 75	6.50	1.50	3.40	. 70	3.00	. 50	2.50	. 50	5.00
1916. January February March. April. May. June.	$1,00 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.50 $	$\begin{array}{c} 2.25 \\ 2.25 \\ 2.50 \\ 2.75 \\ 3.00 \\ 2.25 \end{array}$	$1.75 \\ 1.85 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.50 \\ 2.25$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.\ 65\\ 2.\ 25\\ 2.\ 10\\ 1.\ 75\\ 1.\ 50\\ 2.\ 25 \end{array}$	$1.00 \\ .50 \\ .80 \\ .80 \\ .70 \\ .50$	$1.70 \\ 1.70 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.30 \\ 1.30 \\ 1.20$	1.75	2.50 2.50	1.00 1.50 1.50	2.00 2.00 2.00
JanJune	1.00	3.00	1.50	2.65	. 50	1.70	1.75	2.50	1.00	2.00
July August. September October November December	1.75 1.25 1.50	$5.50 \\ 4.25 \\ 2.35 \\ 2.25 \\ 3.00 \\ 4.00$	2.50 2.35 2.25 2.85 2.00	3. 25 2. 80 2. 90 2. 85 3. 00	. 80 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00	$\begin{array}{c} 1.20\\ 2.00\\ 2.50\\ 1.50\\ 1.50\\ 1.70\end{array}$	2.00 2.50	3.50 3.25	3.50 1.00 1.25 1.25 1.75 2.00	5, 50 5, 00 3, 50 3, 00 3, 50 4, 25
July-Dec	1.25	5.50	2.00	3.25	. 80	2.50	2.00	3.25	1.00	5.50

Prices as quoted were per half-barrel sack of 80 pounds; barrel prices obtained by doubling same.

HAY.

TABLE 91.—Hay: Acreage, production, value, exports, etc., in the United States, 1849-1916.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

_		Aver-		Aver- age		Chicag per t	o prices on, by	No. 1 ti carload	mothy lots.	Domestic exports,
Year.	Acreage.	age yield per acre.	Production.	farm price per ton	Farm value Dec. 1.	Decei	nber.	Follo Ma	owing ay.	fiscal year be- ginning
		acro.		Dec. 1.		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	July 1.
1849 1859	Acres.	Tons.1	Tons.1 13,839,000 19,084,000	Dolls.	Dollars.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls .	Dolls.	Tons.2
1866 1 867 1 868 1 869 <i>1869</i>	120,021,000	$\begin{array}{c} 1.23\\ 1.31\\ 1.21\\ 1.42 \end{array}$	21,779,000 26,277,000 26,142,000 26,420,000 27,316,000	10.14 10.21 10.08 10.18	$\begin{array}{c} 220,836,000\\ 268,301,000\\ 263,589,000\\ 268&933,000 \end{array}$					5,028 5,645 6,723
1870 1871 1872 1873 1874	$\begin{array}{c} 19,862,000\\ 19,009,000\\ 20,319,000\\ 21,894,000\\ 21,770,000 \end{array}$	$1.23 \\ 1.17 \\ 1.17 \\ 1.15 \\ 1.15 \\ 1.15$	24, 525, 000 22, 239, 000 23, 813, 000 25, 085, 000 25, 134, 000	$12.47 \\ 14.30 \\ 12.94 \\ 12.53 \\ 11.94$	$\begin{array}{c} 305,743,000\\ 317,940,000\\ 308,025,000\\ 314,241,000\\ 300,222,000 \end{array}$					4,581 5,266 4,557 4,889 7,183
1875 1876 1877 1878 1878 1879 1879	25,368,000 26,931,000	$\begin{array}{c c} 1.19\\ 1.22\\ 1.25\\ 1.47\\ 1.29\\ 1.15 \end{array}$	27, 874, 000 30, 867, 000 31, 629, 000 39, 608, 000 35, 493, 000 <i>\$5, 151, 000</i> .	10.78 8.97 8.37 7.20 9.32	$\begin{array}{c} 300, 378, 000\\ 276, 991, 000\\ 264, 880, 000\\ 285, 016, 000\\ 330, 804, 000 \end{array}$	9.50 8.00 14.00	$ \begin{array}{r} 10.50 \\ 8.50 \\ 14.50 \end{array} $	9.00 9.75 9.00 14.00	$ \begin{array}{r} 10.00 \\ 10.75 \\ 11.50 \\ 15.00 \end{array} $	7, 528 7, 287 9, 514 8, 127 13, 739
1880 1881 1882 1883 1884	25,864,000 30,889,000 32,340,000 35,516,000	$\begin{array}{c} 1.\ 23\\ 1.\ 14\\ 1.\ 18\\ 1.\ 32\\ 1.\ 26\end{array}$	31,925,000 35,135,000 38,138,000 46,864,000 48,470,000	$11.65 \\ 11.82 \\ 9.73 \\ 8.19 \\ 8.17$	$\begin{array}{c} 371,811,000\\ 415,131,000\\ 371,170,000\\ 383,834,000\\ 396,139,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15.00 \\ 16.00 \\ 11.50 \\ 9.00 \\ 10.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15.50 \\ 16.50 \\ 12.25 \\ 10.00 \\ 11.50 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 17.00\\ 15.00\\ 12.00\\ 12.50\\ 15.50 \end{array}$	19.00 16.50 13.00 17.00 17.50	12, 662 10, 570 13, 309 16, 908 11, 142
1885 1886 1887 1888 1889 <i>18</i> 89	36,502,000 37,665,000	$\begin{array}{c} 1.12\\ 1.15\\ 1.10\\ 1.21\\ 1.26\\ 1.26\\ 1.26 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 44,732,000\\ 41,796,000\\ 41,454,000\\ 46,643,000\\ 66,831,000\\ 66,831,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 8.71 \\ 8.46 \\ 9.97 \\ 8.76 \\ 7.04 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 389,753,000\\ 353,438,000\\ 413,440,000\\ 408,500,000\\ 470,394,000 \end{array}$	$11.00 \\ 9.50 \\ 13.50 \\ 11.00 \\ 9.00$	$\begin{array}{c} 12.\ 00\\ 10.\ 50\\ 14.\ 50\\ 11.\ 50\\ 10.\ 00 \end{array}$	$10.00 \\ 11.00 \\ 17.00 \\ 10.50 \\ 9.00$	$12.00 \\ 12.50 \\ 21.00 \\ 21.00 \\ 14.00 \\ 14.00 \\ 14.00 \\ 14.00 \\ 14.00 \\ 10.0$	13, 390 13, 873 18, 198 21, 928 36, 274
1890 1891 1892 1893 1894	50,713,000	$\begin{array}{c} 1.19\\ 1.19\\ 1.18\\ 1.33\\ 1.14 \end{array}$	60, 198, 000 60, 818, 000 59, 824, 000 65, 766, 000 54, 874, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 7.87 \\ 8.12 \\ 8.20 \\ 8.68 \\ 8.54 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 473,570,000\\ 494,114,000\\ 490,428,000\\ 570,883,000\\ 468,578,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 9.\ 00\\ 12.\ 50\\ 11.\ 00\\ 10.\ 00\\ 10.\ 00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 10.50 \\ 15.00 \\ 11.50 \\ 10.50 \\ 11.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 12.50 \\ 13.50 \\ 12.00 \\ 10.00 \\ 10.00 \end{array}$	$15.50 \\ 14.00 \\ 13.50 \\ 10.50 \\ 10.25$	28,066 35,201 33,084 54,446 47,117
1895 1896 1897 1898 1899 1899	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.06\\ 1.37\\ 1.43\\ 1.55\\ 1.37\\ 1.25\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 47,079,000\\ 59,282,000\\ 60,665,000\\ 66,377,000\\ 56,656,000\\ 58,828,000\\ \end{array}$	8.35 6.55 6.62 6.00 7.27	$\begin{array}{c} 393, 186,000\\ 388, 146,000\\ 401, 391,000\\ 398,061,000\\ 411,926,000\\ \end{array}$	$12.00 \\ 8.00 \\ 8.00 \\ 8.00 \\ 10.50$	$12.50 \\ 8.50 \\ 8.50 \\ 8.25 \\ 11.50 \\$	$11.50 \\ 8.50 \\ 9.50 \\ 9.50 \\ 10.50 $	$12.00 \\ 9.00 \\ 10.50 \\ 10.50 \\ 12.50$	59,05 2 61,65 8 81,827 64,91 6 72,71 6
1900 1901 1902 1903 1904	39, 133, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 1.28\\ 1.28\\ 1.50\\ 1.54\\ 1.52 \end{array}$	50, 111, 000 50, 591, 000 59, 858, 000 61, 306, 000 60, 696, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 8.89 \\ 10.01 \\ 9.06 \\ 9.07 \\ 8.72 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 445,539,000\\ 506,192,000\\ 542,036,000\\ 556,276,000\\ 529,108,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11.\ 50\\ 13.\ 00\\ 12.\ 00\\ 10.\ 00\\ 10,\ 50 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 14.00\\ 13.50\\ 12.50\\ 12.00\\ 11.50 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 12.50\\ 12.50\\ 13.50\\ 12.00\\ 11.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.\ 50\\ 13.\ 50\\ 15.\ 00\\ 15.\ 00\\ 12.\ 00 \end{array}$	89, 364 153, 431 50, 974 60, 730 66, 557
1905 1906 1907 1908 1909 1909	40,791,000	$\begin{array}{c} 1.54\\ 1.35\\ 1.45\\ 1.52\\ 1.42\\ 1.35\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 60,532,000\\ 57,146,000\\ 63,677,000\\ 70,050,000\\ 64,938,000\\ 68,833,000 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 8.52 \\ 10.37 \\ 11.68 \\ 9.02 \\ \hline 10.49 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 515,960,000\\592,540,000\\743,507,000\\631,683,000\\722,385,000\end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 10.00 \\ 15.50 \\ 13.00 \\ 11.50 \\ \hline 16.00 \end{array} $	$12.00 \\ 18.00 \\ 17.50 \\ 12.00 \\ 17.00$	$11.50 \\ 15.50 \\ 13.00 \\ 12.00 \\ 12.50$	12.50 20.50 14.00 13.00	70, 172 58, 602 77, 281 64, 641 55, 007
1910 3 1911 1912 1913 1914	51,015,000 48,240,000 49,530,000	$1.36 \\ 1.14 \\ 1.47 \\ 1.31 \\ 1.43$	69, 378, 000 54, 916, 000 72, 691, 000 64, 116, 000 70, 071, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 12.14\\ 14.29\\ 11.79\\ 12.43\\ 11.12 \end{array}$	842, 252, 000 784, 926, 000 856, 695, 000 797, 077, 000 779, 068, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 16.00\\ 20.00\\ 13.00\\ 14.50\\ 15.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 19.00\\ 22.00\\ 18.00\\ 18.00\\ 16.00\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 18.50\\ 24.00\\ 14.00\\ 15.00\\ 16.50\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23.50\\ 28.00\\ 16.50\\ 17.50\\ 17.50\end{array}$	55, 223 59, 730 60, 720 50, 151 105, 508
1915 1916	51, 108, 000 54, 965, 000	1.68 1.64	85,920,000 89,991,000	$10.63 \\ 11.21$	913, 644, 000 1, 008, 894, 000	$14.50 \\ 15.00$	$16.50 \\ 17.50$	17.50	20.00	178, 336
•	1 2,000 pour	nds.	2 2,210 1	ounds.		gures ad	justed 1	o censu	s basis.	

HAY-Continued.

TABLE 92.-Hay: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916.

1000	omitted.]	

State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Produc- tion.	Fa rm valuø Dec. 1.
Maine. New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island	A cres. 1, 200 529 980 480 60	Bushels. 1,740 767 1,666 749 81	Dollars. 21,576 11,122 20,992 14,231 1,620	North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky.	A cres. 520 730 1,850 1,680 1,080	Bushels. 884 1,387 4,070 2,604 1,415	Dollars. 5,304 7,490 28,897 19,790 17,829
Connecticut. New York. New Jersey. Pennsylvania Delaware.	375	$574 \\ 7,290 \\ 585 \\ 5,208 \\ 116$	$10,619 \\ 86,751 \\ 10,296 \\ 71,870 \\ 1,844$	Tennessee. Alabama Mississisppi Louisiana Texas.	$1,050 \\ 275 \\ 275 \\ 260 \\ 480$	1,449 358 371 429 576	21,735 4,654 4,081 4,719 6,048
Maryland Virginia. West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina.	790 825	6S8 1,066 1,270 507 325	$\begin{array}{c} 9,632 \\ 15,990 \\ 18,415 \\ 8,872 \\ 5,428 \end{array}$	Oklahoma Arkansas Montana Wyoming Colorado	550 375 825 580 970	825 469 1,402 1,044 1,988	7,425 5,862 15,422 12,528 21,868
Georgia. Florida Ohio. Indiana. Illinois.	$56 \\ 3,100 \\ 2,300$	$\begin{array}{r} 375 \\ 70 \\ 4,867 \\ 3,312 \\ 4,495 \end{array}$	6,075 1,120 51,590 36,101 50,794	New Mexico Arizona Utah Nevada	185 165 384 225	370 627 845 540	5, 180 9, 092 12, 675 5, 184
Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota	2,600 1,890	4,372 4,420 3,496 5,700	$43,720 \\ 51,272 \\ 24,472 \\ 52,161$	Idaho Washington. Oregon. California	850	1,812 2,006 1,955 4,375	21,925 27,683 21,310 55,125
Minnesota Iowa Missouri		5,796 4,355	52,164 40,502	United States.	54,965	89,991	1,008,894

TABLE 93.-Hay: Yield per acre, price per ton Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

			Ave	rage	yiel	d per	aer	e (to	ns).			Fai	rm pr	ice pe	r ton	(dolla	rs).	Va per (doli	
State.	10-year average, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year average, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1911	1915	1916	5-year average, 1911-1915.	1916
Me. N. H. Vt. Mass. R. 1	1.13 1.36 1.28	$1.35 \\ 1.60 \\ 1.30$.92 1.11 1.20	.97 1.25 1.15	$1.20 \\ 1.35 \\ 1.28$	$1.05 \\ 1.30 \\ 1.08$	$1.25 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.25$	$1.00 \\ 1.28 \\ 1.21$	1.15 1.20 1.32	$1.00 \\ 1.35 \\ 1.50$	$1.45 \\ 1.70 \\ 1.56$	16.38 13.86 20.21	$13.70 \\ 15.00 \\ 14.00 \\ 21.50 \\ 22.20$	17.20 14.50 21.10	(17.00) (14.60) (21.50)	17.40 15.50 22.00	14.50 12.60 19.00	$\begin{array}{c} 18.19 \\ 19.24 \\ 27.73 \end{array}$	21.02 21.42 29.64
Conn N. Y N. J. Pa Del.	$1.24 \\ 1.40 \\ 1.36$	1.25 1.45 1.45	1.20 1.60 1.50	$1.05 \\ 1.25 \\ 1.20$	$1.32 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.38$	$1.02 \\ 1.05 \\ 1.00$	$1.25 \\ 1.44 \\ 1.43$	$1.14 \\ 1.30 \\ 1.32$	1.20 1.35 1.28	$1.30 \\ 1.45 \\ 1.40$	$1.62 \\ 1.56 \\ 1.60$	14.60 18.28 15.18	$\begin{array}{c} 22.50 \\ 14.90 \\ 20.00 \\ 15.60 \\ 15.00 \end{array}$	15.30 19.00 14.90	14.60 19.50 14.50	15.70 19.00 15.60	$ \begin{array}{c} 11.90 \\ 17.60 \\ 13.80 \end{array} $	18.45 26.09 20.48	$ \begin{array}{r} 19.28 \\ 27.46 \\ 22.08 \end{array} $
Md Va W. Va N. C S. C	1.17 1.20 1.38	1.40 1.45 1.50	1.30 1.45 1.50	$1.30 \\ 1.25 \\ 1.38$	1.19 1.20 1.50	$.64 \\ .66 \\ 1.05$	1.38	1.27	.72 .92 1.15	1.35 1.50 1.85	1.35 1.54 1.30	15.49 15.14 16.03	$14.40 \\ 15.20 \\ 15.00 \\ 16.70 \\ 18.00 $	15.50 14.90 16.50	17.20 17.20 17.10	15.70 15.00 16.50	15.00 14.50 17.50	16.92 18.17 22.25	20.25 22.33 22.75
Ga Fla Ohio Ind Ill.	1.31	1.35 1.45 1.35	1.35 1.53 1.50	1.38 1.43 1.40	1.33 1.39 1.30	1.30 .98 .91	1.25 1.36 1.37	1,35 1.30 1.00	1.35 1.13 1.00	(1.20) (1.44) (1.50)	1.25 1.57 1.44	16.98 12.52 12.17	2.13.00511.40	(18, 20) (12, 80) (14, 10)) 17, 2() 13, 4() 14, 1((16.00) (12.70) (11.00)) 16, 00) 10, 60) 10, 90	(22.73) (17.23) (15.22)	$ \begin{array}{c} 20,00 \\ 16,64 \\ 15,70 \end{array} $
Mich Wis Minn Iowa Mo.	1.52 1.58 1.43	1.35 1.70 1.40	1.70	$1.53 \\ 1.75 \\ 1.64$	1.00 1.00 1.05	$1.20 \\ 1.00 \\ .80$	1.60 1.53 1.40	1.62 1.50 1.48	21.75 1.89 1.38	51.75 01.91 51.80	$ \begin{array}{c} 1.70 \\ 1.85 \\ 1.61 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 11.38 \\ 7.2 \\ 8.98 \end{array} $		$ \begin{array}{c} 11.10 \\ 0.60 \\ 0.9.60 \end{array} $	0 9.30 6.10 10.10) 9.90) 6.40) 8.70	11.60 7.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00	(17.93) (11.07) (13.42)	12.95 14.49

Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

HAY-Continued.

			Ave	rage	yiel	d per	acr	e (to:	ns).			Far	m pri	ice pe	r ton	(dolla	rs).	per	lue acre lars).1
State.	10-year average, 1907-1916.	2061	1908	1909	1910	1161	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-year average, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year average, 1911-1915.	1916
N. Dak S. Dak Nebr Kans Ky	$1.40 \\ 1.56 \\ 1.39$	$1.40 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.15$	1.50 1.55 1.50	$1.50 \\ 1.50$.80 1.00 1.15	.85 .85	1.46	$1.20 \\ 1.34 \\ .90$	1.70 1.69 1.51	2.00 2.60 2.30	$1.90 \\ 2.20 \\ 1.55$	5.93 7.26 7.74	8.40	8.70 12.50	5.70 6.90 7.40	5.30 5.80 5.60	5.40 7.10 7.60	8.34 11.60 11.02	10.20 10.26 15.62 11.78 16.51
Tenn Ala. Miss. La. Tex	$1.44 \\ 1.45 \\ 1.64$	$1.80 \\ 1.60 \\ 2.00$	$1.60 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.40$	$1.50 \\ 1.47 \\ 1.50$	$1.43 \\ 1.42 \\ 1.75$	$1.40 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.30$	$1.25 \\ 1.48 \\ 1.65$	$1.36 \\ 1.33 \\ 1.50$	$1.31 \\ 1.45 \\ 1.90$	1.45 1.40 1.75	$1.30 \\ 1.35 \\ 1.65$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.52 \\ 11.87 \\ 11.87 \\ 11.87 \end{array}$	14.60 12.50 12.70	$14.20 \\ 13.50 \\ 12.50$	$13.80 \\ 12.00 \\ 12.00$	12.40 11.00 10.30	$13.00 \\ 11.00 \\ 11.00$	18.31 17.15 19.23	14.85 18.15
Okla Ark Mont Wyo Colo	1.28 1.88 2.11	$1.25 \\ 1.70 \\ 2.10$	1.50 2.00 2.00	$1.25 \\ 1.79 \\ 2.40$	$1.40 \\ 2.40$	$1.15 \\ 2.00 \\ 2.10$	1.90	$1.20 \\ 1.80 \\ 1.90$	1.05 2.50 2.30	1.60 2.00 2.20	$1.25 \\ 1.70 \\ 1.80$	$9.54 \\ 8.92$	12.00 8.30 8.60	9.60 6.70	12.90 8.70 7.50	10.30 7.50 7.80	12.50 11.00 12.00	15.19 17.96 17.02	$13.50 \\ 15.62 \\ 18.70 \\ 21.60 \\ 22.55 \\$
N. Mex Ariz. Utah Nev.	3.30 2.56	$2.90 \\ 2.10$	$\frac{3.20}{2.50}$	$3.30 \\ 2.90$	$2.10 \\ 3.00$	$3.86 \\ 2.50$	$3.40 \\ 2.78$	$\frac{4.00}{2.33}$	$3.20 \\ 2.75$	3.20 2.50	$3.80 \\ 2.20$	$11.99 \\ 8.92$	$12.00 \\ 8.00$	9.10	8.80 7.70	9.60 8.00	$14.50 \\ 15.00$	38.00 21.42	28.00 55.10 33.00 23.04
Idaho Wash Oreg Cal	2.24 2.10	$2.10 \\ 2.00$	$\frac{1}{2}$. 25 2.00	2.10 2.05	$2.10 \\ 2.10$	$2.40 \\ 2.10$	2.20 2.20	2.30 2.10	2.20 2.00	2.30 2.20	2.40 2.30	12.43 9.98	10.10	$10.90 \\ 9.00$	$11.00 \\ 9.20$	$10.80 \\ 9.50$	13.80 10.90	25.03 19.32	30. 25 33. 12 25. 07 22. 05
U. S	1.44	1.45	1.52	1.42	1.36	1.14	1.47	1.31	1.43	1.68	1.64	11.49	11.79	12.43	11.12	10.63	11.21	16.72	18.36

TABLE 93.—Hay: Yield per acre, price per ton Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States— Continued.

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

TABLE 94.—Hay: Farm price per ton on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1915 and 1916.

Month.		ited ites.	Atla	rth intic tes.	Atla	uth intic tes.	State	entral s east ss. R.		entral s west ss. R.	Cen	uth tral tes.		West- tates.
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
January February March. April May. June.	$\begin{array}{c} 10.94\\ 11.40\\ 11.62\\ 11.78\\ 12.22 \end{array}$	$11.69 \\ 11.71 \\ 11.74 \\ 11.82$	$\begin{array}{c} 16.26 \\ 16.64 \\ 16.48 \\ 17.19 \\ 17.91 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15.39\\ 15.94\\ 15.79\\ 15.41\\ 15.59\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15.86 \\ 16.66 \\ 16.25 \\ 16.54 \\ 16.87 \end{array}$	$16.97 \\ 17.15 \\ 17.69 \\ 17.79 \\ 18.35$	$11. 43 \\ 11. 82 \\ 11. 91 \\ 12. 20 \\ 12. 70$	12.17	Dolls. 7.17 7.63 7.42 7.51 7.76 7.63	8.80 9.09 9.38 9.72 9.66	$\begin{array}{c} 10.\ 74\\ 11.\ 15\\ 11.\ 36\\ 11.\ 61\\ 11.\ 89 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.\ 06\\ 13.\ 50\\ 13.\ 72\\ 13.\ 95\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 9.93 \\ 10.47 \\ 11.86 \\ 11.48 \\ 11.89 \end{array}$	Dolls. 8.30 8.84 8.53 8.74 8.70 9.08
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{c} 10.68\\ 10.42\\ 10.36\\ 10.68\end{array}$	11.02 10.80 10.69	$\begin{array}{c} 15.43 \\ 13.66 \\ 13.47 \\ 13.33 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 16.64 \\ 16.64 \\ 16.22 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15.03 \\ 15.11 \\ 15.10 \\ 15.04 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 16.57 \\ 16.20 \\ 15.85 \\ 15.85 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 10.29 \\ 10.47 \\ 10.39 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c}11.31\\11.04\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.69 \\ 6.94 \\ 7.23 \\ 7.08 \\ 7.58 \\ 7.91 \end{array}$	7.59 7.19 7.07	10.89 10.85 11.62	11.98	10.98 10.69 10.86 11.59	8.55 8.32 8.19 8.46 9.00 9.15

Statistics of Hay.

HAY-Continued.

TABLE 95.—Hay: Wholesale price (baled) per ton, 1912-1916.

	Chie	cago.	Cinci	nnati.	St. I	ouis.	New	York.	San Fr	ancisco.
Date.	No.1 ti	imothy.	No.1 ti	mothy.	No.1 ti	imothy.	No.1 ti	mothy.1	No.1 light	wheat, bales.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	\$17.50 13.00	\$28.00 22.00	\$21.50 15.50	\$31.00 27.00	\$19.50 13.00	\$31.00 24.50	\$25.00 21.50	\$32.00 29.00		
1913. JanJune July-Dec	13.00 13.50	18.50 19.50	$14.00 \\ 15.25$	$19.00 \\ 21.00$	12.00 13.50	$18.50 \\ 24.00$	19.50 20.00	23.00 22.00		
1914. Jan.–June July–Dec	13. 50 13. 00	17.50 18.50	17.50 17.50	21.00 21.50	15.00 14.50	23. 00 22. 50	19.50 18.50	23.00 25.00		\$21.00 } 14.00
1915. January February March April May June	$\begin{array}{c} 15.\ 00\\ 15.\ 00\\ 14.\ 50\\ 14.\ 50\\ 16.\ 50\\ 17.\ 00 \end{array}$	$17.50 \\ 16.00 \\ 16.00 \\ 18.00 \\ 17.50 \\ 18.00 \\ 17.50 \\ 18.00 \\ 18.00 \\ 100 $	18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 19.00 19.00	$19.25 \\19.00 \\19.50 \\20.00 \\21.00 \\22.00$	17.00 16.00 17.50 18.00 18.00 18.00 17.00	$19.50 \\ 21.00 \\ 22.00 \\ 21.00 \\ 22.00 \\ 22.00 \\ 20.50 $	21.00 20.50 18.00 20.50 22.00 23.50	$\begin{array}{c} 22.50\\ 21.50\\ 22.00\\ 22.50\\ 25.00\\ 25.00\end{array}$	11.00 11.00 11.00 11.00 11.50 11.50	$12.00 \\ 12.00 \\ 12.00 \\ 12.50 \\ 12.50 \\ 12.50 \\ 14.00 $
JanJune	14.50	18.00	18.00	22.00	16.00	22.00	18.00	25.00	11.00	14.00
July August	$17.50 \\ 12.00 \\ 14.00 \\ 14.00 \\ 14.50 \\ 14.50 $	$\begin{array}{c} 21.\ 00\\ 21.\ 00\\ 17.\ 00\\ 18.\ 00\\ 16.\ 50\\ 16.\ 50 \end{array}$	18.00 16.00 16.00 13.00 18.50 18.00	$\begin{array}{c} 22.50\\ 23.00\\ 19.00\\ 21.00\\ 19.50\\ 20.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 12.50\\ 12.00\\ 12.00\\ 13.00\\ 13.00\\ 13.00\\ 14.00\\ \end{array}$	24.00 23.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 19.00	$\begin{array}{c} 24.\ 00\\ 26.\ 00\\ 24.\ 50\\ 24.\ 00\\ 25.\ 00\\ 24.\ 00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 29.\ 00\\ 31.\ 50\\ 26.\ 00\\ 26.\ 00\\ 26.\ 00\\ 26.\ 00\end{array}$	13.00 13.50 13.50 14.50 17.00 17.00	14.50 14.50 16.00 18.00 18.00 18.00
July-Dec	12.00	21.00	13.00	23.00	12.00	24.00	24.00	31.50	13.00	18.00
1916. January February. March A pril. May June.	15.50 14.50 15.00 17.50 17.50 17.00	17.00 16.50 18.50 20.00 20.00 19.00	18.00 19.00 19.50 20.00 21.60 18.00	$\begin{array}{c} 21.\ 00\\ 21.\ 00\\ 20.\ 50\\ 22.\ 00\\ 24.\ 00\\ 22.\ 00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15.\ 00\\ 15.\ 00\\ 15.\ 00\\ 14.\ 00\\ 16.\ 50\\ 15.\ 00\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 20.\ 00\\ 19.\ 00\\ 20.\ 00\\ 20.\ 50\\ 21.\ 00\\ 20.\ 00 \end{array}$	24.00 25.00 26.00 26.00 26.50 27.00	26.00 26.00 28.00 28.00 30.00 31.00	16.00 16.00 17.00 17.00 17.00 17.00 14.50	18.00 19.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00
JanJune	14.50	20.00	18.00	24.00	14.00	21.00	24.00	31.00	14.50	19.00
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{r} 14.00\\ 9.50\\ 12.50\\ 14.50\\ 13.00\\ 15.00 \end{array}$	18.00 18.00 18.00 17.00 17.00 17.50	$\begin{array}{c} 18.00\\ 15.00\\ 16.00\\ 14.25\\ 15.00\\ 15.59\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 18.50\\ 18.00\\ 16.50\\ 16.50\\ 16.50\\ 16.50\\ 16.50\\ 16.50\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11.\ 00\\ 11.\ 50\\ 13.\ 00\\ 14.\ 00\\ 14.\ 50\\ 15.\ 50\\ \end{array}$	19.50 18.00 17.25 17.00 17.50 18.50	$\begin{array}{r} 24.00\\ 24.00\\ 20.00\\ 18.00\\ 18.50\\ 19.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 28.\ 00\\ 25.\ 00\\ 26.\ 00\\ 20.\ 00\\ 23.\ 00\\ 22.\ 00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 14.50\\ 15.00\\ 16.00\\ 17.50\\ 17.50\\ 18.00 \end{array}$	$16.50 \\ 17.00 \\ 18.50 \\ 18.50 \\ 19.00 \\ 20.00$
July-Dec	9.50	18.00	14.25	18.50	11.00	19.50	18.00	28.00	14.50	20.00

¹ Per hundred pounds, 1900, 1901, and 1907.

² New hay.

Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

CLOVER AND TIMOTHY SEED.

TABLE 96.—Clover and timothy seed: Wholesale price, 1912-1916.

		Clo	over (bushe	ls of 60) pound	ls).					Tim	othy.			
		cin- ti.	Chic	ago.	Tol	edo.			Cine		Chic	ago.	Milv ke		St. L	ouis.
Date.	Pri	me.		or to me.		or to lice.	Det	roit.	Po bus (of pour	hel 45	Poc cho (per pour	100	Per pou		pr: (per	or to ime r 100 nds).
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	IIigh.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	10.00	13.00	5.40	13.80	Dols. 4.00 3.00	$Dols. \\ 14.20 \\ 11.72 \\ 2 \\ 2$	12.00	14.00	4.00	6.50	11.50	16.25	5.0 0	15.50	2.50	15.50
1913. JanJune July-Dec		11.50 9.00	4.20 4.20	13.20 9.60	$3.00 \\ 1.60$	13.85 12.75	11.15 7.50	13.40 9.45	1.50 2.50		2. 50 3. 50	5. 40 5. 90	2.50 3.75	4.60 5.50		
1914. JanJune July-Dec				15.00 18.50		9.45 11.40		9.40 11.25			3.00 3.50		3.00 3.50			
1915. January February March April May June	7.40	9.65 9.65 8.50 8.40	9.00 7.50 7.00 7.00	$14.75 \\ 14.75 \\ 14.25 \\ 13.00 \\ 13.00 \\ 12.75 \\$	8.40 7.80 7.45 7.25	9.55 9.25 8.90 8.25 7.75 7.90	9.30 8.90 8.15 7.90 7.85 7.85	9.35 9.15 8.40 8.00	2.60 2.00 2.00 2.00	3.60 3.60 3.25 3.25	4.50 4.00 4.00 4.75	6.75 6.50 6.75	4.50 4.50 4.50 4.75	7.00 5.50 6.00 6.00	3.50 3.50 3.00 3.00	6.50 5.88 6.00 6.25
JanJune.	6.50	9.65	7.00	14.75	7.25	9.55	7.85	9.60	2.00	3.60	4.00	7.00	4.50	7.00	3.00	7.00
July August September October November December	9.20 8.60		9.00 9.50 9.00 9.00	20.50	7.85 8.85 11.20 11.00	8.15 9.55 12.60 13.10 12.00 12.30	9.35 11.75 11.90	8.25 9.60 11.65 12.40 12.25 12.55	1.90 1.90 2.20 2.10	3.30 3.30 3.60 3.75	4.50 4.50 4.50 5.50	7.25 7.75 7.50 7.75	4.50 5.00 4.75 4.75	7.00 7.50 7.75 7.75	4.75 5.00 3.75 3.00	7.00 7.45 7.42 7.40
July-Dec.	6.50	12.20	7.00	20.50	7.40	13.10	7.70	12.55	1.90	3.75	4.50	8.00	4.50	8.00	3.00	7.50
1916. January February March April. May. June.	8.75 7.75 7.00	11.50 11.25 9.00 8.40	9.00 10.00 7.00 8.00	22.00 20.50 17.00	8.45	13.70 12.75	12.00 10.75 8.75 8.75	12.10 13.25 12.75 10.75 8.85 9.00	2.30 2.00 1.85 1.80	3.30 3.20 3.00 2.80	4.50 4.00 4.00 4.50	8.00 8.00 8.50	4.75	8.50 7.75 7.75 8.50	5.75 3.75 5.00 4.00	7.15 6.50 6.25 7.25
JanJune.	6.50	11.50	6.00	22.00	8.30	13. 70	8.75	13.25	1.80	3.30	4.00	8.50	4.00	8.50	3.75	7.50
July August September October November December	8.00 7.00 7.00 8.50	9.00 9.25 10.00	7.00 6.00 8.00 12.00	16.00 14.75 17.00 18.00		11.10 10.05 10.85 11.15	8.60 8.75 9.50 10.60	9.30 10.75 9.70 10.60 11.00 10.85	1.20 1.20 1.20 1.30	2.50 1.90 2.00 2.15	3.00 3.00 3.00 3.00	5.00 5.50 5.50	4.50 4.35 3.50 3.75	5.00 5.25 5.50 5.50	3.00 3.25 3.00 3.50	5.40 4.65 4.75 4.90
July-Dec	6.50	10.00	6.00	18.00	8.40	11.15	8.60	11.00	1.20	2.80	3.00	7.50	3.50	8.00	3.00	6.80

COTTON.

TABLE 97.—Cotton: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915.

[Bales of 478 pounds, net.]

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915
NORTH AMERICA. United States ¹ Porto Rico	A cres. 37, 089, 000 (²)	A cres. 36, 832, 000 (²)	A cres. 31, 412, 000 (²)	Bales. 14, 156, 000 3 569	Bales. 16, 135, 000 \$ 693	Bales. 11, 192, 000 3 739
Total						
West Indies: British- Bahamas Barbados Grenada Jamaica. Leeward Islands St. Lucia. St. Vincent Trinidad and Tobago. Danish (St. Croix) Dominican Republic Haiti.	(2) (3) (2) (2) (2) (2) (5,444 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) 5,006 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	$\begin{array}{r} 4 \ 23 \\ 8 \ 839 \\ 4 \ 145 \\ 4 \ 2, 574 \\ 4 \ 8 \\ 1,018 \\ 4 \ 15 \\ 4 \ 745 \\ 4 \ 1,140 \\ 4 \ 8,970 \end{array}$	598 4 749 4 67 4 2,637 4 11 958 4 290 4 771 (2)	443 4648 4772 488 42,413 47 4791 (2) (2) (2) (2)
SOUTH AMERICA.					1	
Argentina. Brazil. Chile. Ecuador. Peru.	${6,919} \\ {(^2)} \\ {334} \\ {(^2)} \\ {(^2)} \end{array}$	5,478 (²) (²) (²) (²)	8,154 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) 320,000 740 4 757 4 110,314	(2) 385,000 4 165 4 105,617	(2) 440,000 (2) (2) (2) (2)
EUROPE.						•
Bulgaria Malta	$1,730 \\ 1,012$	$1,730 \\ 1,006$	(2) (2)	(2) 473	⁽²⁾ 411	⁽²⁾ 384
ASIA. India: British ⁶ Native States	22,028,000 1,472,609	25,023,000 1,787,407	24, 595, 000 (²)	3,858,000 (²)	4,239,000 (²)	4,359,000
Total	23,500,609	26, 810, 407			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Ceylon Cyprus Dutch East Indies Indo-China	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	⁴ 28 9,655 18,966 (²)		5,619 (2) (2)
Japanese Empire: Japan Chosen (Korea) Philippine Islands	${ \begin{smallmatrix} 6,178\\141,844\\{\scriptscriptstyle 5}\ 7,544 \end{smallmatrix} }$	5,887 (2) 5 7,544	(2) (2) 57,544	$\begin{array}{r} 4,462\\ 32,787\\ 56,098\end{array}$	4.582 $(^2)$ 56,098	(2) (2) 5 6,098
Russia, Asiatic: Turkestan Transcaucasia	$1,382,743\\310,466$	$1, 442, 757 \\364, 460$	$1,516,980 \\ 269,970$	$953,231 \\ 119,821$	$1,176,477\\132,198$	$1,424,114\\132,649$
Total	1,693,209	1,807,217	1,786,950	1,073,102	1,308,675	1,556,763
Siam	(2)	(2)	(2)	4 6, 411	(2)	(2)
AFRICA.						
British Africa: Northern Rhodesia Nyasaland Protectorate East Africa. Gold Coast Nigeria. Uganda Union of South Africa	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	4 483 4 5,023 4 282 4 19 13,308 23,733 4 68	$ \begin{array}{r} 4475 \\ 5,541 \\ 37 \\ 416 \\ 11,820 \\ 27,461 \\ 487 \\ 487 \end{array} $	4264 46,413 (2) 48 5,642 20,837 243

1 Linters not included. Quantity of linters produced: 638,881 bales in 1913, 856,900 in 1914, and 880,780, Poofficial estimates.
Exports to foreign countries plus shipments to the United States.

4 Exports. 6 Census of 1902.

⁶ Includes Feudatory States.

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COTTON—Continued.

		Area.	1	Production.				
Country.	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915		
Egypt	A cres. 1, 788, 000	A cres. 1,822,000	A cres. 1,231,072	Bales. 1, 588, 000	Bales. 1,425,000	Bales. .*1,349,242		
French Africa: Dahomey Guinea. Ivory Coast	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1\\1\\1\end{pmatrix}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 2 & 790 \\ 2 & 230 \\ 2 & 84 \end{array} $	$^{2}_{2} \begin{array}{c} 621 \\ ^{2}_{1} \begin{array}{c} 168 \\ ^{2}_{3} \begin{array}{c} 339 \end{array}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$		
German Africa: East Africa. Togo. Italian Africa—Eritrea. Sudan (Anglo-Egyptian)	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	(1) (1) (1) (1)	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	² 10, 109 ² 2, 322 ² 751 ² 10, 737	$\binom{1}{\binom{1}{1}}$ $\overset{2}{,378}$ $7,901$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$		
OCEANIA. British: Queensland Solomon Islands	$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\binom{1}{1}$	25 2 24	(1) 14	(¹)		
French: New Caledonia Tahiti	$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1\\1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\binom{(1)}{(1)}$	2 1,109 73	$^{2}_{(1)}^{1,596}$	$^{2}_{(1)}^{2}$ 2, 124		

TABLE 97.—Cotton: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915— Continued.

¹ No official estimates.

² Exports.

TABLE 98.—Cotton: Total production of countries for which estimates were available, . 1900-1910.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1900 1901 1902 1903	Bales. ¹ 15, 893, 591 15, 926, 048 17, 331, 503 17, 278, 881	1904 1905 1906 1907	Balcs. ¹ 21,005,175 18,342,075 22,183,148 18,328,613	1908 1909 1910 1911	Bales.1 23,683,292 20,679,334 22,433,269	1912 1913 1914	Balcs.1

¹ Bales of 478 pounds, net.

TABLE 99.—Cotton: Acreage harvested, by States, 1907-1916.

[Thousands of acres.]

State.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916 1
Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina. Georgia. Florida.	$23 \\ 1,408 \\ 2,485 \\ 4,566 \\ 209$	$28 \\ 1,458 \\ 2,545 \\ 4,848 \\ 265$	$25 \\ 1,359 \\ 2,492 \\ 4,674 \\ 237$	$33 \\ 1,478 \\ 2,534 \\ 4,873 \\ 257$	43 1,624 2,800 5,504 308	$\begin{array}{r} 47 \\ 1, 545 \\ 2, 695 \\ 5, 335 \\ 224 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 47\\ 1,576\\ 2,790\\ 5,318\\ 188\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 45\\ 1,527\\ 2,861\\ 5,433\\ 221 \end{array}$	$\begin{matrix} 34\\1,282\\2,516\\4,825\\193\end{matrix}$	44 1,432 2,834 5,344 197
Alabama. Mississisppi Louisiana. Texas Arkansas.	3.148 3,081 1,540 8,478 1,902	3,591 3,395 1,550 9,316 2,296	3,471 3,291 930 9,660 2,218	3,560 3,317 975 10,060 2,238	4,017 3,340 1,075 10,943 2,363	3,730 2,889 929 11,338 1,991	3,760 3,067 1,244 12,597 2,502	$\begin{array}{r} 4,007\\ 3,054\\ 1,299\\ 11,931\\ 2,480 \end{array}$	$3,340 \\ 2,735 \\ 990 \\ 10,510 \\ 2,170$	3,219 3,114 1,203 11,517 2,635
Tennessee. Missouri. Oklahoma. California. All other.	693 63 2,064	754 87 2,311	735 79 1,767	$765 \\ 100 \\ 2,204 \\ 9$	837 129 3,050 12	$783 \\ 103 \\ 2,665 \\ 9$	$865 \\ 112 \\ 3,009 \\ 14$	$915 \\ 145 \\ 2,847 \\ 47 \\ 20$	772 96 1, 895 39 15	878 132 2, 593 72 25
United States.	29,660	32,411	30,938	32,403	36,045	31,283	37,089	36,832	31, 412	35,239

¹ Preliminary estimate.

COTTON-Continued.

 TABLE 100.—Cotton: Production of lint (excluding linters) in 500-pound gross weight bales, by States, and total value of crop, 1907 to 1916.

[Thousands of bales and dollars. As finally reported by U.S. Bureau of the Census.]

-					-					
State.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916 1
Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina. Georgia. Florida.	$9\\605\\1,119\\1,816\\50$	$12 \\ 647 \\ 1,171 \\ 1,931 \\ 62$	$10 \\ 601 \\ 1,100 \\ 1,804 \\ 54$	157061,1641,76759	30 1,076 1,649 2,769 83	24 866 1,182 1,777 53	23 793 1,378 2,317 59	25 931 1,534 2,718 81	$16 \\ 699 \\ 1,134 \\ 1,909 \\ 48$	29 646 920 1,845 43
Alabama. Mississisppi. Louisiana. Texas. Arkansas.	$1,113 \\ 1,468 \\ 676 \\ 2,300 \\ 775$	1,346 1,656 470 3,815 1,033	$1,024 \\ 1,083 \\ 253 \\ 2,523 \\ 714$	$1,194 \\ 1,263 \\ 246 \\ 3,049 \\ 821$	$1,716 \\ 1,204 \\ 385 \\ 4,256 \\ 939$	1,342 1,046 376 4,880 792	1,495 1,311 444 3,945 1,073	$1,751 \\ 1,246 \\ 449 \\ 4,592 \\ 1,016$	1,021 954 341 3,227 816	525 800 440 3,775 1,145
Tennessee. Missouri Oklahoma. All other.	$275 \\ 36 \\ 862 \\ 3$	344 62 691 2	$247 \\ 45 \\ 545 \\ 2$	$332 \\ 60 \\ 923 \\ 10$	450 97 1,022 17	277 56 1,021 11	$379 \\ 67 \\ 840 \\ 32$	$384 \\ 82 \\ 1,262 \\ 64$	303 48 640 36	378 62 835 68
United States.	11,107	13,242	10,005	11,609	15,693	13,703	14,156	16,135	11,192	11, 511
Total value of crop	\$613,630	\$588,810	\$688,350	\$809,710	\$749,890	\$786,800	\$885,350	\$591,130	\$627,940	

¹ Preliminary estimate.

 TABLE 101.—Cotton: Condition of crop, United States, monthly, 1895–1916.

[Prior to 1901 figures of condition relate to first of month following dates indicated.]

Year.	May 25.	June 25.	July 25.	Aug. 25.	Sept. 25.	Year.	May 25.	Juno 25.	July 25.	Aug. 25.	Sept. 25.
1007	P. ct.	P. ct. 82, 3	P. ct. 77.9	P. ct. 70.8	P. ct. 65. 1	1000	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct. 82, 9	P. ct.	P. ct.
1895 1896	$81.0 \\ 97.2 \\ 83.5$	92.5	80.1 86.9	64.2 78.3	60.7 70.0	1906 1907	84.6 70.5 79.7	83.3 72.0 81.2	75.0	77.3 72.7	71.6
1897 1898	89.0 85.7	86.0 91.2 87.8	91. 2 84. 0	79.8 68.5	75.4 62.4	1908 1909 1910	81.1 82.0	74.6 80.7	83.0 71.9 75.5	$76.1 \\ 63.7 \\ 72.1$	69.7 58.5 65.9
1899 1900 1901	82.5 81.5	75.8 81.1	76.0 77.2	68.2 71.4	67.0 61.4	1910 1911 1912	87.8 78.9	80. 4 88. 2 80. 4	75.5 89.1 76.5	73.2 74.8	55.9 71.1 69.6
1901 1902 1903	95.1 74.1	84.7 77.1	81. 9 79. 7	64.0 81.2	58.3 65.1	1913 1914	79.1 74.3	81.8 79.6	79.6 76.4	68.2 78.0	64.1 73.5
1904 1905	83.0 77.2	88.0 77.0	91.6 74.9	84.1 72.1	75.8 71.2	1915 1916	80.0 77.5	80.3 81.1	75.3	69.2 61.2	60. 8 56. 3

TABLE 102 .- Cotton: Yield per acre, price per pound Dec. 1, and value per acre, by States.

		Yield per acre (pounds of lint).													Farm price per pound (cents).				
State.	10-year average, 1907-1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916 2	10-year average, 1907-1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year average, 1911-1915.	1916
Va N. C S. C Ga Fla	243 244 221 194 124	$190 \\ 205 \\ 215 \\ 190 \\ 115$	$ \begin{array}{c c} 211 \\ 219 \\ 190 \end{array} $	210 210 184	227 216 173	240	267 209	208	290 255 239	260 215 189	215 155 165	11.8 11.9 12.0	12.2 12.4 12.4	13.1 12.6 12.7 12.8 17.0	6, 9 6, 9 6, 9	$11.2 \\ 11.3 \\ 11.4$	19.4 19.6 19.9	21.15	
Ala Miss La Tex Ark	183 164 163	169 228 210 130 195	233 145 196	125	182 120 145	172 170 186		$190 \\ 204 \\ 170 \\ 150 \\ 205$	195 165 184	167 165 147	123 175 157	$12.1 \\ 11.6 \\ 11.5$	12.3 11.5 11.5	$\begin{array}{c} 12.7\\ 12.6\\ 11.7\\ 11.5\\ 11.6 \end{array}$	6.8 6.9 6.8	11.5 11.2 11.1	20.5 19.1 19.4		26. 24 33. 42 30. 46
Tenn Mo Okla Cal	$200 \\ 281 \\ 169 \\ 422$	190 275 200	340	158 271 147	207 285 200 335	257 360 160 390	$169 \\ 260 \\ 183 \\ 450$	210 286 132 500	270 212	240 162	225 154	$11.4 \\ 11.2$	$11.3 \\ 11.3$	$12.7 \\ 11.5 \\ 11.4 \\ 13.0$	6.5	$11.0 \\ 11.3$	19.0 19.0	$\begin{array}{c} 20.\ 86\\ 27.\ 58\\ 16.\ 12\\ 45.\ 61 \end{array}$	42.75 29.20
U.S.	181.5	178.3	194.9	154.3	170.7	207.7	190. 9	182.0	209. 2	170.3	156.3	11.8	11.9	12.2	6.8	11.3	19.6	19.36	30. 64

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

² Preliminary.

Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

COTTON-Continued.

TABLE 103.—Cotton: Farm price per pound on first of each month, by geographical divisions, 1915 and 1916.

Month.	United States.		South Atlantic States.		N. Cent. States west of Miss. R.		South Central States.		Far Western States.	
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
January. February March April Jíay June	$ \begin{array}{r} 11.5 \\ 11.1 \\ 11.5 \\ \end{array} $	Cts. 6.6 7.4 7.4 8.1 9.1 8.6	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 11.5 \\ 11.5 \\ 11.1 \\ 11.6 \\ 11.6 \\ 12.3 \end{array}$	Cts. 6.7 7.6 7.5 8.3 9.4 8.9	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 10.7 \\ 11.2 \\ 9.0 \\ 10.6 \\ 11.2 \\ 11.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 6.2 \\ 6.9 \\ 7.1 \\ 7.0 \\ 8.0 \\ 8.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cis. \\ 11.4 \\ 11.5 \\ 11.1 \\ 11.5 \\ 11.4 \\ 11.4 \\ 12.2 \end{array}$	Cts. 6.5 7.3 7.4 8.0 9.0 8.5	Cts.	Cts. 10.0 8.6 7.0 9.1
July. August September October. November December.	$12.6 \\ 14.6 \\ 15.5$	$\begin{array}{r} 8.6 \\ 8.1 \\ 8.5 \\ 11.2 \\ 11.6 \\ 11.3 \end{array}$	$12.6 \\ 12.8 \\ 14.8 \\ 15.6 \\ 18.4 \\ 19.9$	8.7 8.2 8.6 11.5 11.9 11.4	11. 1 12. 2 12. 0 18. 0 19. 0	8.0 8.2 8.5 10.8 11.8 11.0	$12.4 \\ 12.5 \\ 14.6 \\ 15.5 \\ 17.8 \\ 19.5$	$8.5 \\ 8.0 \\ 8.5 \\ 11.1 \\ 11.7 \\ 11.2$	20.0	7.0

TABLE 104. - Cotton: Closing price of middling upland per pound, 1912-1916.

	New	York.	New O	rleans.	Men	aphis.	Galv	eston.	Sava	nnah.	Charl	eston.
Date.	Low.	Πigh.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	9.35 10.75	12.00 13.40	$9\frac{5}{16}$ $10\frac{11}{16}$	$12\frac{1}{4}$ $13\frac{1}{4}$	$9^{\frac{7}{16}}$ 11	$12\frac{1}{8}$ $13\frac{1}{4}$	93 107	$12\frac{1}{8}$ $13\frac{5}{16}$	88 1019	$12 \\ 12\frac{3}{4}$	83 11	11-9 12-3
1913. JanJune July-Dec	$11.70 \\ 11.90$	$13.40 \\ 14.50$	12 <u>1</u> 117	13 14	$\frac{12}{11\frac{3}{4}}$	$13\frac{1}{2}$ $13\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{12}{11\frac{3}{4}}$	13 14 3	$11\frac{7}{8}$ $11\frac{1}{4}$	$12\frac{3}{4}$ $14\frac{1}{8}$	$11\frac{3}{12\frac{3}{8}}$	125 137
1914. JanJune July-Dec	12.30 7.25	14.50 13.25	125 61	$13\frac{15}{16}$ $13\frac{9}{16}$	$\begin{array}{c}13\\6\frac{1}{2}\end{array}$	133 133	$12\frac{1}{2}$ $6\frac{5}{8}$	$14 \\ 13\frac{5}{8}$	$12\frac{3}{6\frac{1}{2}}$	137 137	$12\frac{1}{4}$ $6\frac{1}{2}$	13 <u>1</u> 8 <u>1</u>
1915. Januery February March April. May June	7.90 8.35 8.25 9.80 9.50 9.45	8.70 8.70 9.65 10.60 10.40 9.85	73 7.75 7.75 9.06 9.00 9.00	$ \begin{array}{r} 8\frac{1}{8}\\ 8\frac{3}{15}\\ 9.06\\ 9.68\\ 9.43\\ 9.38 \end{array} $	71 7.76 7.88 8.87 9.12 8.75	812 8 8.87 9.50 9.50 9.12	7 3 8.30 8.25 9.35 9.00 8.95	87 82 9.35 10.10 10.00 9.35	$7\frac{3}{8}$ 8 $8\frac{7}{9\frac{1}{4}}$ $8\frac{1}{16}$	8 8 8 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	71 73 73 73 8 7 8 9	88940000 889400000 9999
JanJune	7.90	10.60	73	9.68	$7^1_{ m S}$	9.50	73	10.10	$7\frac{3}{8}$	93	71	9§
July. August September October November December	$\begin{array}{r} 8.90\\ 9.20\\ 9.75\\ 11.85\\ 11.60\\ 11.95\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 9.60\\ 9.85\\ 12.40\\ 12.75\\ 12.50\\ 12.75\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 8.50 \\ 8.69 \\ 9.31 \\ 11.75 \\ 11.25 \\ 11.69 \end{array}$	9.00 9.38 11.75 12.13 12.00 12.13	8.62 8.75 9.25 11.75 11.38 11.75	8.82 9.25 11.75 12.25 11.88 12.25	8.50 8.75 9.50 11.75 11.50 12.00	9.00 9.50 11.90 12.45 12.40 12.60	$\begin{array}{r} 8\frac{1}{2} \\ 8\frac{5}{2} \\ 9\frac{5}{5} \\ 11\frac{1}{2} \\ 11\frac{1}{2} \\ 12 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 8\frac{1}{12}\\9\\115\\12\\12\\12\\12\\12\\12\\12\\12\\12\\12\\12\\12\\12\\$	$9 \\ 11\frac{1}{2} \\ 11\frac{1}{2} \\ 11\frac{1}{3} \\ 11\frac{3}{4} \\ $	8½ 115 12 12 12 12
July-Dec	8.90	12.75	8.50	12.13	8.62	12.25	8.50	12.60	Sğ	$12\frac{1}{2}$	9	12
1916. January February March April May June	11. 80 11. 20 11. 45 11. 95 12. 30 12. 65	$12.60 \\ 12.15 \\ 12.15 \\ 12.20 \\ 13.35 \\ 13.45$	$11.75 \\ 11.13 \\ 11.13 \\ 11.88 \\ 12.00 \\ 12.63$	$12.19 \\ 11.62 \\ 12.00 \\ 11.88 \\ 12.91 \\ 13.06$	12.00 11.38 11.38 12.00 12.12 13.00	12.38 12.00 12.00 12.00 13.00 13.25	$12.05 \\ 11.45 \\ 11.60 \\ 12.20 \\ 12.40 \\ 12.95$	12.50 12.10 12.35 12.35 13.30 13.75	$12\\11\frac{1}{2}\\11\frac{1}{2}\\11\frac{7}{5}\\12\\12\frac{5}{5}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 13 \\ 13 \\ \end{array} $	115 11 11 115 114 125	12 1155 1114 124 124
JanJune	11.20	13.45	11.13	13.06	11.38	13.25	11.45	13.75	$11\frac{1}{2}$	13	11	123
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{c} 12,90\\ 13,35\\ 15,15\\ 16,60\\ 18,75\\ 16,20\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13,30\\ 16,40\\ 16,30\\ 19,30\\ 20,95\\ 20,30 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.\ 00\\ 13.\ 13\\ 14.\ 69\\ 16.\ 06\\ 18.\ 13\\ 17.\ 25\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13, 13 \\ 15, 63 \\ 15, 63 \\ 18, 75 \\ 20, 38 \\ 20, 25 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.\ 12\\ 13.\ 37\\ 15.\ 15\\ 16.\ 00\\ 18.\ 75\\ 18.\ 00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.\ 25\\ 15.\ 75\\ 15.\ 75\\ 18.\ 75\\ 20.\ 50\\ 20.\ 50\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.65\\ 13.75\\ 15.05\\ 16.25\\ 18.60\\ 17.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.\ 75\\ 16.\ 00\\ 16.\ 00\\ 18.\ 90\\ 20.\ 85\\ 20.\ 40 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 13 \\ 13 \\ 143 \\ 165 \\ 183 \\ 184 \\ 184 \\ \end{array} $	13 153 153 19 208 201	$12\frac{8}{13}\\14\frac{1}{16}\\18\frac{1}{19\frac{1}{2}}$	123 155 155 183 204 205
July-Dec	12.90	20, 95	13.00	20.38	13.12	20.50	13.65	20.85	13	20§	12§	20]

COTTON-Continued.

TABLE 105.—Cotton: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[Expressed in bales of 500 pounds gross weight, or 478 pounds net. The figures for cotton refer to ginned and unginned cotton and linters, but not to mill waste, cotton batting, scarto (Egypt and Sudan). Wherever unginned cotton has been separately stated in the original reports it has been roduced to ginned cotton in this statement at the ratio of 3 pounds unginned to 1 pound ginned. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.),
Belgium. Brazil British India. China. Egypt. France. Germany.	Bales. 298 173 2,223 206 1,445 267 243	Bales. 140 2,791 188 1,225 209	Bales. 24 2,103 202 1,430 41	Netherlands Persia ¹ Peru United States Other countries Total	Bales. 150 117 110 9,376 234 14,842	Bales. 111 105 106 6,873 111 11,859	Bales. 190

IMPORTS.

Austria-Hungary Belgium Canada France. Germany Italy. Japan. Mexico. Netherlands	647 166 1,518 2,404 931	152 949 879 1,705 245	197 1,055 1,343 2,015 365	Russia Spain Sweden Switzerland United Kingdom United States Other countries Total.	908 407 99 126 4,010 220 339 14,886	801 389 107 101 3,447 332 287 9,394	244 660 580 147 4, 820 424
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¹ Year beginning Mar. 21.

COTTONSEED OIL.

TABLE 106.—Cottonseed oil: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).
Belgium. China. Egypt. France. Netherlands	Gallons. 1,014 1,182 619 271 31	Gallons. 2,261 491 135 143	Gallons. 2,303 1,253 160 4,265	United Kingdom United States Other countries 'Total	Gallons. 7, 626 35, 304 59 46, 106	Gallons. 8, 213 28, 841 315 40, 399	Gallons. 7,827 47,016

IMPORTS.

Algeria Australia Austra-Hungary Belgium Brazil Canada Egypt France Germany Italy Maita 2. Martinique	$175 \\ 16 \\ 2,005 \\ 440 \\ 4,104 \\ 118 \\ 2,604 \\ 4,786 \\ 3,957 \\ 278 \\ 2$	189 383 4,079 74 1,410 702 285	377 4,083 3 3,547 472 320	Mexico. Netherlands. Norway. Roymania. Senegal. Serbia ⁸ Sweden. United Kingdom Other countries Total.	702	6, 438 1, 912 910 6, 193 5, 410 28, 015	3, 520
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1 Data for 1912

³ Year beginning Apr. 1.

8 Data for 1911.

TOBACCO.

TABLE 107.-Tobacco: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915.

C		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915
NORTH AMERICA. United States Porto Rico	A cres. 1, 216, 100 17, 808	A cres. 1, 223, 500 18, 040	A cres. 1,369,900 (¹)	Pounds. 953, 734, 000 3 9, 244, 490	Pounds. 1,034,679,000 3 9,285,333	Pounds. 1,062,237,000 (1)
Canada: Ontario Quebec	6,000 5,000	5,000 4,750	4,500 4,500	8,000,000 4,500,000	6,000,000 5,000,000	4, 950, 000 4, 050, 000
Total	11,000	9,750	9,000	12,500,000	11,000,000	9,000,000
Costa Rica Cuba. Dominican Republic Guatemala Jamaica. Mexico. SOUTH AMERICA.	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	2,734 (1) (1) (1) (1) (1,236 (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	000000	(1)73,087,80028,000,000(1)(1)(1)(1)	(1) 80,770,080 28,169,253 (1) (1) (1) (1)	(1) 50,077,920 8,050,000 (1) (1) (1) (1)
Argentina. Brazil. Chile. Uruguay.	23,860 (¹) 3,430 4,159	36, 744 (1) (1) 2, 503	37,955 (1) (1) (1) (1)	(¹) ² 64, 788, 421 8, 523, 645 3, 062, 062	(1) 2 59, 481, 096 6, 282, 228 1, 737, 805	(1) 259,734,874 (1) (1)
EUROPE. Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary. Croatia-Slavonia Bosnia-Herzegovina.	8, 263 117, 429 190 (¹)	4 4, 262 (1) (1) (1) (1)	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	$13, 692, 771 \\105, 489, 669 \\106, 703 \\13, 227, 600$	4 6, 908, 555 (1) (1) (1) (1)	(1) (4) (1) (1)
Total				132, 516, 743		
Belgium Bulgaria Denmark France Germany. Italy. Netherlands Roumania	9,94117,297(1)38,90634,99618,0601,14927,122	10, 309 (¹) (¹) 38, 135 25, 587 18, 038 929 27, 070	$(1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 22,313 \\ 18,532 \\ 860 \\ 32,232 \\ (1)$	19, 702, 290 13, 227, 600 (1) 57, 324, 891 56, 953, 423 18, 739, 100 (1) 20, 941, 275	(1) 33,069,000 (1) 53,291,796 50,191,866 20,943,700 (1) 16,970,129	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) 18,566,921
Russia: Russia proper. Poland Northern Caucasia. Serbia	95,588 20,731 (¹)	95,324 31,254 (¹) (¹)	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	180, 877, 567 21, 111, 362 (¹⁾ 1, 746, 043	147, 744, 290 33, 978, 353 (¹)	(1) (1) (1) (1)
Sweden. Switzerland	(1) 791	⁽¹⁾ 618	(¹) 618	1,746,043 1,327,169	1, 444, 013 815, 702	947, 978
• ASIA. India: British Native States	964, 726 68, 717	1,001,710 36,546	(1) (1)		(1) (1)	(1) (1)
Total	1,033,443	1,038,256				
British North Borneo Ceylon	(1) 12,968	(1) (1)		3, 621, 754 2 4, 273, 136	(1) (1)	$\binom{1}{1}$
Dutch East Indies: Java and Madura Sumatra, East Coast	413, 185	391,636	(1)	2 134, 017, 760	² 108, 979, 540	(1)
of. Japanese Empire:	(1)	(1)	(1)	43, 944, 757	46, 632, 068	(1)
Japan Formosa Chosen Pallippine Islands. Pusta, Asiatic.	$77, 176 \\ 839 \\ 48, 135 \\ 170, 477 \\ 37, 993$	88, 670 (¹) (¹) 150, 459 57, 960	75,479 (1) (1) 131,808 (1)	$\begin{array}{c} 111, 955, 049\\ 959, 477\\ 31, 357, 538\\ 101, 544, 736\\ 31, 462, 230\\ \end{array}$	126, 206, 328 (1) (1) 103, 024, 183 42, 950, 903	105, 820, 800 (1) (1) 84, 442, 714 (1)
AFRICA.					1	
Algeria Tunis Nyasland Rhodesia Union of South Africa	(1) (1) 10,499 5,000 5 19,364	$ \begin{array}{c} (^{1}) \\ 297 \\ (^{1}) \\ (^{1}) \\ 5 19,364 \end{array} $	(1) 314 (1) (1) 5 19, 364	(1) 2 3, 763, 014 3, 000, 000	(1) 376, 325 (1) (1) (1) (1)	
OCEANIA. Australia. Fiji	2, 745 144	3,007 (¹)	(1) (1)	1, 869, 392 81, 312	2,599,408 (¹)	83

¹ No official statistics. ² Exports.

^a Exports year beginning July 1.
 ⁴ Excluding Galicia and Bukowina.

5 Census of 1911.

Statistics of Tobacco.

TOBACCO-Continued.

 TABLE 108.—Tobacco: Total production of countries for which estimates were available, 1900-1911.¹

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1900 1901 1902 1903	Pounds. 2, 201, 193, 000 2, 270, 213, 000 2, 376, 054, 000 2, 401, 268, 000	1904 1905 1906 1907	Pounds. 2, 146, 641, 000 2, 279, 728, 000 2, 270, 298, 000 2, 391, 061, 000	1908 1909 1910 1911	Pounds. 2, 382, 601, 000 2, 742, 500, 000 2, 833, 729, 000 2, 566, 202, 000	1913 1914	Pounds.

¹ Data for 1911 not strictly comparable with earlier years.

 TABLE 109.—Tobacco: Acreage, production, value, condition, etc., in the United States, 1849-1916.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of acres are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available.

Year.	Acre- age	Aver- age	Produc-	Aver- age farm	Farm value Dec. 1	Domestic exports of unmanu- factured.	Imports of un- manufac- tured.	Cor	ndition cr	of gro op.	wing
I car.	(000 omit- ted).	yield per acre.	tion (000 omitted).	price per pound Dec. 1.	(000 omit- ted).	fiscal year beginning July 1.	fiscal year beginning July 1.	July 1.	Aug. 1.	Sept. 1.	When har- vested.
	Acres.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Cts.		Pounds.				P.cl.	P. ct.
1849 1859			199,753 434,209							•••••	
1869			262.735								
1879	639	739.7	472,661								
1889	695	702.5	488,251								
1899	1,101	788.5	868,113								
1900	1,046	778.0	814, 345	6.6	52 661	315,787,782	26,851,253	88.5	82.9	77.5	76.1
1901	1,039	788.0	818,953		58 283	301,007,365	29,428,837	86.5	72.1	78.2	81.5
1902	1,031	797.3	821, 824	7.0	57 564	368, 184, 084	34,016,956		81.2	81.5	84.1
1903	1,038	786.3	815,972	6.8		311, 971, 831			82.9		82.3
1904	806	819.0	660,461	8.1		334, 302, 091			83.9	83.7	85.6
1905	776	815.6	633,034	8.5	53, 519	312, 227, 202	41, 125, 970	87.4	84.1	85.1	85.8
1906	796	857.2	682, 429	10.0	63,233	340, 742, 864	40,898,807	86.7	87.2	86.2	84.6
1907	821	850.5	698, 126	10.2	71,411	330, 812, 658	35,005,131		82.8	82.5	84.8
1908	875	820.2	718,061	10.3	74,130	287,900,946	43, 123, 196	86.6	85.8	84.3	84.1
1909 <i>1909</i>	1,180	804.3 815.3	949,357	10.1	100 500	227 102 074	40.000.000				
	1,295		1,055,765			357, 196, 074			83.4	80.2	81. 3
19101	1,366	807.7	1,103,415	9.3	102, 142	355, 327, 072	48,203,288		78.5	77.7	80. 2
1911	1,013	893.7	905, 109	9.4	85,210	379, 845, 320			68.0	71.1	80.5
1 912 1913	1,226	785.5 784.3	962,855	10.8	104,063	418, 796, 906		87.7	82.8	81.1	81.8
1913	1,216 1,224	784. 3 845. 7	953,734 1,034,679	12.8 9.8	101 411	449,749,982 348,346,091	61, 174, 751 45, 764, 728	82.8 66.0	78.3 66.5	74.5	76.6 81.8
1915	1,370	775.4	1,062,237	9.1		441, 569, 581			79.7	80.7	81.8
1916	1,412	815.0						87.6		85.5	

¹ Figures adjusted to census basis.

TABLE 110.-Tobacco: Acreage, production, and total farm value, by States, 1916.

State.	Acreage.	Production.	Farm value Dec. 1.	State.	Acreage.	Production.	Farm value Dec. 1.
New Hamp Vermont Mass Connecticut New York	A cres. 100 100 7, 300 22, 200 3, 700	Pounds. 165,000 160,000 12,118,000 36,186,000 4,551,000	Dollars. 28,000 30,000 3,030,000 9,770,000 592,000	Ohio Indiana Illinois Wisconsin Missouri	11,800 700	Pounds. 95,000,000 13,764,000 525,000 55,753,000 3,040,000	Dollars. 12, 350, 000 1, 789, 000 52, 000 6, 969, 000 456, 000
Pennsylvania Maryland Virginia West Virginia	36,100 25,500 190,000 14,100	49,096,000 19,635,000 129,200,000 12,690,000	6,972,000 3,142,000 18,863,000 1,904,000	Kentucky Tennessee Alabama Louisiana	102,200	$\begin{array}{r} 435,600,000\\ 81,760,000\\ 60,000\\ 90,000\end{array}$	$55, 321, 000 \\ 8, 258, 000 \\ 18, 000 \\ 25, 000$
N. Carolina S. Carolina Georgia Florida	320,000 39,000 1,300 2,500	$\begin{array}{c} 176,000,000\\ 20,280,000\\ 1,534,000\\ 3,025,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 35,200,000\\ 2,839,000\\ 414,000\\ 908,000 \end{array}$	Texas. Arkansas U. S	200 500 1, 411, 800	140,000 250,000 1,150,622,000	28,000 50,000 169,008,000

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TOBACCO-Continued.

TABLE 111. - Tobacco: Yield per acre, price per pound December 1, and value per acre, by States.

				Yield	Yield per acre (pounds)	cre (pc	ounds).					Fai	m pric	e per l	punoc	Farm price per pound (cents)		Value (doll	Value per acre (dollars). ¹
1 1 8	10-year average 1907- 1916.	1907	1908	1909	1910 1	1101	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	10-ycar average 1907- 1916.	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	5-year average 1911- 1915.	1916
	$1,674 \\1,674 \\1,592 \\1,620 \\1,620 \\1,213 \\1,213 \\1$	650 525 150 1,50 1,50 1,50 1,50 1,50 1,50 1,50	1, 800 1, 735 1, 1, 650 1, 1, 175 1, 175 1, 175 1, 175	$\begin{array}{c c} 1, 570 \\ 1, 675 \\ 1, 650 \\ 1, 175 \\ 1, $	720 1, 720 1, 730 1, 730 1, 730 1,	$\begin{array}{c} 1,700\\ 1,700\\ 1,650\\ 1,625\\ 1,330\\ 1,330\\ 1\end{array}$	1,700 1,700 1,700 1,700 1,700 1,700 1,700	650 550 020	$1,770 \\ 1,770 \\ 1,770 \\ 1,300 \\ 1,300 \\ 1,300 \\ 1,1,770 \\ 1,300 \\ 1,1,300 \\ 1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1$	1,200 1,200	1,650 1,660 1,660 1,230	15.6 15.5 17.8 19.0 10.2	18.5 18.5 23.9 23.1 12.6	$\begin{array}{c} 18.0\\ 18.0\\ 21.0\\ 21.0\\ 12.2\end{array}$	18.0 11.7 11.7 12.0	12.0 11.0 14.5 17.0 9.5	$\begin{array}{c} 17.0\\ 19.0\\ 25.0\\ 27.0\\ 13.0\end{array}$	274.02 262.90 306.21 325.05 139.31	280.50 301.00 415.00 440.10 159.90
	1,330 720 738 632 632	$^{+,260}_{-,260}$ $^{+,260}_{-,100}$ $^{+,200}_{-,250}$ $^{+,200}_{-$	325 700 815 670 670	985 1, 710 875 875 600	, 500 , 500 780 640 640 600	,420 1 735 800 750 710	1, 450 660 760 620 620	, 200 740 650 670 670	, 450 800 820 820 850 850	$\begin{smallmatrix} 1,350\\740\\870\\870\\620 \end{smallmatrix}$	1,360 770 680 900 550	9.4 8.7 11.6 11.4 13.0	$^{8.5}_{8.0}$ $^{8.0}_{11.0}$ $^{11.0}_{11.0}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.5\\ 9.3\\ 13.9\\ 12.0\\ 18.5\end{array}$	$^{8.5}_{9.0}$	9.2 9.4 10.0 11.2	$\begin{array}{c} 14.\ 2\\ 16.\ 0\\ 15.\ 0\\ 20.\ 0\end{array}$	119. 12 60. 73 80. 48 89. 94	193, 12 123, 20 99, 28 135, 00 110, 00
	730 920 865 865	900 860 910 940	865 975 990 670 700	800 710 925 950	630 680 810 880 880	810 940 925 910	700 820 11 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	760 750 750	, 000 900 900	580 880 910 840 840	$\begin{array}{c} 520\\ 1,180\\ 1,210\\ 950\\ 930\end{array}$	10.5 29.3 9.9	$ \begin{array}{c} 10.9 \\ 30.0 \\ 30.1 \\ 9.1 \\ 9.0 \\ \end{array} $	13.8 31.0 31.0 11.4 11.0	$\begin{array}{c} 9.7\\ 25.0\\ 30.0\\ 8.8\\ 9.0\\ 9.0\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.0\\ 23.0\\ 9.0\\ 7.3\\ 7.3\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 14.0\\27.0\\30.0\\13.0\\13.0\end{array}$	78.93 252.68 266.90 79.94 73.56	72.80 318.60 363.00 123.50 120.90
-	1, 153 1, 153 914 839 765	800 825 890 800 800	755 755 875 815 800 800	750 885 730 730	790 ,050 ,050 ,810 760	250 800 1 810 810	1,290 1,000 1,000 660	, 180 180 720 720	$^{780}_{200}$	850 900 810 750	$\substack{1,\ 270\\950\\800\\800}$	9.8 9.5 8.9 8.3	$\begin{array}{c} 9.0\\ 11.0\\ 12.0\\ 8.7\\ 7.1\end{array}$	$11.5 \\ 12.0 \\ 12.7 \\ 8.4 \\ 8.4$	12.0 11.0 13.0 8.4 7.5	9.0 12.0 6.3 6.3	$10.0 \\ 12.5 \\ 12.7 \\ 10.1 \\ $	75.50 118.46 112.51 70.25 56.99	75.00 158.75 142.50 114.30 80.80
	565 477 648 604	450 350 700 570	450 850 800 610	600 550 600 600	500 550 650 650	700 450 650 600	750 700 650	700 450 650	700 400 580 610	$500 \\ 500 \\ 500 \\ 600 $	300 700 500	26.4 30.1 23.4 16.1	$\begin{array}{c} 35.0\\ 30.0\\ 17.5\\ 18.0\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 25.0\\ 25.0\\ 22.0\\ 16.4\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 28.0\\ 35.0\\ 21.0\\ 18.0\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 22.0\\ 30.0\\ 27.0\\ 17.0\end{array}$	20.00 20.00 20.00	$\begin{array}{c} 183.70\\ 121.60\\ 128.26\\ 101.48\end{array}$	90.00 126.00 140.00 100.00
	818.2	850. 5 8	820.2 8	804.3 80	807.7 89	893.7	785.5 7	784.3	845.7	775.4	815.0	10.6	10.8	12.8	9.8	9.1	14.7	84.58	113.71

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1.

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TOBACCO-Continued.

Type and district.	(thou	Acreage thousands of acres).		Yield per acre (pounds).		iction sands inds).	farm per p De		Total farm value (thou- sands of dollars). ¹		
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	
I. CIGAR TYPES.											
New England New York Pennsylvania Ohio—Miami Valley Wisconsin. Georgia and Florida.	$\begin{array}{c} 29.\ 7\\ 3.\ 7\\ 26.\ 1\\ 60.\ 0\\ 43.\ 9\\ 3.\ 8\end{array}$	4.4 31.4 60.3 41.0	$1,230 \\ 1,360$	1,200 1,350 900 900	49,096 58,200 55,753	5,280 42,390 54,270 36,900	13.0 14.2 12.0 12.5	9.5 9.2 9.0 6.0	12,858 592 6,972 6,984 6,969 1,322	502 3,900 4,884 2,214	
II. CHEWING, SMOKING, SNUFF, AND EXPORT TYPES.											
Burley district Dark districts of Kentucky and Ten-	265.0	244.2	970	890	257, 050	217, 338	15.5	9.5	39, 843	20, 647	
nessee: Paducah district Henderson or stemming district One-Sucker district Clarksville and Hopkinsville dis-	$100. 0 \\ 107. 0 \\ 48. 0$	95.0	780 890 870		78,000 95,230 41,760	70,680	10.0	6.0	7,644 9,523 4,176	4,240	
trict	125. 0 12. 0 65. 6	12.0		850		10,200	14.0	8.0	10, 665 1, 159 5, 594	816	
Old belt—Virginia and North Caro- lina. New belt—Eastern North Carolina	240.0	255.0	570	640	136, 800	163, 200	18.9	10. 5	25, 855	17, 136	
and South Carolina	30.0 .2	.3	780 450	760		18,164	15.6 28.0	8.5		1,514	

TABLE 112.— Tobacco: Acreage, production, and farm value, by types and districts, 1915 and 1916.

¹ Based upon farm price Dec. 1

TABLE 113.— Tobacco: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1916.

Date.	leaf, sto comm	nnati, plug, ck, ion to red.	Hopkinsville, leaf, common to fine.		leaf (E dark	wille, Burley, red), mon ood.	le: com	sville, af, mon ìne.	Richmond, leuf, smokers, common to good. ³		Baltimore, leaf (Maryland), medium to fine red.	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. Jan.–June July- Dec	Cents. 6.00 5.00	Cents. 13.00 14.00	Cents. 8.00 9.00	<i>Cents.</i> 16.00 16.00	<i>Cents.</i> 7.50 7.00	<i>Cents.</i> 12.00 13.00	Cents. 9.50 9.50	Cents. 15.00 15.00	<i>Cents.</i> 6.00 6.00	<i>Cents.</i> 12.00 12.00	<i>Cents.</i> 8.50 8.50	<i>Cents.</i> 13.00 15.00
1913. JanJune July-Dec	5. 50 5. 50	13. 75 13. 75	1 7.00 1 8.75	$14.00 \\ 14.00$	7.00 9.00	14.00 16.00	9.00 8.50	$14.00 \\ 15.00$	6.00 7.00	$16.00 \\ 16.00$	8. 50 8. 50	$15.00 \\ 15.00$
1914. JanJune July-Dec	5.50 5.50	$14.00 \\ 13.00$	¹ 8.00 1 7.50	$14.00 \\ 14.00$	9.00 9.00	16.00 16.00	9.50 7.50	$16.00 \\ 16.00$	7.00 7.00	20. 00 20. 00	8.50 8.00	15.00 15.00
1915. January February March April May June	6.00 6.00 6.00 6.00 6.00 6.00 6.00	$\begin{array}{c} 13.\ 00\\ 13.\ 00\\ 13.\ 00\\ 13.\ 00\\ 13.\ 00\\ 13.\ 00\\ 13.\ 00\\ \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 2 4, 00 \\ 5. 00 \\ 5. 00 \\ 5. 50 $	$\begin{array}{c} 12.\ 50\\ 12.\ 50\\ 12.\ 00\\ 12.\ 25\\ 11.\ 50\\ 10.\ 50\\ \end{array}$	9.00 9.00 9.00 8.00 8.00 8.00 8.00	$\begin{array}{c} 14.\ 00\\ 14.\ 00\\ 14.\ 00\\ 14.\ 00\\ 14.\ 00\\ 14.\ 00\\ 14.\ 00\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.\ 00\\ 13.\ 00\\ 13.\ 00\\ 12.\ 00\\ 12.\ 00\\ 12.\ 00\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.\ 00\\ 7.\ 00\\ 7.\ 00\\ 7.\ 00\\ 7.\ 00\\ 7.\ 00\\ 7.\ 00\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 20.\ 00\\ 20.\ 00\\ 20.\ 00\\ 20.\ 00\\ 20.\ 00\\ 20.\ 00\\ 20.\ 00 \end{array}$	8, 00 8, 00 8, 00 8, 00 8, 00 8, 00	$\begin{array}{c} 13.00\\ 13.00\\ 13.00\\ 13.00\\ 13.00\\ 13.00\\ 13.00\\ 13.00\end{array}$
JanJune	6.00	13.00	4.00	12.50	8.00	14.00	6.00	13, 00	7.00	20.00	8.00	13.00

¹ Common to good, February to November, inclusive.
 ² All grades, January to November, inclusive.
 ³ Brights, smokers, common to fine 1913 to 1916, inclusive.

TOBACCO-Continued.

TABLE 113.—Tobacco: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1916—Continued.

					-		,					
Date.	sto comm	nnati, plug, ck, ion to red.	to to fine		Louisville, leaf (Burley, dark red), common to good.		Clarksville, leaf, common to fine.		Richmond, leaf, smokers, common to good. ²		Baltimore, leaf (Maryland), medium to fine red.	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1915. July August. September October November July-Dec 1916. January February March April May June June June June July August. September October	$\begin{array}{c} Cents.\\ 6,00\\ 6,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 5,00\\ 7,50\\ 5,00\\ 7,50\\ 9,00\\ 9,00\\ 9,00\\ 9,00\\ 9,00\\ 9,00\\ \end{array}$	Cents. 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 14.00 17.00 17.00 17.00			$\begin{array}{c} Cents.\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 10.00\\ 11.00\\ 10.00\\ 1$	$\begin{array}{c} Cents.\\ 15.00\\ 15.00\\ 15.00\\ 15.00\\ 15.00\\ 15.00\\ 15.00\\ 15.00\\ 15.00\\ 15.00\\ 16.00\\ 10.00\\ 1$	$\begin{array}{c} Cents.\\ 6,00\\ 6,00\\ \hline \\ 17,00\\ 17,50\\ \hline \\ 17,50\\ \hline \\ 4,50\\ 4,50\\ \hline \\ 50\\ \hline \\ \end{array}$	Cents. 12.00 12.00 12.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 13.00 10.00 12.00 13.00 13.00 12.00 13.00 10.00	Cents. 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00 9.00	Cents. 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 20.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00 18.00	Cents. 8.00 8.00 8.00 8.00 9.00 8.00 9.00 9.00<	Cents. 14.00 15.00 16.00 17.00 19.00 21.00 21.00
December July-Dec	9.00 7.50	17.00 17.00	9.50 7.50	14.50 14.50	11.00 11.00	19.00 19.00	4.50	12.00	9.00	18.00 18.00	17.00	21.00
		1		1		1				4		

Common to good throughout 1916.
 Brights, smokers, common to fine, 1913 to 1916, inclusive.

TABLE 114.—Tobacco (unmanufactured): International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[Tobacco comprises leaf, stems, strippings, and tombac, but not snuff. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.)
Aden 1 Algeria. Austria-Hungary Brazil. British India. Bulgaria. Ceylon Cuba. Dominican Repub- lic. Dutch East Indies.	Pounds. 9, 440 8, 366 19, 247 64, 788 35, 843 23, 578 4, 273 30, 669 21, 584 193, 632	Pounds. 7,047 10,356 	Pounds. 14, 282 59, 735 32, 877 3, 118 38, 799 13, 747	Greece. Mexico. Netherlands. Paraguay. Persia 3. Philippine Islands. Russia. United States. Other countries Total	Pounds. 21, 876 1, 783 3, 454 11, 962 3, 593 28, 585 28, 291 441, 372 57, 910 993, 246	Pounds. 21, 876 3, 663 9, 993 1, 493 29, 533 9, 955 347, 295 46, 462 765, 629	Pounds. 20, 347 7, 053 15, 782 24, 663 6, 139 435, 895

IMPORTS.

Aden ¹ . Argentina. Australia. Austra-Hungary Belgium British India Canada. China. Denmark. Egypt	7,048 21,958 21,545 10,407 19,613	17,040 10,688 	5, 315 18, 245 10, 230 15, 472	Italy Netherlands Norway. Portugal Nigeria. Spain Sweden. Switzerland United Kingdom United States	4,044 7,013 26,602 60,279 10,319 18,470 158,668 66,899	35,677 9,383 22,300 154,437 57,407	58, 592 4, 591 40, 789 17, 630 190, 606 41, 304
		$\begin{array}{c} 17,077 \\ 10,674 \\ 61,349 \end{array}$		United States Other countries Total	66, 899 53, 529 980, 561	41, 245	

Year beginning Apr. 1.

³ Year beginning Mar. 21.

APPLES.

TABLE 115.—Apples: Production, and prices Dec. 1, by States, 1910-1916.

State.	Production, barrels of 3 bushels (000 Farm price per bush omitted).							ishel						
plate.	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island	$1,183 \\ 600 \\ 900 \\ 967 \\ 100 $	2,267 533 750 1,000 133	$1,800 \\733 \\867 \\1,100 \\100$	$1,000 \\ 267 \\ 233 \\ 767 \\ 100$	667 1,067	720 353 324 885 59	$1,680 \\ 532 \\ 1,104 \\ 1,150 \\ 87$	80 80 92 90 89	55 79 78 89 62	79 76	100 113 123 134 116	53 53 57 65 65	89 90 94 90 108	90 99
Connecticut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware	5,667 5,667 3,867 117		$567 \\ 14,667 \\ 567 \\ 4,233 \\ 140 \\$	$700 \\ 6,500 \\ 700 \\ 3,400 \\ 60$		777	610 12,600 750 6,207 83	80 100 78 75	70 59 60 54 85	50 72 70		65 45 55 50 58	71	100 80
Maryland Virginia	900 4,033 2,367 2,400 247	2,600	3,433	433 1,733 333 1,000 87		2,513	848 4,433 3,344 2,358 196	65 80 78 98 100	$52 \\ 74 \\ 71 \\ 88 \\ 126$	60 55 75	100 86 130 95 145	41 46 49 49 85	64 75	76 80
Georgia Ohio Indiana. Illinois. Michigan	467 1,967 1,633 267 1,400	3,533		2,733	1,433 1,233	3,883	1,307		$ \begin{array}{r} 118 \\ 54 \\ 68 \\ 68 \\ 70 \end{array} $	67 84 79	108 110 88 94 82	80 63 70 84 49	55 53 47	100 120 115
Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri. South Dakota.	133 50 67 2, 533 10	$1,000 \\ 433 \\ 3,167 \\ 3,867 \\ 80$	667 233 500 6,400 67		733 233 533 4,167 67	1,473 412 3,220 6,287 100	2,700	85	81 70	98 101 53	112 93	97 71	102 70 51	$145 \\ 145 \\ 105$
Nebraska Kansas Kentucky Tennessee Alabama	467 2,200 1,767 1,733 333	$1,200 \\ 800 \\ 2,033 \\ 967 \\ 233$	3,200	767 900 2,300 1,300 300	3,000		$567 \\ 1,040 \\ 2,147 \\ 1,772 \\ 380$	98 78 100 92 90	92 104	71 85 81	$ \begin{array}{c} 108 \\ 110 \\ 92 \\ 106 \\ 115 \end{array} $	78 75	81	130 113 107
Mississippi Texas Oklahoma. Arkansas. Montana.	$110 \\ 133 \\ 400 \\ 900 \\ 140$		$150 \\ 167 \\ 567 \\ 1,700 \\ 300$	123 100 367 1,333 280	$167 \\ 167 \\ 500 \\ 1,667 \\ 300$	141 187 780 1,183 347	$116\\156\\275\\1,018\\256$	130 107 105	128 120 115	115 92 92	130 122 102	108 90 83	100 94 70	135 145 100
Wyoming Colorado New Mexico Arizona Utah	3 500 113 33 137			$10 \\ 1,100 \\ 217 \\ 30 \\ 203$	300	$693 \\ 273 \\ 40 \\ 142$	46	140 191	119 195	120 204	$128 \\ 217$	70 98	70 87 170	94 160 182
Nevada Idaho Washington. Oregon. California	53 417 1,933 1,267 1,533	500	1,367		1,200	1,043	$147 \\ 3,225 \\ 1,285$	99 80 100	$ 112 \\ 118 $	85 70 69	98 93 85	125 78 64 81 76	85 80 75	114 80 85
United States	47, 213	71,340	78, 407	48, 470	84,400	76,670	67, 415	89.6	72.1	66.3	98.1	59.4	69.0	91.8

APPLES—Continued.

TABLE 116 Approximate relative	production of principal varieties of apples, expressed as
percentages	of a normal crop of all apples.

	<i>I</i> ^						1								
Variety.	United States.	Maine.	New York.	Pennsylvania.	Virginia.	West Virginia.	Ohio.	Michigan.	Illinois.	Missouri.	Kentucky.	Arkansas.	Washington.	Oregon.	California.
Arkansas (Mammoth Black Twig) Arkansas Black Baldwin Ben Davis E arly Harvest	P. ct. 0.7 .9 .13.4 13.3	34.5	P. ct. 31. 3 5. 0		P. ct. 3.1 .7 2.8 11.4	0.7 .8 5.8	0.6.1	0.0	P. ct. 0. 6 .9 2. 7 37. 8	$ \begin{array}{c} 1.1 \\ 1.5 \\ 1.5 \end{array} $	P. ct. 0.9 3.0 2.9 16.8	2.3 3.0 .4	P. ct. 0.3 2.3 7.8 7.4	P. ct. 1.1 12.6 4.9	$ \begin{array}{c} 0.3 \\ 1.0 \end{array} $
(Prince's Harvest) Fall Pippin Fameuse (Snow) Gano Golden Russet Gravenstein	2, 8 1, 7 1, 3 1, 6 1, 4 1, 1	.9 3.5 3.5 1.7 2.3	$ \begin{array}{r} .9\\ 1.7\\ 2.4\\ .2\\ 2.0\\ .9 \end{array} $	3.1 3.1 .6 2.5 1.0	4.7 1.8 .1 .6 .3 .1	3.9 1.5 .0 1.6 1.6 .1	3.7 1.8 .6 1.3 .9 .3	1.8 1.6 3.0 .3 3.7 .1	2.2 1.1 1.5 3.8 .7 .1	.4 .4 6.5 .3	6.4 2.4 .0 .2 1.0 .0	6.6 .1	.8 .8 .3 .8 .3 4.1	.7 .8 .2 1.0 .6 7.3	.1
Grimes (Grimes Golden) Horse (Yellow Horse). Jonathan Limbertwig (Red	2.2 .9 3.6	.2	.1 .4	2.6 1.4	$2.6 \\ 1.0 \\ 1.0$	4.6 .0 1.7	5.0 .0 1.8	1.2 .0 2.2	4.9 2 9.3	. 5	2.6 2.1 2.5	$2.1 \\ 1.5 \\ 3.7$	1.6 13.8	.4 .1 4.4	.1 1.7
Limbertwig). McIntosh (McIntosh	1.6	. 0			2.5	. 8	.3	0	. 6		4.0	5.8		. 2	.3
Red). Maiden Blush. Missouri (Missouri Pip-	.9 2.0	3.7	1.6	.7 3.0	.1 1.5	.1 2.5	.1 4.5	2.6^{3}	.4 2.3		.1 4.5	1.0	• 3 • 3	.1 .2	.1 .4
pin) Northern Spy Northwestern Green-	.8 6.1	.0 7.1	.0 13.1	.0 11.4	.2 .8	$^{.1}_{4.2}$	7.7^{1}	$.1 \\ 17.9$	$1.2 \\ 1.4$.5 1.4	1.4 .5	.5 3.8	.1 7.4	.9 .6
oldenburg (Duchess	. 9	.3	. 9	.4	.0	. 4	.6	1.9	. 3	.3	.4		1.0	.1	. 2
of Oldenburg) Red Astrachan	1.9 1.9		2.2 2.1	$1.1 \\ 3.5$	$^{.1}_{.8}$	2.5	$1.0 \\ 2.7$	5.0 2.8	1.7 .8		.1 .3	. 5	$1.1 \\ 1.7$.3 2.2	.1 3.3
Red June (Carolina Red June) Rhode Island Green-	1.6	,	. 7	.3	1.8	1.3	. 2	.0	1.2	1.9	4.3	2.7	1.3	1.3	1.4
ing (Greening) Rome Beauty Stayman Winesap Tolman (Talman	$4.7 \\ 3.1 \\ 1.5$.1	14.8 .3 .1	5.5 2.1 1.8		$1.4 \\ 18.7 \\ 1.9$.8 3.8 .5	1.7	9.6	1.8	$2.2 \\ 12.2 \\ 2.7 \\ 2.7 \\ \end{array}$	$2.6 \\ 5.6 \\ 1.8 $	
Sweet) Tompkins King (King of Tompkins	1.0	2.6	2.1	1.1	.1	.4	. 5	2.4	.3	.2	.3		.9		.0
Co.). Wealthy White Pearmain	1.4 2.2		4.1 1.8	$1.5 \\ 1.2$.0 .0	.5 1.1	.6 1.2	$2.1 \\ 3.7$.1 1.6	.1 1.3		.1	$2.7 \\ 1.5$	5.1 1.1	1.1 .1
(White Winter Pearmain) Winesap Wolf River Yellow Bellflower Yellow Newtown (Al- bemerle; Newtown	.5 5.1 .9 1.4	.5	.1 .1 .3	.0 1.8 .3 2.3	20.7 20.7 .2	.2 1.8 .6 1.5	1.8 .5		.2 5.6 .4 .5	6.8	14.0 .3 .6	8.4	.6 7.1 .8 1.9	.5 2.9 1.7 3.4	1.4
Vellow Transparent	1.6 1.5		. 2 . 3	1.7	$7.0 \\ 1.5$	3.2	.4 2.1	.3 1.4	2. 1	.1 1.1	.2 3.2	.4	$2.9 \\ 1.5$	$11.3 \\ 1.6$	
York Imperial (John- son Fine Winter) Other varieties	2.1 10.4		.1 8.9	$7.5 \\ 12.8$		$5.0 \\ 13.4$.3 11.0	.8 7.4	1.1 8.2	.1 12.5		. 2 12. 5	. 9 15. 5	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

NOTE .- In important apple-producing States not included in table, the principal varieties and their

North.—In important apple-producing States not included in table, the principal varieties and their rente tive percentages of all apples in a normal crop are: Indiana.—Ben Davis 22.8, Baldwin 7.2, Grimes Golden 6.7, Winesap 6.7, Maiden Blush 5.8, Rome Beauty 4.4, Northern Spy 4.2. North Carolina.—Limbertwig 14.3, Winesap 12.2, Ben Davis 7.5, Early Harver 7.2, Horso 7.2, Red June 5.9. Touressee.—Winesap 14.1, Ben Davis 12.2, Limbertwig 12.1, Early Harver 7.3, Horso 6.3, Red June 5.9. Touressee.—Winesap 14.1, Ben Davis 12.2, Limbertwig 12.1, Early Harver 7.2, Horso 6.3, Red June 5.9. Touressee.—Winesap 14.1, Ben Davis 12.2, Limbertwig 12.1, Early Harver 7.2, Horso 6.3, Red June 5.4. Iovca,—Ben Davis 12.2, Wealthy 12.4, Jonathan 10.3, Oldenburg 8.9, Grimes Golden 4.9, Northwestern Greening 4.3. Kansas.—Ben Davis 19.4, Winesap 15.3, Jonathan 13.8, Missouri Pippin 8.6, Gano 6.0, Maiden Blush 4.3. Colorado.—Ben Davis 20.3, Jonathan 18.3, Gano 7.8, Rome Beauty 4.8, Winesap 4.1. Massachusetts.—Baldwin 48.4, Rhodo Island Greening 9.3, Gravenstein 5.7, Melntosh Red 5.7, Northern Spy 5.1. Nobraska.—Ben Davis 21.3, Winesap 13.6, Jonathan 18.3, Gano 7.8, Rome Beauty 4.8, Winesap 4.1. Massachusetts.—Baldwin 48.4, Rhodo Island Greening 9.3, Gravenstein 5.7, Melntosh Red 5.7, Northern Spy 5.1. Nobraska.—Ben Davis 21.3, Winesap 13.6, Jonathan 9.4, Wealthy 6.2, Old nburg 5.8, Grimes Golden 4.8, Missouri Pippin 4.2, Gano 4.0. Wisconsin.—Oldenburg 14.7, Wealthy 13.7, Northwestern Greening 11.1, Famense (Snow) 8.0, Wolf River 7.5, Ben Davis 5.1, Golden Russet 4.2. Maryland.—Ben Davis 17.0, York Imperial 16.2, Baldwin 8.5, Rome Beauty 5.0, Early Harvest 4.7, Rhode Island Greening 4.3, Northern Spy 4.2. Vermont.—Baldwin 15.1, Rhode Island Greening 12.8, Northern Spy 12.0, Famense (Snow) 8.1, Melntosh 6.1, Ben Davis 5.6, Yellow Belldower 4.2. Connecti-cut.—Baldwin 42.2, Hhode Island Greening 16.9, Golden Russet 5.2. New Hampshire.—Baldwin 5.9, Rhode Island Greening 5.9, Northern Spy 5.2, Melntosh 4.4. Idaho.—Jonathan 21.3, Rome Beaut

PEACHES.

TABLE 117.—Peaches:	Production, and	prices Sept. 15,	by States, 1910–1916.
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	Р	Production, bushels (000 omitted).						Farm price per bushel (cents).						
State.	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	19 10	191 1	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
New Hampshire Massachusetts Rhode Island. Connectcut. New York	56 68 18 291 1,762	97 22 249 1,536	51 16 128 1,400	44 105 29 263 1,742	$3 \\ 31 \\ 14 \\ 142 \\ 530$	58 152 29 335 2,106	24 66 14 134 1,238	137	275 200 142	220 221 160	190 180 175 147 140	180 170 175 160	$150 \\ 130 \\ 103 \\ 96 \\ 90$	200 226 148 190 140
New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware Maryland Virginia	810 1,533 810 1,080 1,075	440 1,096 249 492 318	638 660 521 672 1,058	483 922 312 480 312	$1,140 \\ 1,541 \\ 608 \\ 1,032 \\ 911$	$1,275 \\ 2,044 \\ 842 \\ 1,248 \\ 1,358$	$\substack{1,069\\346\\600\\660}$	91	175 180 138 138 138		$150 \\ 180 \\ 125 \\ 105 \\ 150$	98 125 95 98 100	70 80 39 35 80	$150 \\ 150$
West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia Florida	598 1,955 1,204 5,395 178	$230 \\ 437 \\ 649 \\ 2,145 \\ 126$	788 2,093 1,020 6,175 190	$^{132}_{\begin{array}{c} 598\\ 405\\ 1,950\\ 112 \end{array}}$	886 1,863 1,166 5,785 188	$1,164 \\ 1,955 \\ 864 \\ 5,330 \\ 177$	520 897 545 3,510 119	102	140	101	210 120 125 130	$105 \\ 95 \\ 110 \\ 100 \\ 100$	75 90 100 100 75	138 105 155
Ohio Indiana. Illinois. Michigan. Iowa.	$1,239 \\703 \\140 \\1,215 \\16$	$1,147 \\ 2,310$	1,055 185 82 700 24	$931 \\ 1,276 \\ 1,998 \\ 1,539 \\ 632 \\$	1,653 1,128 1,755 1,247 472	$2,448 \\ 648 \\ 874 \\ 2,360 \\ 112$	$1,350 \\ 888 \\ 780 \\ 2,010 \\ 64$	137 165 139	118 84 111	$ \begin{array}{r} 169 \\ 146 \\ 165 \end{array} $	200 130 115 150 135	$ \begin{array}{r} 140 \\ 110 \\ 105 \\ 140 \\ 135 \end{array} $	97 120 110 97 150	150 124
Missouri Nebraska Kansas Kentucky Tennessee	$1,440 \\ 150 \\ 2,432 \\ 770 \\ 1,440$	$ \begin{array}{r} 36 \\ 851 \\ 770 \end{array} $	900 240 2,016 1,210 2,820	4,320 210 875 1,430 1,140		$120 \\ 2,442 \\ 1,320$	$1,080\ 30\ 150\ 880\ 1,080$	133 105 121	125 124 109	156 100 94	93 150 150 90 110	120 75	85 140 100 95 80	225 180 110
Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana. Texas. Oklahoma.	$1,980 \\ 1,340 \\ 488 \\ 3,400 \\ 1,460$	190	2,760 1,800 693 4,140 2,121	$1,020 \\ 460$	2,310 1,440 356 1,196 220	1,540 456	${}^{1,110}_{975}\\{}^{567}_{2,860}\\{}^{230}$	98 100 106	121 83 148	96 150 97	98 110 120	85 100 140	90 83 88 87 57	88 75 100
Arkansas. Colorado New Mexico Arizona. Utah	2,000 346 50 42 195	363 86 51	$4,524 \\ 1,035 \\ 84 \\ 54 \\ 323$	3,120 360 52 57 284		5,940 650 154 60 212	405 40 60	180 128	175 85 225	137 215	124 150 200	60 130 175	63 125 65 95	125 170 200
Nevada Idaho Washington Oregon California	2 60 348 317 9,765	320 190	10 112 445 292 9, 308	8 92 446 311 7,150	9 120 486 387 10,387	566 432	415 276	90 137	174	76 133	110 130	96 110	120 70 80 84 55	165 93 100
United States	48,171	34,880	52,343	39, 707	54,109	64,097	36,939	107.9	122.1	102.0	131.6	97.7	80.0	114.0

HOPS.

TABLE 118.—Hops: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915.

	,	Area.		Production.					
Country.	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915			
NORTH AMERICA.	Acres.	A cres.	Acr+s.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.			
United States 1 Canada	(²) ³ 1,164	(2) (2)	$\begin{pmatrix} 2\\2\\2 \end{pmatrix}$	62, 898, 718 * 1, 208, 450	43, 415, 352 (²)	59, 320, 295 (²)			
Total				64, 107, 168					

¹ Commercial movement for years beginning July 1. ² No official statistics.

⁸ Census of 1910.

HOPS-Continued.

TABLE 118.—Hops: .	Area and	production of	undermentioned	l countries,	<i>1913–1915</i> —Con.
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		Area.		1	Production.	
Country.	191 3	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary Croatia-Slavonia	A cres. 50, 149 5, 444 751	A cres. ¹ 45,664 (²) (²)	A cres. (2) (2)	Pounds. 19, 102, 859 4, 623, 928 292, 991	Pounds. ¹ 36, 252, 442 (²) (²)	Pounds. 17,857,260 2,755,750 (²)
Total	56,344		(2)	24,019,778		
Belgium France Germany Russia United Kingdom: England	5,943 7,292 66,836 ⁽²⁾ 35,676	6,748 68,410 (²)	(2) 6,511 58,654 (2) 34,744	$\begin{array}{c} 7,395,331\\ 8,028,492\\ 23,408,222\\ 16,973,016\\ 28,631,792 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7,560,000\\ 7,034,438\\ 51,227,408\\ 14,083,992\\ 56,812,896 \end{array}$	(2) 5,363,130 32,106,251 (2) 28,516,208
Total		·`-		108, 456, 631	172, 971, 176	
AUSTRALASIA.					, , ,	
Australia: Victoria. South Australia. Tasmania.	131 5 1,247	117 3 1,353	(2) (2) (2) (3)	155,344 2,240 1,920,576	107, 632 4, 480 1, 554, 560	(2) (2) (2)
Total	1,383	1,473	(2)	2,078,160	1,666,672	
Grand total				174, 641, 959		

¹ Galicia and Bukowina not included.

² No official statistics.

TABLE 119.-Hops: Total production of countries named in Table 118, 1895-1915.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1°0 1≤46 1≤47 1≤97 1≤98 1≤98 1≤99 1≤90 1≤90 1≤90 1≤90	$\begin{array}{c} 168, 509, 000\\ 189, 219, 000\\ 166, 100, 000\\ 231, 563, 000 \end{array}$	1904	Pounds. 170,063,000 174,457,000 178,802,000 277,260,000 180,993,000 215,923,000 230,220,000	1909	$\begin{array}{c} 163,810,000\\ 224,493,000\\ 174,642,000\end{array}$

TABLE 120.—Hops: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1916.

	New	few York. Cincinnati. Chicago. San Francisco.).				
Date.		pice ate.	Prime.1		Pacific coast, good to choice.		Sacramento Valley, choice.		Willamette Valley, choice. ²		Eastern Washing- ton, ³ choice.	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. Jahr-Juno Jahr-Dec	Cts. 37 22	Cts. 56 42	$Cts. 41 \\ 22\frac{1}{2}$	Cts. 49 34	Cts. 40 20	Cts. 50 30	Cts. 40 17	$Cts. 50 \\ 20\frac{1}{2}$	Cts. 38 181	Cts. 50 21	Cts. 36 18 1	Cts. 50 21
1913. JanJuno July-Dec.	17 17	32 48	18 18	23 32	15 17	24 31	18 18	20 28	19 18	21 30	19 19	21 30
1914. JanJuno July-Dec	36 23	48 50	21 131	$\frac{27\frac{1}{2}}{22}$	18 13	27 22	16 10	28 19	16 11	30 20	16 10	30 20

Choice 1912-1913.
 Potential and the second sec

Statistics of Hops.

HOPS-Continued.

TABLE 120.—Hops: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1916—Continued.

	New	York.	Cinci	nnati.	Chic	eago.		S	San Fr	ancisco).	
Date.		oice ate.	Pri	Prime.		Pacific coast, good to choice.		Sacramento Valley, choice.		Willamette Valley, choice.1		tern hing- choice.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1915. January February. March April. May June.	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 21 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 13 \\ 13 \end{array}$	Cts. 25 23 17 17 15 14	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 17 \\ 16\frac{1}{2} \\ 17 \\ 17 \\ 17 \\ 17 \\ 16 \end{array}$	Cts. 17 16½ 17 17 17 17 16	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 11 \\ 10 \end{array}$	Cts. 15 16 16 18 15 13	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 11\frac{1}{2} \\ 11\frac{1}{2} \\ 13 \\ 9 \\ 9 \\ 9 \\ 9 \\ 9 \\ 9 \\ 9 \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 12\frac{1}{2} \\ 14 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 10 \\ 10 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 14 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 13 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 11 \\ 11 \\ 11 \end{array}$	Cts. 11 13 10 10 10	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 12 \\ 14 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 11 \\ 11 \end{array}$
JanJune	13	25	16	17	10	18	9	15	10	16	10	15
July August September October November December	13 13 13 28 28 28 26	$ \begin{array}{r} 14 \\ 14 \\ 3 30 \\ 30$	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\$	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 16 \\ 15\frac{1}{2} \\ 15\frac{1}{2} \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15\frac{1}{2} \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 15\frac{1}{2} \\ 16 \\ 1$	$ \begin{array}{c c} 10 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12$	$ \begin{array}{r} 14 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\$	$9\\11\frac{1}{2}\\13\\9\\8\\7\frac{1}{2}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 3 & 12 \\ 14 \\ 14 \\ 14 \\ 11 \\ 11 \\ 11 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 10 \\ 11\frac{1}{2} \\ 15 \\ 11 \\ 11 \\ 11 \\ 10 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} ^{3} 121 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 13 \\ 13 \end{array} $	$10 \\ 11 \\ 14 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ $	$ \begin{array}{r} ^{3} 12 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ $
July-Dec	13	30	$15\frac{1}{2}$	16	10	16	$7\frac{1}{2}$	14	10	16	10	15
1916. January February March April. May June.	24 24 22 19 18 20	27 25 23 23 20 22		• • • • • • •	14 14 15 15 14 14	16 16 17 17 16 16	712 8 8 8 8 8 8	11 11 11 11 11 11	9 10 10 10 10 10	$\begin{array}{c} 12\frac{1}{2}\\ 12\frac{1}{2}\\ 12\frac{1}{2}\\ 12\frac{1}{2}\\ 12\frac{1}{2}\\ 12\frac{1}{2}\\ 12\frac{1}{2}\end{array}$	9 10 10 10 10 10	$\begin{array}{c} 12\frac{1}{2}\\ 12$
JanJune	18	27			14	17	$7\frac{1}{2}$	11	9	12^{1}_{2}	9	121
July August September October November December	16 15 ³ 28 ³ 53 49 47	21 18 55 55 53 50			$ \begin{array}{r} 14 \\ 13 \\ 12 \\ 14 \\ 11 \\ 10 \\ \end{array} $	16 15 14 18 17 16	8 8 13 10 10	11 11 14 14 14 14 14	10 10 7 13 9 9	$\begin{array}{r} 12\frac{1}{2}\\ 12\frac{1}{2}\\ 14\\ 14\\ 14\\ 11\\ 11\\ 11\end{array}$	10 10 8 12 8 7	$ \begin{array}{r} 121\\ 121\\ 13\\ 13\\ 14\\ .14\\ \end{array} $
July-Dec	15	5 5			10	18	8	14	7	14	8	13

¹ Called "Oregon" hops in 1916. ² Called "Washington" hops in 1916. ³ New crop.

TABLE 121.—Hops: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[Lupulin and hopfenmehl (hop meal) are not included with hops in the data shown. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (p r elim.).	1915 (p r elim.).
Austria-Hungary Belgium France. Germany Netherlands. New Zealand	5, 908 340	Pounds. 212 1,301 389	Pounds. 1,259 486	Russia United Kingdom United States Other countries Total	Pounds. 3,873 1,263 25,701 306 70,198	Pounds, 254 1,117 11,056 44 14,373	Pounds, 289 928 20,865

IMPORTS.

Australia. Austria-Hungary Beigium . British India British South Africa Canada. Denmark France. Germany	1,1506,9751624841,723.7514,655	118 442 1,613 2,358	141 458 955	Netherlands Russia Sweden Switzerland United Kingdom United States Other countries Total	1,018 1,125 27,562	235 1,428 1,420 9,362 7,483 3,147	967 22,327
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BEANS.

TABLE 122.—Beans: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915.

<u>G</u>		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915
NORTH AMERICA. United States	A cres. 1 80; ,000	Aeres.	Acres. (2)	Bushels. 111,251,000	Bushels.	Bushels.
Canada: Nova Scotia New Brunswick. Quebec. Ontario. British Columbia	$1,000 (^3) 5,000 40,000 (^3)$	1,000 (³) 5,000 23,000 (⁴)	1,000 (³) 5,000 37,000	$\begin{array}{r} 22,000\\ 4,000\\ 97,000\\ 670,000\\ 8,000\end{array}$	18,000 6,000 89,000 684,000	$15,000 \\ 6,000 \\ 103,000 \\ 600,000$
Total Canada	47,000	44,000	43,000	801,000	797,000	703,000
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina. Chile	65,000 85,000	72,000 76,000	$\begin{pmatrix} 2\\2 \end{pmatrix}$	(2) 1,551,000	(²) 1,377,000	(²) 1,876,000
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria ⁴ Hungary ⁶ Do. ⁷ . Croatia-Slavonia ⁶ Do ⁷ .	$\begin{array}{r} 664,000\\ 28,000\\ 1,471,000\\ 24,000\\ 411,000\end{array}$	⁵ 265,000 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	8,725,000 393,000 7,865,000 337,000 1,760,000	⁵ 4, 989, 000 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)
Total Austria-Hungary	2, 598, 000			19,080,000		
Belgium ⁸ Bulgaria ⁸ Denmark ⁴ France Italy Luxemburg Netherlands Roimania ⁶ Do. ⁷	20,000 212,000 8 10,000 583,000 2,838,000 3,000 60,000 108,000 1,366,000	$(2) \\ (2) \\ (2) \\ 547,000 \\ 2,705,000 \\ (2) \\ 59,000 \\ 161,000 \\ 1,409,000 $	$(2) (2) 7,000 (2) 2,702,000 (2) 58,000 186,000 1,455,000 \\ (2) ($	$\begin{array}{c} 514,000\\ 2,482,000\\ 255,000\\ 10,235,000\\ 23,159,000\\ 61,000\\ 1,821,000\\ 1,303,000\\ 4,454,000 \end{array}$	$(2) \\ (2) \\ 211,000 \\ 9,354,000 \\ 16,997,000 \\ (2) \\ 1,946,000 \\ 2,122,000 \\ 3,666,000 \\ (2)$	(2) (2) 192,000 24,629,000 (2) (2) (2) 1,793,000 3,573,000
Russia: ⁹ Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	1,111,000 25,000 6,000	1,175,000 (²) 9,000	1, 157, 000 (²) (²)	12, 199, 000 439, 000 79, 000	8, 482, 000 (²) 94, 000	8,304,000 (²) (²)
Total European Russia	1,142,000			12,717,000		
Serbia Spain Sweden	(2) 1,139,000 5,000	(²⁾ 1,149,000 6,000	$\overset{(^2)}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2)}{\overset{(^2)}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2)}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2)}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2)}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2)}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^2}}{\overset{(^{1}}{\overset{(^{1}}{\overset{(^{1}}}{\overset{(^{1}}{\overset{(^{1}}}{\overset{(^{1}}{\overset{(^{1}}{\overset{(^{1}}{\overset{(^{1}}}{$	$(2) \\ 11,737,000 \\ 164,000$	(2) 12,527,000 75,000	(2) 13,217,000 148,000
United Kingdom: England Weles. Scotland Ireland.	258,000 1,000 6,000 1,000	283,000 1,000 6,000 1,000	257,000 1,000 5,000 1,000	$7,517,000 \\31,000 \\230,000 \\64,000$	8,907,000 36,000 243,000 57,000	$7,353,000 \\ 29,000 \\ 201,000 \\ 42,000 \\ \end{array}$
Total United Kingdom	266,000	291,000	264,000	7,842,000	9,243,000	7,625,000
ASIA. India: British 4 Native States	11,707,000 3,522,000	8,950,000 (²)	13, 757, 000 (²)	¹⁰ 124,096,000 (²)	¹⁰ 69,888,000 (²)	¹⁰ 141,755,000 (²)
Total India	15, 229, 000					•••••
Japan Formosa 4 Russia (9 governments)	1,618,000 86,060 3,000	$1,570,000 \\ 92,000 \\ 3,000$	$\begin{pmatrix} 2\\2\\2\\2 \end{pmatrix}$	20,906,000 703,000 18,000	25,927,000 681,000 36,000	(2) (2) (2) (2)
AFRICA. Algeria. Egypt.	(²) 496,000	(²) 445,000	⁽²⁾ 647,000	(2) (2)	(2) (2)	(2) (2)
¹ Census for 1909. ² No official statistics. ² Less than 500 acres. ³ Includes othe r pulse.	s Grown	i with com.	ina not incli	uded.	9 Includes 10 Incomple	

Statistics of Beans.

BEANS-Continued.

TABLE 122.—Beans: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915—('on.

Country		Area.		Production.				
Country.	1913	1914	1915	1 91 3	1914	1915		
AUSTRALASIA.								
Australia: ¹ Queensland New South Wales Victoria. South Australia. Western Australia. Tasmania.	A cres. (²) 12,000 9,000 1,000 17,000	A cres. (²) (²) 13,000 9,000 2,000 15,000	A cres. (2) (2) 10,000 2,000 (3)	$\begin{array}{c} Pounds. \\ 2,000 \\ 16,000 \\ 240,000 \\ 134,000 \\ 8,000 \\ 476,000 \end{array}$	Pounds. 1,000 10,000 234,000 112,000 7,000 304,000	Pounds. (3) (3) (3) 17,00 6,00 (⁵)		
Total Australia	40,000	39,000		876,000	668,000			

¹ Includes peas.

² Less than 500 acres.

³ No official statistics.

TABLE 123.—Beans: Wholesale price per bushel, 1912-1916.

	Bos	ton.	Chie	cago.	Det	roit.	San Fr	ancisco.
Date.	P	ва.	Pe	ea.	P	ea.		white 01bs.).
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.
JanJuneJuly-Dec	$2.55 \\ 2.55$	$3.05 \\ 3.10$	$2.35 \\ 1.90$	2.98 3.20	$2.32 \\ 2.15$	$2.70 \\ 2.70$	$4.00 \\ 4.00$	$4.75 \\ 4.80$
1913. JanJune. July-Dec	$2.35 \\ 2.15$	2.60 2.40	$1.25 \\ 1.15$	$\frac{2.50}{2.25}$	$1.80 \\ 1.75$	-2.20 2.05	$4.50 \\ 4.50$	5.85 5.85
1914. JanJune	2.10	2.35	1.60	2.30	1.80	2.10	4.75	5.50
July-Dec 1915.	2.15	3.10	1.95	3.10	1.85	2.90	4.00	6.00
January. February March. April. May. June	$\begin{array}{c} 2.95 \\ 3.30 \\ 3.15 \\ 3.10 \\ 3.20 \\ 3.15 \end{array}$	3.25 3.50 3.40 3.30 3.30 3 .30 3 .30	$\begin{array}{c} 2.40 \\ 3.00 \\ 3.00 \\ 2.80 \\ 2.90 \\ 2.95 \end{array}$	3.25 3.50 3.25 3.25 3.25 3.25	$\begin{array}{c} 2.\ 70\\ 3.\ 00\\ 2.\ 85\\ 2.\ 1.\\ 3.\ 00\\ 2.\ 90 \end{array}$	3.05 3.20 3.05 3.00 3.05 3.10	$\begin{array}{r} 4.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 4.85 \end{array}$	5.50 5.70 5.70 5.70 5.70 5.70 5.70
JanJune	2.95	3.50	2.40	3.50	2.70	3.10	4.50	5.70
July August. September October. November December.	$\begin{array}{c} 3.\ 00\\ 2.\ 85\\ 3.\ 20\\ 3.\ 10\\ 3.\ 75\\ 3.\ 95 \end{array}$	3.15 3.15 3.30 3.90 4.10 4.10	2.622.622.622.753.253.70	$\begin{array}{r} 3.25\\ 3.00\\ 3.25\\ 4.00\\ 4.10\\ 4.10\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 2.65 \\ 2.60 \\ 2.95 \\ 3.15 \\ 3.30 \\ 3.55 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.90\\ 3.00\\ 3.10\\ 3.50\\ 3.60\\ 3.60\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.85 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.60 \\ 5.50 \\ 6.10 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.85 \\ 4.85 \\ 4.60 \\ 5.50 \\ 6.15 \\ 6.40 \end{array}$
July-Dec	2.85	4.10	2.62	4.10	2.60	3.60	4.50	6.40
1916. February. March A pril. May. June.	$\begin{array}{c} 3.95 \\ 3.90 \\ 3.80 \\ 3.80 \\ 3.80 \\ 3.80 \\ 4.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.10\\ 4.10\\ 4.00\\ 4.10\\ 4.35\\ 5.85\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3.85\\ 3.55\\ 3.45\\ 3.00\\ 3.50\\ 3.75\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.15 \\ 4.15 \\ 4.60 \\ 4.60 \\ 4.25 \\ 8.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 3.55\\ 3.60\\ 3.50\\ 3.65\\ 3.65\\ 3.80\\ 4.10\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 3.\ 70\\ 3.\ 70\\ 3.\ 65\\ 3.\ 75\\ 4.\ 10\\ 6.\ 00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.35 \\ 6.35 \\ 6.35 \\ 6.25 \\ 6.65 \\ 7.25 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 6.40 \\ 6.40 \\ 6.40 \\ 6.65 \\ 7.25 \\ 11.50 \end{array}$
JanJune	3.80	5.85	3.00	8.00	3.50	6.00	6.25	11.50
July August September. October. November. December.	$\begin{array}{c} 5.00 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.50 \\ 6.75 \\ 6.50 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.50 \\ 6.00 \\ 5.75 \\ 6.75 \\ 7.25 \\ 7.25 \\ 7.25 \end{array}$	$5.00 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.40 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.40 $	8.00 7.00 6.25 6.25 7.50 7.50 7.50	$5.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 4.90 \\ 4.90 \\ 6.00 \\ 5.75$	$7.00 \\ 5.75 \\ 5.75 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.75 \\ 6.40$	$ \begin{array}{r} 10.00 \\ 7.50 \\ 8.00 \\ 7.50 \\ 9.50 \\ 10.50 \\ \end{array} $	11.00 10.00 8.50 9.50 10.50 10.50
July-Dec	4.50	7.25	5.00	8.00	4.90	7.00	7.50	

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PEAS.

TABLE 124.—Peas: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915.

		Area.			Production.	
Country.	1913	1914	1915 ,	1913	1914	1915
NORTH AMERICA.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
United States	1,305,000	(2)	(2)	17,129,000	(2)	(2)
Canada: Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia New Brunswick. Quebec Ontario Manitoba	(3) (3) 1,000 26,000 190,000 (3)	(3) (3) (3) 24,000 179,000 (3)	(3) (3) (3) 24,000 169,000 (3)	2,000 7,000 11,000 451,000 3,431,000	3,000 4,000 10,000 432,000 2,864,000	1,0003,0007,000404,0003,007,000
Manitoba Saskatchewan. Alberta British Columbia	(3) (3) 1,000	(3) (3) 1,000	(3) (3) (3) 1,000	7,000 8,000 35,000	8,000 41,000	9,000 9,000 39,000
Total Canada	219,000	206,000	196,000	3, 952, 000	3, 362, 000	3, 479, 000
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Chile 4	35,000	27,000	(2)	501,000	373,000	(2)
EUROPE.						
Austria Hungary ⁶ . Craatia-Stavonia ⁶ . Belgium France ⁶ . Italy ⁴ . Luxemburg ⁶ . Netherlands. Roumania ⁶ .	(5) 30,000 10,000 7 12,000 66,000 (2) 2,000 68,000 61,000	(5) (2) (3) (61,000 (2) (2) (2) (55,000 56,000	(⁵) (²) (³) (⁴ 5, 000	(⁵) 426,000 147,000 7 400,000 1,178,000 4,167,000 28,000 1,488,000 1,076,000	(⁵) (²) (²) 1,116,000 3,698,000 (²) 1, 871,000 869,000	(⁵) (²) (²) 3,020,000 (²) (²) (²) (²) 755,000
Russia: Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia	2,265,000 367,000 5,000	2, 183, 000 (²) 5, 000	1, 792, 000 (²) 3, 000	26, 930, 000 5, 776, 000 82, 000	17, 329, 000 (²) 72, 000	12, 744, 000 (²) 72, 000
Total Russia, European.	2,637,000			32, 788, 000		
Serbia Spain 4. Sweden	$\overset{(2)}{\substack{1,244,000\\56,000}}$	(2) 1,268,000 57,000	(2) 1,346,000 (2)	70,000 9,298,000 1,317,000	(²⁾ 11,016,000 717,000	(²) 11, 382, 000 1, 150, 000
United Kingdom: England Wales Scotland Ireland	127,000 (3) (3) (3) (3)	129,000 (3) (3) (3) (3)	98,000 (³) (³) (³)	3,470,000 10,000 5,000 7,000	3,063,000 10,000 5,000 9,000	2, 461, 000 8, 000 3, 000 6, 000
Total United Kingdom .	128,000	130,000	98,000	3, 492, 000	3,087,000	2, 478, 000
ASIA.	and the trademonstrated					
Russia (9 Governments)	$106,000 \\ 75,000$	$121,000 \\ 82,000$	$\binom{2}{2}$	$\substack{1,935,000\\775,000}$	2,168,000 995,000	(2) (2)
AFRICA.				1		
Algeria	7 26,000	(2)	(2)	7 277,000		
AUSTRALASIA.						
Australia	$\binom{5}{20,000}$	(5) 14,000	(⁵) 13,000	524,000	(⁶) 453,000	(⁵) 367,000

Census for 1909.
 No official statistics.
 Less thm 500 acres.
 Includes chick-peas, lentils, and vetches.

⁶ Included under beans. ⁶ Includes lentils. ⁷ 1912 figures.

SUGAR.

TABLE 125.—Sugar: Production in the United States and its possessions, 1856-57 to 1916-17.1

[Data for 1912-13 and subsequently beet sugar, also Louisiana and Hawaii cane sugar, estimated by United States Department of Agriculture; Porto Rico, by Treasury Department of Porto Rico; Philippine Islands, exports for years ending June 30. For sources of data for earlier years, see Yearbook for 1912, p. 650. A short ton is 2,000 pounds.]

<u> </u>	Beet		Cane su	ıgar (chiefl	y raw).		
Year.	sugar (chiefly refined).	Louisi- ana.	Other States. ²	Porto Rico.	Hawaii.	Philip- pine Islands. ³	Total.
Average: 1856-7 to 1860-61	269 448 403 470 692 1,922 19,406 58,287 239,730 479,153	Short tons. 132, 402 74, 036 44, 768 67, 341 104, 920 124, 868 163, 049 268, 655 282, 399 352, 053 348, 544	Short tons. 5,978 1,945 3,818 4,113 5,327 7,280 8,439 6,634 4,405 12,126 13,664	Short tons. 75, 364 71, 765 96, 114 87, 606 76, 579 87, 441 70, 112 63, 280 61, 292 141, 478 282, 136	(4) 27,040 76,075 125,440 162,538 282,585 403,308 516,041	46, 446 54, 488 81, 485	Short tons. 260, 190 202, 503 226, 633 279, 020 383, 403 485, 633 555, 091 807, 142 823, 690 1, 257, 673 1, 785, 370
1901-2. 1902-3. 1903-4. 1904-5. 1905-6.	218, 406 240, 604 242, 113	360, 277 368, 734 255, 894 398, 195 377, 162	4,048 4,169 22,176 16,800 13,440	103, 152 100, 576 138, 096 151, 088 214, 480	355, 611 437, 991 367, 475 426, 248 429, 213	$75,011 \\123,108 \\82,855 \\125,271 \\138,645$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,082,705\\ 1,252,984\\ 1,107,100\\ 1,359,715\\ 1,485,861 \end{array}$
1906-7. 1907-8. 1908-9. 1909-10. 1910-11.	463,628	257, 600 380, 800 397, 600 364, 000 342, 720	14, 560 13, 440 16, 800 11, 200 12, 320	206, 864 230, 095 277, 093 346, 786 349, 840	440, 017 521, 123 535, 156 517, 090 566, 821	$132,602\\167,242\\123,876\\140,783\\164,658$	1,535,255 1,776,328 1,776,409 1,892,328 1,946,531
1911-12. 1912-13. 1913-14. 1913-14. 1914-15. 1915-16. 1916-17 (preliminary)	692, 556 733, 401 722, 054	$\begin{array}{r} 352,874\\ 153,573\\ 292,698\\ 242,700\\ 137,500\\ 304,700 \end{array}$	8,000 9,000 7,800 3,920 1,120 7,000	371,076 398,004 351,666 346,490 483,590	595, 038 546, 524 612, 000 646, 000 592, 763	205, 046 234, 000 235, 000 206, 000 344, 000	2, 131, 534 2, 033, 657 2, 232, 565 2, 167, 164 2,433, 193

¹ Census returns give production of beet sugar for 1899 as 81,729 short tons; for 1904, 253,921; 1909, 501,682; production of cane sugar in Louisiana for 1839, 59,974 short tons; 1849, 226,001 hogsheads; 1859, 221,726 hogs-heads; 1869, 80,706 hogsheads; 1879, 171,706 hogsheads; 1889, 146,062 short tons; 1898, 278,497 suort tons; 1899, 159,583; and 1909, 325,516 short tons; cane sugar in other States, 1839, 491 short tons; in 1849, 21,576 hogsheads; in 1859, 9,256 hogsheads; in 1869, 6,337 hogsheads; in 1879, 7,166 hogsheads; in 1889, 4,580 short tons; in 1899, 1,691 and in 1909, 8,687 short tons. ³ Includes Texas only, subsequent to 1902-3. Unofficial returns. ³ Complete data not available for this period. Production in 1878, 70, 1,254 short tons; in 1870, 90, 1,204

Complete data not available for this period. Production in 1878-79, 1,254 short tons; in 1879-80, 1,304 short tons.

TABLE 126.-Sugar beets and beet sugar: Production in the United States, 1911-1916. [Figures for 1916 are based upon returns made before the end of the season, and are subject to revision.]

	ries.	of cam-	(chiefly	S	ugar be	ets used.		Analy bee	rsis of ats.	Recov	ery of ose.4	
State and year. ¹	Number of factories.	Averagelength c paign.	Sugar made (refined).	Aroahar- vosted.	Average yield per acre.	Q u a n t i t y worked.	Average prico per ton.	Percentage of sucrose. ²	Purity coeffi- cient. ⁸	Percentage of weight of beets.	Percentage of total sucroso in beets.	Loss, ⁵
California: 1915 1915 1914. Colorado:	Num- ber. 11 11 10	Days. 	Short tons. 243, 800 195, 343 169, 004	122,737	10.2	Short tons. 1,439,000 1,249,111 1,082,000	5.86	Per cent. 17.82 18.46		$16.9 \\ 15.64$	Per cent. 87.77 84.62	Per cent. 2.18 2.84
1916. 1915. 1914. Idaho:	14 14 13	104	273,780	189,600 171,222 135,400	11.0	2, 015, 000 1, 888, 8 60 1, 706, 300	5.88			13.0 14.49 12.94	87.66 84.30	
1916. 1915. 1914. Michigan:	5 4 4			$\begin{array}{c} 45,100\ 35,068\ 25,300 \end{array}$	9.7	$\begin{array}{c} 427,000\ 339,859\ 264,400 \end{array}$	5.08	17.85 17.78	87.14 87.74	12.7 15.07 14.98	84. 43 84. 25	
1916. 1915. 1914. Uhio:	15 15 15	78	81,600 129,997 110,630	99, 300 122, 000 101, 300	$\begin{array}{c} 6.1 \\ 8.2 \\ 8.5 \end{array}$	604,000 997,972 857,100	5.91	15,45	84.08 82.85	13.5 13.03 12.91	84.34 81.81	
1916. 1915. 1914.		80 56		24,600 25,684 17,800	$7.5 \\ 10.9 \\ 10.4$	183,000 279,427 184,700	5.29	14.19	81.99 83.82	12.3 11.98 11.60	84.43 80.00	2.21 2.90
Utah: 1916 1915 1914 Other States:			116, 400 85, 014 78, 619	72,700 56,226 41,300	11.2	$941,000 \\ 629,204 \\ 564,600$	4.91	16.43	85.06 85.60	$12.4 \\ 13.51 \\ 13.92$	82.23 81.74	2.92 3.11
1916 ⁶ 1915 1914	11	- 84		78,364	$10.2 \\ 9.8 \\ 10.8$	1,062,000 765,860 629,500	5.67	16.38	84. 24 83. 35	$13.1 \\ 13.76 \\ 13.02$	84.00 82.40	
Unite.1 States: 1916 1915 1914 1913 1912 1911	67 60 71 73	92 85 85 86	874, 220 722, 054 733, 401 692, 556	555,300	$10.1 \\ 10.9 \\ 9.76 \\ 9.41$	6, 671, 000 6, 150, 293 5, 288, 500 5, 659, 462 5, 224, 377 5, 062, 333	5.67 5.45 5.69 5.82	16.49 16.38 15.78 16.31 15.89	83.89 83.22 84.49	13.65 12.96 13.26	83.33 82.13 81.12	2.73 2.82 3.05

¹ Acreage and production of beets are credited, as in former reports, to the State in which the beets were ^{*} made into sugar. ² Based upon weight of beets.

³ Percentage of sucrose (pure sugar) in the total soluble solids of the beets.

Percentage of sucrose actually extracted by factories.
Percentage of sucrose (based upon weight of beets) remaining in molasses and pulp.
Includes 3 factories in Nebraska, 3 in Wisconsin, 2 in Wyoming, and 1 each in Indiana, Illinois, Minnesota, Kansas, Montana, and Oregon.

TABLE 127.—Cane-sugar production of Louisiana, 1911-1916.

[Figures for 1916 are from returns made before the end of the season, and are subject to revision.]

Year of cane har-	Factories Sugar		A verage sugar	Cau	e used for	Molasses made.1		
Vest.	in opera- tion.	made.	made, per ton of cane.	Area.	Average per acre.	Production.	Total.	Per ton of sugar.
1911	Number, 188 126 153 149 136 148	Short tons. 352, 874 153, 573 292, 698 242, 700 137, 500 304, 700	Pounds. 120 142 139 152 135 146	A cres. 310,000 197,000 248,000 213,000 183,000	Short tons. 19 11 17 15 11	Short tons. 5,887,292 2,162,574 4,214,000 3,199,000 2,018,000 4,172,000	Gallons. 35,062,525 14,302,169 24,046,320 17,177,443 12,743,000	Gallons. 99 93 82 71 93

34 as are for and a set. 1911–1914, are as reported by the Louisiana Sugar Planters' Association; figures for 1915 as reported by Bureau of Gop Estimate , U.S. Department of Aericulture.

Statistics of Sugar.

SUGAR--Continued.

TABLE 128.—Cane-sugar production of Hawaii, 1913-1916.

Talandand	Facto-	Average		Cane	e used for	sugar.		Average extraction of sugar.		
Island, and year ending Sept. 30.	ending opera- pt. 30. disent for an paign.	am- made. Average area in		Total area in cane.	Per cent of cane.	Per short ton of cane.				
Hawaii: 1916 1915 1914 1913 Kauai:	23	Days. 179 196 174 170	Short tons. 197, 130 240, 300 213, 000 197, 212	Acres. 52,627 50,800 51,000 53,600	Short tons. 33 41 36 32	Short tons. 1,713,759 2,099,000 1,854,000 1,703,000	A cres. 98,787 100,200	Per cent. 11.50 11.45 11.49 11.58	Pounds. 230 229 230 232	
1916 1915 1914 1913		$191 \\ 203 \\ 214 \\ 198$	$108,632 \\ 115,700 \\ 121,000 \\ 100,340$	$\begin{array}{c} 21,392\\ 21,000\\ 21,000\\ 20,800 \end{array}$	43 45 50 42	$\begin{array}{r} 927,970\\941,000\\1,089,000\\841,000\end{array}$	51,712 49,200	$11.71 \\ 12.30 \\ 11.11 \\ 11.93$	234 246 222 239	
1916 1915 1914 1913. Oahu:	7	$ \begin{array}{r} 168 \\ 174 \\ 167 \\ 152 \end{array} $	$150, 311 \\ 160, 300 \\ 145, 000 \\ 124, 820$	19,911 19,800 19,400 19,700	55 57 54 47	$1,098,247\\1,126,000\\1,054,000\\929,000$	51,897 44,400	$13.69 \\ 14.24 \\ 13.76 \\ 13.44$	274 285 275 269	
1916 1915 1914 1913 Territory of	7 10	179 205 188 157	136,690 129,700 133,000 124,152	21, 489 21, 600 20, 700 20, 500	52 47 44 49	$1,119,448 \\1,019,000 \\903,000 \\1,003,000$	43,936 46,000	12.21 12.73 14.73 12.38	244 255 295 248	
Hawafi: 1916 1915 1914 1913		180 195 183 169	592,763 646,000 612,000 546,524	$115,489 \\113,200 \\112,700 \\114,600$	42 46 43 39	4 , 859, 424 5 , 185, 000 4 , 900, 000 4 , 476, 000	246 , 332 239, 800	12.20 12.46 12.49 12.21	244 249 250 244	

TABLE 129.-Sugar: Wholesale price per pound, on New York market, 1912-1916.

		Rs	aw.						Refi	ned.				
Date.	89° I	asses. olari- ion.	96° r	rifugal, polari- ion.		loaf.	Powe	lered.	fin	ulated, e or da rd.		sugar). 1.		sugar . 15.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cts. 3.33 3.23	Cts. 4.30 3.86	Cts. 3.83 3.73	Cts. 4.80 4.36	Cts. 5.80 5.70	Cts. 6.65 5.90	Cts. 5.10 5.00	Cts. 5.90 5.20	Cts. 5.00 4.90	Cts. 5.85 5.15	<i>Cts.</i> 4.85 4.65	Cts. 5.65 4.95	Cts. 4.25 4.03	Cts. 5.05 4.35
1913. JanJune July-Dec	$2.75 \\ 2.62$	$3.23 \\ 3.30$	$3.25 \\ 3.12$	$3.73 \\ 3.80$	$5.05 \\ 5.05$	$5.70 \\ 5.60$	4.35 4.25	5.00 4.90	$4.25 \\ 4.15$	$4.95 \\ 4.85$	$\frac{4.00}{4.05}$	$4.65 \\ 4.55$	$3.40 \\ 3.45$	4.05 3.95
1914. JanJune July-Dec	$\begin{array}{c} 2.27\\ 2.61 \end{array}$	$2.98 \\ 5.87$	$2.92 \\ 3.26$	3.48 6.52	$5.05 \\ 5.25$	$5.25 \\ 8.40$	$3.95 \\ 4.40$	4.40 7.60	$3.85 \\ 3.85$	4.35 7.55	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{3.60} \\ \textbf{4.10} \end{array}$	4.10 7.30	$\frac{3.00}{3.50}$	$3.50 \\ 6.70$
1915. January February March April May June	$\begin{array}{c} 3.\ 20\\ 3.\ 45\\ 3.\ 81\\ 3.\ 84\\ 3.\ 87\\ 4.\ 12 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3.46 \\ 4.27 \\ 4.18 \\ 4.12 \\ 4.12 \\ 4.12 \\ 4.18 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3.95 \\ 4.20 \\ 4.58 \\ 4.61 \\ 4.64 \\ 4.89 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.20 \\ 5.02 \\ 4.95 \\ 4.89 \\ 4.89 \\ 4.89 \\ 4.95 \end{array}$	5.85 5.95 6.65 6.80 6.90	5.956.656.806.906.907.00	5.05 5.15 5.85 6.00 6.10	5.15 5.85 6.00 6.10 6.10 6.20	$\begin{array}{c} 5.95 \\ 5.05 \\ 5.75 \\ 5.90 \\ 6.00 \\ 6.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 5.10\\ 5.80\\ 5.95\\ 6.05\\ 6.05\\ 6.15 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.\ 70\\ 4.\ 80\\ 5.\ 50\\ 5.\ 65\\ 5.\ 75\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.80 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.65 \\ 5.75 \\ 5.75 \\ 5.85 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.10 \\ 4.20 \\ 4.90 \\ 5.05 \\ 5.15 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.20 \\ 4.90 \\ 5.05 \\ 5.15 \\ 5.15 \\ 5.25 \end{array}$
JanJune.	3.20	4.27	3.95	5.02	5.85	7.00	5.05	6.20	5.05	6.15	4.70	5.85	4.10	5.25
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{c} 3.87 \\ 3.62 \\ 2.98 \\ 2.73 \\ 3.62 \\ 3.68 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 4.27\\ 4.18\\ 4.00\\ 3.68\\ 4.37\\ 4.43\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.\ 64\\ 4.\ 39\\ 3.\ 75\\ 3.\ 50\\ 4.\ 39\\ 4.\ 45\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.95\\ 4.95\\ 4.77\\ 4.45\\ 5.14\\ 5.20\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 70\\ 6.\ 50\\ 5.\ 80\\ 5.\ 80\\ 6.\ 25\\ 6.\ 85\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.00\\ 6.70\\ 6.50\\ 6.15\\ 6.90\\ 7.05 \end{array}$	5.90 5.70 5.00 5.00 5.45 6.05	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 20 \\ 5.\ 90 \\ 5.\ 70 \\ 5.\ 35 \\ 6.\ 10 \\ 6.\ 25 \end{array}$	5.80 5.60 4.90 4.90 5.35 5.95	$\begin{array}{c} 6.15\\ 5.85\\ 5.65\\ 5.30\\ 6.05\\ 6.20\end{array}$	5.55 5.35 4.65 4.65 5.10 5.70	$\begin{array}{c} 5.55\\ 5.55\\ 5.35\\ 5.00\\ 5.75\\ 5.90\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.95 \\ 1.75 \\ 4.05 \\ 4.05 \\ 4.50 \\ 5.10 \end{array}$	5.25 4.95 4.75 4.40 5.15 5.30
July-Dec.	2.73	4.43	3.50	5.20	5.80	7.05	5.00	6.25	4.90	6.20	4.65	5.90	4.05	- 5.30

TABLE 129.-Sugar: Wholesale price per pound, on New York market, 1912-1916-Con.

		Raw.			Refined.									
Date.	89° p	isses. olari- ion.	96° p	ifugal, olari- ion.	Cut	loaf.	Powe	lered.	fin	ulated, e or dard.	Soft No	sugar). 1.	Soft s No.	sugar 15.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1916. January February March April May June	$\begin{array}{c} Cts.\\ 3.56\\ 3.93\\ 4.12\\ 5.06\\ 5.25\\ 5.25\\ 5.25 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 4.00 \\ 4.31 \\ 5.25 \\ 5.69 \\ 5.75 \\ 5.63 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 4.33 \\ 4.70 \\ 4.83 \\ 5.83 \\ 6.02 \\ 6.02 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 4.77 \\ 5.08 \\ 6.02 \\ 6.46 \\ 6.52 \\ 6.40 \end{array}$	Cts. 6.65 6.90 7.40 8.15 8.55 8.80	Cts. 6.85 7.40 8.15 8.55 8.80 8.80	Cts. 5.85 6.10 6.35 7.10 7.50 7.75	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 6.05 \\ 6.35 \\ 7.10 \\ 7.50 \\ 7.75 \\ 7.75 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 5.75 \\ 6.00 \\ 6.25 \\ 7.00 \\ 7.40 \\ 7.65 \end{array}$	Cts. 6.00 6.30 7.05 7.45 7.70 7.70	Cts. 5.50 5.75 6.10 6.85 7.25 7.50	Cts. 5.70 6.10 6.85 7.25 7.50 7.50	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 4.90 \\ 5.15 \\ 5.50 \\ 6.25 \\ 6.65 \\ 6.90 \end{array}$	Cts. 5.10 5.50 6.25 6.65 6.90 6.90
JanJune. July August. September October November December	$\begin{array}{r} 3.56 \\ \hline 5.31 \\ 4.09 \\ 4.09 \\ 5.00 \\ 4.87 \\ 4.25 \end{array}$	$5.75 \\ 5.63 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.25 \\ 5.88 \\ 5.75 \\ 4.87 \\ $	$\begin{array}{r} 4.33 \\ \hline 6.08 \\ 4.89 \\ 4.89 \\ 5.77 \\ 5.64 \\ 5.02 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.52 \\ \hline 6.40 \\ 6.27 \\ 6.02 \\ 6.65 \\ 6.52 \\ 5.64 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 6.65 \\ \hline 8.80 \\ 8.15 \\ 7.40 \\ 7.90 \\ 8.65 \\ 8.00 \end{array}$	8.80 8.80 8.15 8.65 8.65 8.65 8.65	$5.85 \\ 7.75 \\ 7.10 \\ 6.35 \\ 6.85 \\ 7.60 \\ 6.95 \\ $	$\begin{array}{c} 7.75 \\ \hline 7.75 \\ 7.75 \\ 7.10 \\ \hline 7.60 \\ 7.60 \\ \hline 7.60 \\ \hline 7.60 \end{array}$	5.75 7.65 7.00 6.25 6.75 7.50 6.85	$\begin{array}{c} 7.70 \\ \hline 7.70 \\ 7.70 \\ 7.05 \\ 7.55 \\ 7.55 \\ 7.55 \\ 7.55 \end{array}$	$5.50 \\ \hline 7.50 \\ 6.85 \\ 6.10 \\ 6.60 \\ 7.35 \\ 6.70 \\ \hline$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.50 \\ 7.50 \\ 7.50 \\ 6.85 \\ 7.35 \\ 7.35 \\ 7.35 \\ 7.35 \end{array}$	4.90 6.90 6.25 5.50 6.00 6.75 6.10	6.90 6.90 6.90 6.25 6.75 6.75 6.75 6.75
July-Dec	4.09	5.88	4.89	6.65	7.40	8.80	6.35	7.75	6.25	7.70	6.10	7.50	5.50	6.90

TABLE 130.—Sugar: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[The following kinds and grades have been included under the head of sugar: Brown, white, candied, caramel, chaacaca (Peru), crystal cube, maple, muscovado, pancla. The following have been excluded: "Candy" (meaning confectionery), confectionery, glucose, grape sugar, jaggery, molasses, and sirup. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)
Barbados. Belgium Brazil British Guiana British India China	$\begin{array}{r} 251,935\\ 11,832\\ 195,807\\ 53,181\\ 14,555\\ 5,476,901\\ 173,832\\ 2,823,310\\ 11,316\\ 212,150\\ \end{array}$	Pounds. 142,616 66,006 239,988 43,207 19,040 5,574,683 223,610 2,912,062 29,398 206,331 242,818	Pounds. 118,658 130,235 34,474 32,950 5,731,998 226,634 58,939 222,660	Guadeloupe. Martinique. Mauritius. Netherlands. Peru. Philippine Islands. Reunion. Trinidad and To- bago. United Kingdom Other countries.	Pounds. 2,462,020 58,722 88,542 414,37 315,041 346,858 85,918 324,837 73,147 52,492 784,382 17,505,792	Pounds. 87,340 39,000 638,200 338,000 389,488 521,383 72,941 281,218 107,718 33,975 1,296,815 13,571,106	Pounds. 85, 814 327, 449 465, 199 77, 710 206, 240 11, 292
	1		IMPO	RTS.		<u>.</u>	·
Argentina. Australia. British India. British South Africa. Canada. Chile	$\begin{array}{c c} 167, 690 \\ 1, 922, 009 \\ \hline 60, 480 \\ 670, 234 \\ 197, 073 \\ 948, 230 \\ 26, 888 \\ 72, 609 \\ 105, 106 \\ 253, 435 \end{array}$	14,068 29,400 1,211,769 48,883 601,166 185,425 835,467 27,964 97,524 359,947 10,774	79 1,091,344 17,379 599,701 156,612 636,877 45,226 101,774 101,760 6,776	Japan. Netherlands. New Zeeland. Norway. Persia. Portugal. Singapore. Switzerland. United Kingdom. United States ² . Other countries. Total.	$\begin{array}{r} 725,067\\147,002\\137,790\\118,049\\234,308\\85,631\\1224,529\\258,513\\3,872,309\\4,762,014\\792,360\\15,963,249\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 441,451\\ 226,266\\ 108,975\\ 130,787\\ 286,120\\ 83,927\\ 153,361\\ 296,645\\ 3,761,740\\ 5,417,995\\ 450,551\\ \hline 14,870,205\\ \end{array}$	276, 990 37, 136 141, 692 130, 347 194, 564 267, 724 3, 675, 612 5, 286, 218

¹ Data for 1912.

² Not including receipts from Hawaii, amounting in 1913 to 1,075,591,712; in 1914 to 1,210,862,124, and In 1915 to 1,212,340,888 pound s and from Porto Rico, in 1913 to 750,428,443; in 1914 to 641,754,932 and in 1915 to 638,101,561 pounds.

 TABLE 131.—Sugar production of undermentioned countries, campaigns of 1913-14 to

 1915-16.

BEET SUGAR (RAW).

Country.	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	Country.	. 1913–14	1914-15	1915-16
NORTH AMERICA.				EUROPE-cont'd.	-		
United States ¹ Canada ¹		722,054		Germany. Italy Netherlands ¹	2,993,704 336,823		1,895,956 198,414
Total	745,383	735, 827	892, 639	Roumania Russia Serbia	231,07341,2401,681,2477,165	33,259 1,947,486	1,699,485
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary	1,287,787	}1, 766, 215	1, 212, 530	Spain Sweden Switzerland		116, 197 169, 836	118,712 140,340
Belgium Denmark	251,023 158,865	225,064 167,803	124,501	Total	8,688,400		5,956,269
France 1	790, 790	339, 368	163, 552	Grand total	9, 433, 783	8,763,478	6,848,908

			CANE	SUGAR.			
NORTH AMERICA.				EUROPE.			
United States: Louisiana Texns ² Porto Rica Central America: Costa Rica Guatemala Niceragua Salvador Mexico ² .		4,000 646,000 346,000 2,926 43,108	138,000 1,000 646,000 484,000	ASIA. Spain British India Formosa Japan Philippine Islands. Total	2, 566, 000 213, 000 73, 000 1, 502, 852 408, 000	2,757,440 222,000	406, 822
West Indies: British Antigua Barbados Jamaica St. Christopher- Novis St. Lucia ³ Trinidad and Tobago Cuba Danish ³ . Dominican Re- public ³ French Guadaloupe ³ Martinique ³ Total SOUTH AMERICA.	$\begin{array}{c} 11,000\\ 15,000\\ 13,000\\ 5,000\\ 62,147\\ 2,891,000\\ 6,000\\ 117,000\\ 44,000\\ 43,000\end{array}$	32, 932 25, 852 10, 080 65, 881 2, 967, 427 5, 833 119, 000 44, 000 44, 000	72,800 16-960 71,931 3,368,865 4,497	AFRICA. Egypt Mauritius Natal. Portuguese East Africa Reunion Total OCEANIA. Australia Fiji Total Total.cane sugar.	76,000 275,000 97,000 38,000 41,000 527,000 297,000 110,000 407,000	83,000 275,250 115,000 45,000 44,000 562,250 235,200 106,794 341,994	243, 262
Argentina. Brazil Guiana: British ³ . Dutch ³ . Paraguay. Peru. Total	² 228,000 119,995 15,000 2,821 251,385	² 269,000 136,891 13,000 1,691 289,729	130,171	Total beet and cane	11,270,200 20,703,983		

1 Refined sugar.

² Unofficial figures.

^a Exports.

TABLE 132.—Sugar:	Total produ	ction of	countries	mentioned	in	Table	131,	1895–96 to	
		19	14-15.						

		Production.			Production.				
Year.	Cane.1	Beet.	Total.	Year.	Cane.1	Beet.	Total.		
$\begin{array}{c} 1895-96. \\ 1896-97. \\ 1897-98. \\ 1897-98. \\ 1899-1900. \\ 1900-1901. \\ 1900-1901 \\ 1901-2 \\ 1902-3. \\ 1903-4. \\ 1904-5. \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Short \ tons.\\ 3, 259, 000\\ 3, 171, 000\\ 3, 305, 000\\ 3, 355, 000\\ 3, 389, 000\\ 4, 084, 000\\ 6, 818, 000\\ 6, 782, 000\\ 6, 909, 000\\ 7, 662, 000\\ \end{array}$	Short tons. 4,832,000 5,549,000 5,616,000 6,262,000 6,795,000 7,743,000 6,454,000 6,835,000 5,525,000	Short tons. 8,001,000 8,720,000 8,971,000 9,651,000 10,879,000 13,236,000 13,744,000 13,187,000		Short tons. 7,551,000 8,365,000 7,926,000 9,423,000 9,423,000 9,540,000 10,275,000 10,908,000 2 11,270,200 8 11,621,619	Short tons. 8,090,000 7,587,000 7,380,000 6,991,000 9,042,000 7,072,000 9,509,769 9,433,783 8,763,478	Short tons. 15,641,000 15,952,000 16,004,000 16,414,000 17,347,000 20,518,000 20,703,983 20,385,097		

Prior to 1901-2 these figures include exports instead of production for British India.
 Excluding Costa Rica, Guatemala, and Salvador.
 Excluding Nicaragua, Salvador, and St. Lucia.

TABLE 133.—Beet and sugar production of undermentioned countries.

			Beet	s used for s	ugar.		extraction igar.
Country and year.	Factories in opera- tion.	Sugar made, raw.	Area har- vested.	Average yield per acre.	Quantity worked.	Percent- age of weight of beets used.	Per short ton of beets used.
Austria-Hungary: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13.	Number. 214 210 218	Short tons. 1, 549, 102 1, 180, 605 2, 093, 439	Acres. 918, 201 968, 771 1, 088, 088	Short tons. 11. 95 8. 18 13. 00	Short tons. 11,038,503 8,623,578 13,911,305	Per cent. 17.5 16.6 14.8	Pounds. 281 274 301
Belgium: 1910-11	92 89 88 84	299, 035 258, 780 309, 308 249, 395	Area culti- vated. 148, 858 145, 119 152, 913 129, 527	13. 41 11. 45 12. 47 11. 85	Produced. 1,996,977 1,660,872 1,907,358 1,534,311	P. c. of wt. of beets produced. 14. 97 15. 58 16. 22 16. 25	Per ton of beets produced. 299 312 324 325
1910–11. 1911–12. 1912–13. 1913–14.	8 8 9 9	$\begin{array}{c} 110,792\\ 128,032\\ 148,447\\ 179,002 \end{array}$	79, 986	14.49	817, 381 809, 616 1, 159, 369 1, 025, 140	13. 56 15. 81 12. 80 17. 46	271 316 256 349
France: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1913-14 1914-15 1915-16	$239 \\ 220 \\ 213 \\ 206 \\ 69 \\ 64$	Refined. 717,033 512,986 967,440 790,790 333,953 149,801	Area har- vested. 549,969 555,575 566,539 534,230 242,781 146,305	10. 76 8. 09 12. 99 12. 24 11. 92 8. 65	Worked. 6, 426, 226 4, 669, 083 7, 960, 926 6, 539, 725 2, 892, 878 1, 265, 518	P. c. of wt. of bects used. 11. 80 11. 41 13. 15 12.09 11. 54 11. 84	Per ton of beets used. 228 263 242 231 237
Germany: ¹ 1910–11 1911–12 1912–13 1913–14	354 342 342 341	Raw. 2,770,001 1,551,797 2,901,564 2,885,572	$\begin{array}{c} 1,180,913\\ 1,247,213\\ 1,353,181\\ 1,316,655 \end{array}$	14,72 £.03 13,56 14,19	17,360,003 9,987,473 18,344,738 18,672,939	15. 96 15. 54 15. 82 15. 45	319 311 316 309
Italy: 1910-11 1911-12. 1912-13. 1913-14	37 37	190,901 174,894 218,628 336,823	Area culti- vated. 124,044 131,260 133,434 152,700	$14.92 \\ 13.30 \\ 14.40 \\ 19.70$	1,698,551 1,621,760 1,879,328 2,994,816	11. 24 10. 78 11. 63 11. 25	225 216 233 225

¹The production of sugar in Germany, including refined from imported raw sugar, was 2,983,085 short tons in 1912-13 and 2,993,704 in 1913-14.

Statistics of Sugar.

SUGAR-Continued.

TABLE 133.—Beet and sugar production of undermentioned countries—Continued.

	_						
	•		Beet	s used for s	ugar.		extraction Igar.
Country and year.	Factories in opera- tion.	Sugar made, raw.	Area har- vested.	A verage yield per acre.	Quantity worked.	Percent- age of weight of beets used.	Per short ton of beets used.
Netherlands: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1913-14 1914-15 1915-16 (prelim.)	Number. 27 27 27 27 27 27 23	Short tons refined. 219,947 265,401 315,775 231,073 316,346 240,828	A cres culti- vated, 138,554 137,388 160,180 149,001 156,251 139,644	Short tons. 12.94 16.06 14.99 12.27 14.06 13.52	Short tons. 1, 678, 803 1, 896, 187 2, 228, 851 1, 705, 878 2, 193, 577 1, 755, 964	Per cent. 13.10 14.00 14.17 13.55 14.42 13.71	Pounds. 262 280 283 271 288 274
Russia: 1910-11. 1911-12. 1912-13. 1913-14. 1914-15. 1915-16.	276 281 287 293 265 235	$\begin{array}{c} Raw. \\ 2,074,410 \\ 2,036,990 \\ 1,361,842 \\ 1,680,893 \\ 1,958,975 \\ 1,697,356 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1, 631, 188\\ 1, 923, 539\\ 1, 847, 313\\ 1, 756, 160\\ 1, 941, 122\\ 1, 748, 466\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 8.9\\ 7.8\\ 6.4\\ 7.7\\ 7.4\\ 7.0\end{array}$	$\begin{matrix} 14, 437, 305\\ 14, 754, 312\\ 11, 538, 078\\ 13, 436, 058\\ 13, 979, 662\\ 12, 324, 612 \end{matrix}$	$\begin{array}{c} 14.\ 61\\ 13.\ 84\\ 11.\ 73\\ 12.\ 51\\ 14.\ 01\\ 13.\ 77\end{array}$	202 277 235 250 280 275
Spain: 1910-11. 1911-12. 1912-13. 1913-14. Sweden:	33 32 33 31	68,743 102,859 171,839 186,680	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 90,787 \\ 105,213 \\ 146,745 \end{pmatrix}$	(1)	$\left\{\begin{array}{c} 532,882\\872,834\\1,302,871\\1,478,114\end{array}\right.$	$12.90 \\ 11.78 \\ 11.33 \\ 12.62$	$258 \\ 236 \\ 264 \\ 252$
1910–11 1911–12 1912–13	$\begin{array}{c} 24\\ 24\\ 24\\ 24\end{array}$	$191,713 \\ 140,409 \\ 145,462$	86,816 71,790 66,900	$13.56 \\ 14.83 \\ 13.95$	$1,218,166 \\908,372 \\922,083$	$15.53 \\ 15.27 \\ 15.59$	315 309 316
United States: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1913-14 1913-15 1915-16 1916-17 (prelim.)	$61 \\ 66 \\ 73 \\ 71 \\ 60 \\ 67 \\ 74$	$\begin{array}{c} R \ efined. \\ 510, 172 \\ 599, 500 \\ 692, 556 \\ 733, 401 \\ 722, 054 \\ 862, 800 \\ 918, 800 \end{array}$	Area har- vested, 398,029 473,877 555,300 580,006 483,400 624,000 680,000	$10. 17 \\ 10. 68 \\ 9. 41 \\ 9. 76 \\ 10. 9 \\ 10. 4 \\ 9. 81$	$\begin{array}{c} 4.047,292\\ 5.062,333\\ 5.224,377\\ 5.659,462\\ 5.288,500\\ 6.462,000\\ 6,671,000\end{array}$	$12. 61 \\ 11. 84 \\ 13. 26 \\ 12. 96 \\ 13. 65 \\ 13. 4 \\ 13. 8$	252 237 265 259 273 267 27€

¹ No data.

TABLE 134.—Cane and sugar production of undermentioned countries.

Country and year.	Factorics in opera-	Sugar made.	Cane	ugar.	A verage extrac- tion of sugar.	
	tion.	made.	Area har- vested.	A verage per acre.	Quantity worked.	Per ton 1 of cane used.
Argentina: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1912-13 1913-14 1914-15	Number. (1) (1) 39 38 37	Short tons, 163,701 198,515 162,313 304,389 370,324	A cres culti- vated, 178,060 230,866 232,830 263,656 269,833	Shorttons. (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	Short tons. (1) (1) 2,338,594 3,451,321 4,027,067	Pounds. (1) (1) 139 176 184
Australia: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13	53 53 50	253,131 210,292 144,776	Harvested. 100, 237 101, 010 81, 279	$22.36 \\ 18.65 \\ 15.09$	Produced. 2, 240, 849 1, 884, 120 1, 271, 358	226 223 228
Cuba: 1910-11 1911-12 1912-13 1913-14	171 172 171 170	$1,670,151 \\ 2,142,420 \\ 2,737,264 \\ 2,891,281$	Cultivated. (²) (³) 1,340,139 1,334,070	$\binom{2}{\binom{2}{\binom{2}{\binom{2}{\binom{2}{\binom{2}{\binom{2}{\binom{2}$	$\begin{array}{c} 14,736,981\\ 20,679,593\\ 25,137,684\\ 25,644,949 \end{array}$	$\frac{207}{218}$

1 No data.

TABLE 134.—Cane and sugar production of undermentioned countries—Continued.

Country and year.	Factories in opera-	Sugar	Cane	ugar.	Average extrac- tion of sugar.	
	tion.	made.	Area har- vested.	Average per acre.	Quantity worked.	Fer ton of cane used.
Hawaii: 1911-12	Number. (1) (1) 46 45	Short tons. 595,038 546,524 612,000 646,000	A cres culii- vated. 113,000 114,600 112,700 113,200	Shorttons. 42.0 39.0 45.0 46.0	Short tons. 4,774,000 4,476,000 5,094,000 5,185,000	Pounds. 249 244 240 249
Japan: 1910-11. 1911-12. 1912-13. 1912-14.	$13 \\ 14 \\ 17 \\ 16$	72,45475,79768,86772,613	Cultivated. 49, 166 52, 153 51, 293 53, 300	18.49 18.16 17.15 17.91	892,662 941,550 879,624 954,758	- 162 161 157 152
Java (factory plantations): 1910-11. 1911-12. 1912-13.	189 193 191	1,583,178 1,424,657 1,527,584	Harvested. 321,720 336.021 340,739	$\begin{array}{c} 46.\ 43 \\ 40.\ 71 \\ 45.\ 11 \end{array}$	14, 936, 035 13, 679, 962 15, 370, 765	212 203 199
Spain: 1910-11. 1011-12. 1912-13. 1913-14.	27 23 21 22	$22.371 \\ 17.831 \\ 14.585 \\ 8,131$	Cultivated. 11,666 9,983 9,844 4,581	21.9 16.5 15.6 17.4	258, 138 167, 092 153, 707 79, 719	173 213 190 204
United States (Louisiana): 1911-12. 1912-13. 1913-14. 1914-15. 1915-16. 1916-17 (preliminary).	188 126 153 149 136 148	352, 874 153, 573 292, 698 242, 700 137, 500 304, 700	Harvestcā fcr sujar. 310,000 197,000 248,000 213,000 183,000	19.0 11.0 17.0 15.0 11.0	5,887,292 2,162,574 4,214,000 3,199,000 2,018,000 4,172,000	120 142 139 152 138 146

¹ No data.

TABLE 135.—Sugar beets: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915.

		Area.		Production.				
Country.	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915		
NORTH AMERICA.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Short tons.	Short tons.	Charl (and		
United States Canada	580,000 17,000	483,000 12,000	611,000 18,000	5, 886, 000 148, 000	5,585,000 109,000	Short tons. 6,511,000 141,000		
Total	597,000	495,000	629,000	6,034,000	5,694,000	6,652,000		
EUROPE.								
Austria-Hungary: Austria Hungary Croatia-Slavonia. Bosnia-Herzegovina	629,000 439,000 11,000 3,000		$ \begin{array}{c} 1 & 435,000 \\ 266,000 \\ $	7,674,000 5,264,000 98,000 13,000	1 7, 468, 000 4, 425, 000 $^{(2)}$ $^{(2)}$	2,743,000 (2) (2) (2) (2)		
Total Austria-Hungary	1,082,000			13,049,000				
Belgiun Bulgaria Denmark England Fratice Germany Italy Netherlands Roumania	$\begin{array}{c} 130,000\\ 9,000\\ ^3 \ 80,000\\ 4,000\\ 616,000\\ 1,317,000\\ 153,000\\ 149,000\\ 32,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 130,000\\(^2)\\(^2)\\(^2)\\(^2)\\(^3331,000\\1,406,000\\101,000\\1056,000\\37,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 109,000\\ (2)\\ 79,000\\ 2,000\\ 4\ 208,000\\ 917,000\\ 123,000\\ 140,000\\ 34,000 \end{array}$	$1,534,000 \\94,000 \\1,025,000 \\(^2) \\6,547,000 \\18,673,000 \\3,009,000 \\1,835,000 \\311,000$	(2) (2) 1,066,000 (3) 4,4,135,000 18,650,000 1,483,000 2,198,000 248,000	(2) (3) 910,000 (2) 4 1,663,000 (2) 1,639,000 1,839,000 204,000		

¹ Galicia and Bukowina not included.

⁴ No official statistics.
⁵ Census of 1912.
⁴ Exclusive of invaded area, in which 115,900 acres were under sugar beets in 1914.

		Area.		Production.				
Country.	1913	1914	1915	Í 913	1914	1915		
EUROPE-continued.								
Russia: Russia proper Poland Northern Caucasia (Ku- ban).	Acres. 1,578,000 170,000 8,000	A cres. 1,873,000 (¹) 10,000	A cres. 1,871,000 (¹) 11,000	Short tons. 12,119,000 1,399,000 84,000	Short tons. 13,716,000 (¹) 72,000	Short tons. (1) (1) (1)		
Total Russia, European.	1,756,000	1,883,000	1,882,000	13,602,000	13,788,000	(1)		
Serbia Spain . Sweden . Switzerland .	7,000 147,000 71,000 2,000	(1) 79,000 80,000 2,000	(1) (1) 79,000 2,000	7,000 2,956,000 946,000 21,000	(1) 3 709,000 967,000 30,000	(1) (1) 856,000 28,000		
Total.	5,555,000			63,609,000				
Grand total	6,152,000			69, 643, 000				

TABLE 135.—Sugar beets: Area and production of undermentioned countries, 1913-1915-Continued.

No official statistics.
 Beets entered in factories during sugar campaign of 1913-14.
 Beets entered in factories up to December 31, 1914 for sugar campaign of 1914-15.

TEA.

TABLE 136.—Tea: International trade, calendar years, 1913-1915.

["Tea" includes tea leaves only and excludes dust, sweepings, and yerba maté. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).
British India Ceylon China Dutch East Indies Formosa	Pounds. 291, 583 191, 511 192, 122 58, 527 23, 931	Pounds. 292,607 193,584 197,785 70,344 22,936	Pounds. 319,864 233,474	Japan. Singapore Other countries Total	Pounds. 30, 128 1 2, 913 6, 997 797, 712	Pounds. 35,077 2,717 7,787 822,837	Pounds. 41, 44
			IMPO	DRTS.			
Argentina.	4,148	3,103	3,012	Germany.	9,458		10 000

Argentina	4,140	3,103	3,012	Germany	9,458		
Australia	37,349	41,622		Netherlands	12,052	14,244	15,556
Austria-Hungary	3,575			New Zealand	7,069	9,952	9,150
British India	8,653	8,816	12,101	Persia	10.414	6,302	- /
British South Africa	6,567	6,374	6,664	Russia	167,140	172,558	169,667
Canada	35,927	39,035	42,885	Singapore		6,290	
Chile	3,849	2,787	3,017	United Kingdom	305,690	317,664	317,429
China	25,898	22,778	24,337	United States	89,018	97,810	106,106
Dutch East Indies.	7,889	9,127		Other countries	36.685	20,925	
France	2,660	4,366	6,260				
French Indo-China.	5,320	2,634		Total	786.053	786.387	
	.,	,		1	, ,	1	
	-						

¹ Data for 1912.

$\begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$				•							
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	Date.							India pel	orange		
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	JanJune	11_{2}^{1}	$22\frac{3}{4}$	20	39	15	21	18	25	20	Cts. 26 26
$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	JanJune										24 - 24
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	JanJune										24 26
	January. February March. April. May	$15 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ $	22 22 22 22 22	23 23 23 23	39 39 39 39	18 18 19 19	28 33 33 35	(1) (1)	(1)	21 25 27 27	22 27 30 30 30 30
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	JanJune	15	22	23	39	18	35			21	30
$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	August. September October November	18 18 18 18	21 21 21 21 21	23 23 23 23	39 39 39 39	20 20 19 19	40 40 40 40	28 24 24 24 24	32 29 26 26	$27 \\ 24 \\ 24 \\ 24 \\ 24$	31 31 28 26 26 26
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	July-Dec	17	22	23	39	18	40	24	32	24	31
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	January. February March. April May.	18 18 18 18 181 1	21 21 21 21 21	23 23 23 23	39 39 39 39	18 161 16 16 16 16	18 35½ 35 35	26 26 27 27	28 30 30 30	26 27 27 27 27	26 28 30 30 30 30
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Jan.–June	$17\frac{1}{2}$	21	23	39	16	$35\frac{1}{2}$	24	30	24	30
	August. September October November	171 172 171 173	21 21 21 21	23 23 23 23	39 39 39 39	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \end{array} $	35 35 35 35	28 28 28 28	30 30 30 30	28 28 28 28	30 30 30 30 30 30
July-Dec 173 21 23 39 16 35 28 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 3	July-Dec	171	21	23	39	16	35	28	30	28	30

TEA-Continued.

TABLE 137 .-- Tea: Wholesale price per pound, on New York market, 1912-1916.

¹ Nominal.

COFFEE.

TABLE 138.—Coffee: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[The item of coffee comprises unhulled and hulled, roasted, ground, or otherwise prepared, but imitation or "surrogate" coffee and chicory are excluded. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.	Ξ.
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[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).
Belgium . Brazil. British India Colombia. Costa Rica. Dutch East Indies. Guatemala. Haiti Jamaica. Mexico.	Pounds. 24,945 1,754,973 22,073 134,903 28,702 63,799 93,014 57,594 6,518 46,469	1,490,71539,973136,50039,06471,23884,2988,932	2,256,818 22,441 149,423	Netherlands Nicaragua Salvador United States ¹ Venezuela. Other countries Total	63,471 24,842 52,905 142,016 61,603	Pounds. 244,270 22,817 76,425 3,256 48,179 121,350 45,351 2,432,368	Pounds. 372,359 20,134 47,226 137,967

¹ Chiefly from Porto Rico.

² Data for 1912.

COFFEE-Continued.

TABLE 138.—Coffee: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915-Continued.

- IMPORTS. [000 omitted.]

Country.	19r3	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1159 (preli m .).
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	27	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pouuds.
Argentina	32,602	30,925	36,142	Norway	30,193	26,231	53,246
Austria-Hungary	130,960		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Russia	27,862	18,309	20,729
Belgium	118, 195			Singapore	16,527	5,051	
British SouthAfrica	26,910	25,820	32,275	Spain.	33,365	30,280	35,219
Cuba	25,108	17,672	21,215	Sweden	75,484	64,724	
Denmark	36,091			Switzerland	25,470	23,864	29,092
Egypt	13,975	13.116	18,701	United Kingdom	28,100	28,846	32,723
Finland.	28,371	22,438	28,820	United States		1,011,072	1,228,762
France	254, 157	256,658	304,874	Other countries	115,296	84,696	
Germany	371, 131	. ,					
Italy.	63, 194	62,176	88,119	Total	2.615.092	1,997,344	
Netherlands	319,572	275,466	458,314		,, 00=		

¹ Data for 1912.

 TABLE 139.—Coffee: Wholesale price per pound, on the New York and New Orleans markets, 1912-1916.

						New	York						1	Jew C	rlean	s.
Date.	Rio	No. 7.		ntos), 7,	Мо	cha.	Pad	lang.		euta, hed.	Cord	ican loba, hed. ¹	Rio I	No. 7.		ntos). 7.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cts. 13 ⁷ / ₈ 14	$Cts. 15 \\ 15_4^1$	$\begin{array}{c} Cts. \\ 14\frac{1}{4} \\ 14\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$Cts. 151 \\ 161 \\ 164 \\ 164 \\ 164 \\ 161 \\$	Cts. 181/2 181/2	$Cts. 19\frac{1}{2}$ 21	$Cts. 20 \\ 19^{1}_{2}$	Cts. 22 22	$Cts. 15rac{1}{2} 15rac{1}{8}$	$Cts. \ 18^1_2 \ 18^1_2 \ 18^1_2$	$Cts. 17\frac{1}{2}$ $15\frac{3}{4}$	$Cts. \\ 18^{j}_{2} \\ 18^{j}_{2}$	Cts. 1378 1378 1378	$Cts. 15 \\ 15 \\ 15_4^1$	$Cts. 14^{1}_{44} 14^{3}_{44}$	$Cts. 15\frac{5}{5}$ $16\frac{5}{5}$
1913. JanJune. July-Dec	91 87 88	$\frac{14}{11\frac{1}{8}}$	$rac{10rac{7}{8}}{10rac{3}{8}}$	$15\frac{5}{8}$ $13\frac{1}{4}$	18 18	21 20	19 21	22 23	$12 \\ 11^3_4$	$17\frac{3}{4}$ $17\frac{3}{4}$	$ 15 \\ 15 $	$\frac{18}{16rac{1}{2}}$	9 <u>5</u> 9	$14 \\ 11\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{8}$ $10\frac{1}{2}$	15 123
1914. JanJune July-Dec	8 <u>1</u> 6 <u>1</u>	98 978	$10\frac{1}{4}$ $8\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{11_4^3}{12_4^3}$	$17\frac{1}{2}$ $19\frac{1}{2}$	21 30	21 21	$23 \\ 24$	$14\frac{1}{4}$ 11	$ 18 18\frac{1}{4} $	$15\frac{1}{4}$ 12	$16\frac{1}{2}$ $17\frac{1}{3}$	$8\frac{5}{8}$ $6\frac{3}{8}$	$9\frac{3}{4}$ $10\frac{3}{8}$	$10^{1}_{2}_{8\frac{3}{4}}$	$\frac{113}{13\frac{1}{2}}$
1915. January. February. March. April. May June.	745000007777777777777777777777777777777	814 84 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	8 8 8 9 marin	9 9 9_4^1 9_4^1 9_4^1 9 9	$21\frac{1}{2}$ 23 23 23 23 23 23 23	30 30 30 30 30 30 30	21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21	$23\frac{1}{2}\\23\\23\\23\\23\\23\\22$	$\begin{array}{c} 12\frac{1}{4}\\ 12\frac{3}{4}\\ 12\frac{3}{4}\\ 13\\ 11\frac{1}{4}\\ 11\frac{1}{4} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 153\\ 153\\ 151\\ 151\\ 151\\ 151\\ 151\\ 142\\ \end{array}$	$12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ 11^1 \\ 11^1$	$ \begin{array}{r} 141 \\ 141 \\ 141 \\ 14 \\ 14 \\ 14 \\ 131 \\ 2 \end{array} $	71277434 777777777777777777777777777777777	8585816857812 88877812 712	9 8 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	94 94 95 95 95 95 95 95
JanJune	7	81	83	91	$21\frac{1}{2}$	30	21	231	111	$15\frac{3}{4}$	11	$14\frac{1}{2}$	7	85	83	95
July August September October November December	78 7 65 64 7 25 8 7 8	734 738 7107 758 758	843 534 544 54 775 775 775	9 9 8 5 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	$23 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ $	30 27 27 27 27 27 27 27	$\begin{array}{c} 21 \\ 21 \\ 21 \\ 21 \\ 221 \\ 22\frac{1}{2} \\ 22\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	22 22 22 23 23 23 23	$\begin{array}{c} 111_{4}^{1} \\ 11 \\ 11 \\ 11 \\ 111_{2} \\ 111_{2}^{1} \\ 111_{2}^{1} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 14\frac{1}{2}\\ 14\frac{1}{2}\\ 14\\ 15\\ 15\frac{1}{4}\\ 15\frac{1}{4}\\ 15\frac{1}{4}\\ 15\frac{1}{4}\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11 \\ 11 \\ 10^1 \\ 10^1 \\ 11^1 \\ 11^1 \\ 11^2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13 \\ 13 \\ 13 \\ 13 \\ 13 \\ 13 \\ 13 \\ 13 $	$\begin{array}{c} 7_8^3 \\ 7_8^7 \\ 6_8^7 \\ 7_1^2 \\ 7_8^2 \\ 7_8^2 \end{array}$	$7^{1}_{73}_{73}_{74}_{73}_{73}_{73}_{73}_{73}_{73}_{73}_{73$	8777775151515	0 7 7 7 7 2 L
July-Dec	63	$7\frac{7}{8}$	73	9	23	30	21	23	11	$15\frac{1}{4}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	$13\frac{1}{2}$	67.	8	78	9
1916. January. February March. April. May. June.	788-14-1994 999999	8-3858997878 9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-	77835 9 9 9 9 9	8135598 958998 958995 9575 958	$25 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 1$	$27 \\ 27 \\ 22\frac{1}{2} \\ 22\frac{1}{2} \\ 22\frac{1}{2} \\ 22 \\ 22 \\ 22 \\ 22 \\ 22 \\ 22 \\ 22 $	$\begin{array}{c} 22\frac{1}{2}\\ 22\frac{1}{2}\\ 22\frac{3}{2}\\ 25\\ 26\\ 26\\ 26\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23 \\ 23 \\ 26 \\ 26\frac{1}{2} \\ 26\frac{1}{2} \\ 26\frac{1}{2} \\ 26\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$11\frac{1}{12}\\12\\12\frac{1}{12}\\13\\13\\12$	$\begin{array}{c} 151\\ 16\\ 161\\ 161\\ 161\\ 161\\ 161\\ 161\\ $	$11\frac{1}{12}\\12\\12\frac{1}{13}\\12\frac{1}{2}\\12\frac{1}{2}\\12$	$1334 \\ 14 \\ 145 \\ 145 \\ 145 \\ 145 \\ 144 \\ 14 \\ 1$	75555 91519 91519 91519 91519 91519 91519	81 91 93 93 94 94 95 95 95 95	8-5-9-9-3-4-1-8 9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9-9	8 5 9 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5
JanJune	73	97	77	97	19	27	$22\frac{1}{2}$	26^{1}_{2}	11^{1}_{2}	16^{1}_{2}	113	$14\frac{1}{2}$	78	10%		10
July August September October November December	9 92 92 92 92 92 92	91 97 101 98 98 98 98 98	$\begin{array}{c} 9\frac{1}{2}\\ 9\frac{1}{2}\\ 9\frac{1}{2}\\ 10\frac{1}{3}\\ 9\frac{1}{3}\\ 9\frac{1}{3}$	$\begin{array}{r} 93\\10\\3\\11\\10\\4\\10\\10\\1\\0\\4\\10\\4\\10\\4\\10\\$	$ \begin{array}{r} 19 \\ 183 \\ 1$	$20\frac{1}{2}$ $20\frac{1}{2}$ 20 20 20 20 20 20 20	25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25	$ \begin{array}{r} 261 \\ 26 \\ 26 \\ 26$	$\begin{array}{c} 12\\ 12\\ 12\\ 12\\ 12_4^1\\ 12_4^1\\ 12_4^1\\ 12_4^1\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 143 \\ 145 \\$		$\begin{array}{c} 131\\ 13\frac{1}{4}\\ 13\frac{1}{4}\\ 13\frac{1}{4}\\ 13\frac{1}{4}\\ 13\\ 13\end{array}$	89496 x 000 900 1 -	98 10% 10% 10% 97 97	91 98 101 105 97 97	10 101 102 108 101 108
July-Dec	9	10^{1}_{8}	$9\frac{1}{2}$	11	183	$20\frac{1}{2}$	25	26^{1}_{2}	12	1.13	$11\frac{1}{2}$	$13\frac{1}{2}$	87	101	9^{1}_{4}	103

¹ Prices nominal because of small arrivals (January to September, inclusive).

OIL CAKE AND OIL-CAKE MEAL.

TABLE 140.-Oil cake and oil-cake meal: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[The class called here "oil cake and oil-cake meal" includes the edible cake and meal remaining after making oil from such products as cotton seed, flaxseed, peanuts, corn, etc. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000	omitted.]	
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Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).
Argentina. Austria-Hungary Belgium . British India. Canada. China . Denmark . Egypt. France. Germany.	Pounds. 46, 191 111, 252 125, 241 400, 818 65, 530 175, 073 21, 061 138, 839 473, 550 648, 536	334,141 30,567 183,581 176,339 396,644	Pounds. 46,215 335,901 32,730 164,212 246,183 244,884	Other countries	Pounds. 43,401 27,848 228,492 1,620,106 52,741 1,952,184 97,345 6,228,208	Pounds. 120,695 110,882 948,526 73,295 1,579,171 53,484 4,045,692	Pounds. 12,659 160,666 25,829 1,458,452

IMPORTS.

Austria-Hungary 79,860 Belgium 567,391 Canada 11,090 Denmark 1,250,972 Dutch East Indies. 465 Finland 223,928 Germany 1,286,618	15,625 22,215 1,560	Japan Netherlands Norway Sweden Switzerland United Kingdom Other countries	$\begin{array}{c} 284,310\\ 766,498\\ 66,407\\ 351,106\\ 54,955\\ 904,606\\ 21,776\end{array}$	256,968 564,275 83,716 284,538 38,818 731,264 32 ,506	197, 822 538, 478 71, 156 38, 226 936, 681
Italy	2,471 5,997	Total	6, 442, 035	2, 195, 738	

ROSIN.

TABLE 141.—Rosin: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

(For rosin, only the resinous substance known as "rosin" in the exports of the United States, is taken. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 1915 (prelim.). (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 1915 (prelim.). (prelim.
Austria-Hungary Belgium France Germany Greece Netherlands	Pounds. 2,327 57,491 90,159 56,884 3,982 59,713	Pounds. Pound	Russia ¹ Spain United States Other countries Total	Pounds. 18,328 729,419 3,394 1,021,697	Pounds. Pounds 19,148 29,4 489,580 387,1 5,917 687,889

IMPORTS.

Argentina	43,906	35,463	45,487	Italy	39,918	32,978	54, 541
Australia	16,924	8,450		Japan	15,649	10,669	17,809
Austria-Hungary!	74,208			Netherlands	79,452	77,809	
Belgium	82,426			Norway	8,104	6,602	13,256
Brazil	41,730	29,340	40,682	Roumania	4,811		
British India	5,705	3,535	3,914	Russia	81,373	64,030	21,238
Canada	28,462	22,883	27,314	Serbia ²	586		
Chile	7,832	4,515	4,200	Spain	683	645	431
Cuba	4,771	4,239	5,391	Switzerland	5,209	4,236	7,723
Denmark	3,513			United Kingdom	187,934	154,655	173,360
Dutch East Indies."	17,287	15,448		Other countries	17,928	10,170	
Finland	7,594	4,923	5,103				
France	1,966	1,256	569	Total	990, 197	491.846	
Germany	212, 226				,		

¹ In former editions of the Yearbook exports from Russia of smola drevyesnaya (tar), were erroneously included in this table as "rosin." ² Data for 1911.

TURPENTINE.

TABLE 142.— Turpentine (spirits): International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

["Spirits of turpentine" includes only "spirits" or "oil" of turpentine and, for Russia, *skipidar*: it excludes crude turpentine, pitch, and, for Russia, *terpentin*. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)
Belgium France. Germany Netherlands Russia.	Gallons. 1,693 2,990 578 4,112 2,269	Gallons. 2,004 2,883 1,337	Gallons. 1, 475 7 113	Spain United States Other countries Total	Gallons. 1,329 20,018 741 33,730	Gallons. 1,052 11,118 617 19,011	Gallons: 922 10,624

IMPORTS.

Argentina Australia	$524 \\ 2,668 \\ 2,994 \\ 1,253 \\ 180 \\ 10,726 \\ 1,061 $	489 471 1,152 140 874 3,632	524 1,113 114 	New Zealand Russia Sweden Switzerland United Kingdom Other countries Total	200 363 158 592 8,356 1,161 36 ,998	81 243 110 375 5,031 783 13,381	130 180 395 7,446
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INDIA RUBBER.

TABLE 143.-India rubber: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[Figures for india rubber include "india rubber," so called, and caoutchouc, caucho, jebe (Peru), hule (Mexico), borracha, massarunduba, mangabeira, manicoba, sorua and seringa (Brazil), gomelastick (Dutch East Indies), caura, sernambi (Venezuela). See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.)
	Pounds.		Pounds.		Pounds.	Pounds.	1
Angola	4,458			Kamerun			
Belgian Kongo				Mexico Netherlands	8,549 12,368	11 665	
Belgium Bolivia				Peru.		5,009	
Brazil	79,876	73,924	77,525	Senegal.	193	3,003	
Ceylon	27,518	37,344	48,804	Singapore	1 8,472	28,474	
Dutch East Indies.	15,910			Nigeria	7,505		
Ecuador	428			Negri Sembilan	8,951	11,881	18.31
France	20,733	14,358	5,148	Perak	17,160	24,732	37,32
French Guinea	3,209			Selangor	26,618	32,041	43,05 38
French Kongo		397		Venezuela	527	252	
Germany	8,756			Other countries	2,161	26,164	
Gold Coast							
Ivory Coast	2,121	301		Total	312,967	310, 324	

IMPORTS.

			1	
Austria-Hungary Belgium Canada. Franco Germany	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Russia United Kingdom United States Other countries	56, 617 115, 881 1	25,086 23,040 41,596 33,760 43,065 221,482 30,925
Italy. Netherlands	6, 271 6, 733 11, 833 17, 723 15, 695	Total	366,160 2	93, 707

SILK.

TABLE 144.—Production of raw silk in undermentioned countries, 1911-1915.

[Estimates of the	e Silk	Merchants'	Union	of Lyons,	France.]
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· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·					
Country.	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915 (prelimi- nary).
Western Europe: Italy France. Spain. Austria. Hungary.	Pounds. 7, 694, 000 886, 000 194, 000 772, 000	$\begin{cases} Pounds. \\ 9,050,000 \\ 1,113,000 \\ 172,000 \\ 410,000 \\ 238,000 \end{cases}$	Pounds. 7, 804, 000 772, 000 181, 000 331, 000 271, 000	Pounds. 8, 950, 000 893, 000 161, 000 388, 000 278, 000	Pounds. 6, 345, 000 287, 000 110, 000 225, 000 143, 000
Total	9, 546, 000	10,983,000	9,359,000	10,670,000	7, 110, 000
Levant and Central Asia: Broussa and Anatolia Syria and Cyprus. Other Provinces of Asiatic Turkey Turkey in Europe ¹ Saloniki and Adrianople Balkan States (Bulgaria, Serbia, and	1, 290, 000 1, 157, 000 353, 000 827, 000	844,000 882,000 254,000 573,000	$1,025,000 \\ 1,080,000 \\ 298,000 \\ 187,000$	761,000 948,000 242,000 132,000	386,000 772,000 143,000 66,000
Roimania) Greece, Saloniki, ¹ and Crete Caucasus. Persia (exports) Turkestan (exports) ²	375,000 137,000 1,058,000 } 1,329,000	$\begin{cases} 320,000\\ 110,000\\ 871,000\\ 500,000\\ 569,000 \end{cases}$	298,000 408,000 849,000 463,000 496,000	386,000 309,000 794,000 176,000 187,000	$\begin{array}{c} 220,000\\ 176,000\\ 276,000\\ 88,000\\ 110,000 \end{array}$
Total	6, 526, 000	4,923,000	5, 104, 000	3, 935, 000	2, 237, 000
Far East: China— Exports from Shanghai Exports from Canton Japan—	3, 814, 000	14, 198, 000 4, 983, 000	12,709,000 6,063,000	9, 116, 000 4. 233, 000	12, 213, 000 4, 321, 000
Exports from Yokohama British India— Exports from Bengal and Cashmere		23, 957, 000 370, 000	26,720,000 249,000	20,922,000	24, 802, 000 179, 000
Indo-China— Exports from Saigon, Haiphong, etc	35,000	33,000	26,000	35,000	31,000
Total	38,095,000	43, 541, 000	45, 767, 000	34, 381, 000	41, 546, 000
Grand total	54, 167, 000	59, 447, 000	60, 230, 000	48, 986, 000	50,893,000

Prior to 1913 Turkey in Europe included the Vilayet of Saloniki, which now belongs to Greece.
 Including "Central Asia" subsequent to 1911.

TABLE 145. — Total production of raw silk in countries mentioned in Table 144, 1900-1915.

Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.	Year.	Production.
1900 1901 1902 1953 1904 1905	Pounds. 40, 724, 000 42, 393, 000 41, 368, 000 39, 981, 000 45, 195, 000 41, 513, 000	1906 1907 1908 1909 1909 1910	Pounds. 46, 106, 000 48, 634, 000 53, 087, 000 54, 035, 000 54, 002, 000	1911. 1912. 1913. 1914. 1915 (preliminary).	Pounds. 54, 167, 000 59, 447, 000 60, 230, 000 48, 986, 000 50, 893, 000

Statistics of Wood Pulp.

WOOD PULP.

TABLE 146.—Wood pulp: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[All kinds of pulp from wood have been taken for this item, but no pulp made from other fibrous substances. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.).	1915 (prelim.).
Austria-Hungary Belgium Canada Finland Germany Norway Russia	74,351 596,339 278,907 412,195	849,766 221,420	Pounds. 728, 341 213, 843 1, 614, 870	Sweden Switzerland United States Other countries Total	$\begin{array}{r} 14,659\\ 39,552\\ 136,540\end{array}$	Pounds. 2,054,813 15,573 24,674 121,167 4,701,227	Pounds. 22,877 40,575

Germany Italy	13,377291,900130,6541,025,025121,124212,241	702,640	627, 499 135, 084	Russia 58,770 62,860 176,7 Spain 134,352 87,233 111,3 Sweden 10,001 10,616 Switzerland 26,602 16,115 21,8 United Kingdom 21,63,077 2,201,302 2,131,9 United States 1,052,914 1,351,130 1,145,7 Other countnes 197,245 205,803
Japan Portugal			119,307	Total

IMPORTS.



LIVE STOCK, 1916, AND MISCELLANEOUS DATA.

FARM ANIMALS AND THEIR PRODUCTS.

TABLE 147.-Live stock in principal and other countries.

[Latest census or other official figures available, with comparison for earlier years. Census returns are in italics; other official figures are in Roman type.]

Country.	Date.	Cattle.	Buffa- loes.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	Horses.	Mules.	Asses.
United States: On farms	Jan. 1, 1917 Jan. 1, 1916 Jan. 1, 1915 Apr. 15, 1910 Apr. 15, 1910	Thou- sand. 63,617 61,920 58,329 61,804 1,879	Thou- sand.	Thou- sand. 67,453 67,766 64,618 58,186 1,288	Thou- sand. 48,483 48,625 49,956 52,448 391	Thou- sand. (1) (1) (1) 2,915 115	Thou- sand. 21, 126 21, 159 21, 195 19, 833 3, 183	Thou- sand. 4,639 4,593 4,479 4,210 270	Thou- sand. (1) (1) (1) (1) 106 17
Alaska (on farms and not on farms)	Jan. 1,1910	1	2 22	(3)	(3)	(3)	2	(3)	(3)
Hawaii (on farms and not on farms)	Apr. 15, 1910	149		31	77	5	28	9	3
Porto Rico (on farms and not on farms) Algeria		<i>\$16</i>		106 114 109 91 82 84	6 8,338 9,042 9,063 6,724 7,892	49 3,772 3,990 4,030 3,563	58 221 230 221 202	5 192 192 174 147	1 271 276 278 263
Argentina	Dec. 31, 1913 May 1, 1908 May, 1895 1888	30,796 29,124 21,702 21,962		3,197 1,404 653 394	81,485 67,584 74,380 66,706	3,545 4,564 3,947 2,749 1,894	217 9,366 7,538 4,447 4,234	142 584 465 285 41	287 345 285 198 7
Australia	Dec. 31,1915 Dec. 31,1914	9,924 11,051		760 862	69,706 78,600	4 262	$2,395 \\ 2,521$	(1) 4	S (1)
	Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1905 Dec. 31, 1900 Dec. 31, 1895 1890	11,745 8,528 8,640 11,767 10,300		1,026 1,015 950 823 891	92,047 74,541 70,603 90,690 97,881	$ \begin{array}{c} 314 \\ (^{1}) \\ (^{1}) \\ (^{1}) \\ (^{1}) \\ (^{1}) \end{array} $	2,166 1,675 1,610 1,680 1,522	(1) (1) (1) (1)	
Austria-Hungary: Austria	Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1900 Dec. 31, 1890	9,159 9,511 8,644	(1) (1) (1)	6,432 4,683 3,550	2,428 2,621 3,187	1 257 1,020 1,036	1,803 1,716 1,548	21 20 17	5 3 46 41
Hungary	Dec. 31, 1880 Apr., 1913 Feb. 28, 1911 Nov. 20, 1895	8,584 6,045 6, 5,6	830	2,722 6,825 6,416 6,447	3,841 6,560 7,698 7,527	1,007 269 331 237	1,463 2,005 2,001 1,997	50 1 1 23	16 18
Croatia-Slavonia	1884 Mar. 24, 1911 Dec. 31, 1895		879 135	4,804	10,595 850	270 96	1,749 350	20	
Bosnia - Herzego- vina	Nov. 10 1910	1,309)9 1	883 527	596 2,499	22 1,393	311 222	(3)	£ G
Dalaium	{Apr. 22 May 22}1895	1,416	1	662	3,231	1,447	231	1	δ
Belgium	Dec. 31, 1913 Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1895 Dec. 31, 1880	1,849 1,880 1,421 1,383	• • • • • • • • • •	1,412 1,494 1,163 646	(1) 185 236 365	(1) 218 241 (1)	267 317 272 272	(1) [1] (1) (1) (1)	(1)
Brazil. Bulgaria	1913 Dec. 31,1910 Dec. 31,1905 Dec. 31,1900	30,705 1,603 1,696 1,596	415 477 431	18,399 527 465 368	10,653 8,632 8,131 7,015 6,868	10,049 1,459 1,384 1,405	7,289 478 538 495	3,2 1? 12 9	08 118 124 107
Canada	Dec. 31, 1892 June 30, 1916 June 30, 1915 June 1, 1911 June 31, 1901 1891 1881	1,426 5,917 6,066 6,533 5,576 4,121 3,515	3 42	462 2,815 3,112 3,610 2,354 1,734 1,203	1,965 2,039 2,175 2,510 2,564	$ \begin{array}{c} 1,264 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \end{array} $	344 2,991 2,996 2,596 1,577 1,471	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ (1) $	82 (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)
¹ No official statis		Reinde			8,049 ss than 5	(1)	1,059	(¹) c 31 101	(1)

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

1 No official statistics.

² Reindeer.

³ Less than 500.

⁴ Dec. 31, 1913.

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TABLE 147.-Live stock in principal and other countries-Continued.

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES-Continued.

Country.	Date.	Cattle.	Buffa- loes.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	Horses.	Mules.	Asses.
Denmark	Feb. 29, 1916 May 15, 1915 July 15, 1914 July 15, 1909 July 15, 1903 July 15, 1898	Thou- sand. 2,290 2,417 2,463 2,254 1,840 1,745 1,572	Thou- sand.	Thou- sand. 1,983 1.919 2,497 1,468	Thou- sand. 255 533 515 727	Thou- sand. (1) (1) (1) 41 40	Thou- sand. 515 526 568 535	Thou- sand. (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	Thou- sand. (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)
Finland	1910 1905 1900	1,481	² 120 ² 142 ² 119	1,457 1,168 418 220 211	877 1,074 1,309 938 985	39 32 13 6 8	487 449 361 324 311	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1)
France	1890 ³ July 1,1916 ³ Dec. 31,1915 ³ Dec. 31,1914	$\begin{array}{c c} 1, 120 \\ 1, 305 \\ 12, 724 \\ 12, 514 \\ 12, 668 \\ 12, 668 \end{array}$	2 86	$ \begin{array}{r} 194 \\ 4,448 \\ 4,916 \\ 5,000 \end{array} $	$1,054 \\ 12.079 \\ 12,379 \\ 14,038$	$15 (1) \\ 1,230 \\ 1,317$	$293 \\ 2,317 \\ 2,156 \\ 2,105 \\ 2,05 \\ 105$	(1) 163 144 152	(1) 317 324 337
Germany	Dec. 31, 1913 Dec. 31, 1910 Nov. 30, 1892 Dec. 1, 1910 Dec. 1, 1914 Dec. 1, 1914 Dec. 2, 1912 Dec. 2, 1907 Dec. 1, 1904 Dec. 1, 1904 Dec. 1, 1904 Dec. 1, 1897	$\begin{array}{c} 14,807\\ 14,533\\ 14,521\\ 13,709\\ 12,997\\ 12,812\\ 20,317\\ 21,829\\ 20,994\\ 20,182\\ 20,631\\ 19,332\\ 18,940\\ 18,491 \end{array}$		5,926 7,048 6,900 6,740 7,421 7,147 6,038 17,287 25,341 25,659 21,924 22,147 18,921 16,807 14,275	16,213 17,111 20,180 21,116 23,809 29,530 5,073 5,471 5,521 5,803 7,704 7,907 9,693 10,867	1,453 1,418 1,558 1,845 1,851 1,726 3,438 3,538 3,548 3,548 3,534 3,534 3,267 (¹)	3,231 3,198 2,903 2,95 2,838 2,914 4 5,842 4 5,842 3,227 4,523 4,523 4,523 4,267 4,038 5,850	$ \begin{array}{c} 193\\ 193\\ 205\\ $217\\ 251\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ 1\\ (1)\\ 1\\ 1\\ (1)\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\$	360 361 356 <i>569</i> 296 (¹) (¹) (¹) (¹) (¹) 3
Greece	Dec. 1, 1892 Jan. 10, 1883 1914	300	(1)	12,174 9,206 227	13,590 19,190 3,547	3, <i>692</i> 3,641 2,638	$3,836 \\ 3,523 \\ 149$	10 80	(¹) 133
British	1913–14 1910–11 1904–5 1899–1900	^{5125,042} ^{594,664} ^{577,111} ^{572,666}	618,235 616,628 612,871 612,120 611,826 61,765 61,559 61,347	(1) (1) (1) (1)	23,092 22,922 17,562 17,805	30, 673 28, 518 24, 803 19, 005	1,643 1,524 1,278 1,308		1,501 1,342 1,177 227
Native states 7	$\begin{array}{r} 1894 - 95 \\ 1913 - 14 \\ 1909 - 10 \\ 1904 - 5 \end{array}$	⁵ 67,045 ⁵ 12,236 ⁵ 10,391 ⁵ 8,178	6 11, 826 6 1, 765 6 1, 559 6 1, 347 6 1, 228	(1) (1) (1) (1)	17,805 17,260 8, 7, 6,	15,272 306	$1,134 \\ 175 \\ 141 \\ 92$	1,1	102 181 155 129
Italy	1900-1 1914 Mar. 10, 1908 Feb. 13, 1881	6, 199	646	(1) 2,722 2,508	4, 13, 11,163	824 2,715		2,235 388	800
Japanese Empire: Japan	Dec. 31, 1914 Dec. 31, 1913 Dec. 31, 1910 Dec. 31, 1910	1,387 1,389 1,384	$ \begin{array}{c} 11 \\ (^1) \\ (^1) \\ (^1) \\ (^1) \\ (^1) \end{array} $	1,164 332 310 279 228	8,596 3 3 3 4	2,016 95 89 92 72	658 1,579 1,582 1,565	(1)	(1) (1) (1)
Chosen (Korca) Formosa (Taiwan)	Dec. 31, 1900 Dec. 31, 1913 Dec. 31, 1913	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		181 761	2	60 10	$ \begin{array}{r} 1,565 \\ 1,368 \\ 1,542 \\ 51 \\ 51 \end{array} $	(1) (1) (1) (1)	
Formosa(Taiwan)	Dec. 31, 1910	2	(1) 398	566 1,313	(8)	7 125	40 (⁸)	(1)	(1)
Mexico. Netherlands	May 1915	0,142	341	1,0186161,4871,350	(8) 3,424 (1) 842	$ \begin{array}{c} 108 \\ 4,206 \\ (^1) \\ 232 \end{array} $	(8) 859 (1) 334	33.4 (1) (1)	288 (1) (1)
New Zealand	June, 1913 <i>May</i> 201 <i>June</i> 201 <i>June</i> 201 <i>June</i> 201 1910 Dec. 31, 1904 Dec. 31, 1900 Dec. 31, 1900 Apr. 30, 1916 <i>Apr.</i> 30, 1916 <i>Apr.</i> 30, 1905 Oct., 1905 Oct., 1900 Oct., 1900	2,020 1,811		1,260 862 747 579 349 250 251	889 607 771 819 24,608 23,996 19,131	224 166 180 165 6 	227 295 295 273 404 327 266	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (8) (8) (8)	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (8) (8) (8)
	Apr., 1895 1895 1891	1.048		240	19, 827 18, 128		237	(⁸) (⁸) (⁸)	(°) (8) (8)

No official statistics.
 Reindeer.
 Excludes invaded area.
 Excluding Army horses.

⁶ Including calves and young buffaloes.
⁶ Not including young buffaloes.
⁷ Figures incomplete.
⁸ Less than 500.

Statistics of Farm Animals and Their Products.

TABLE 147.-Live stock in principal and other countries-Continued.

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES-Continued.

Country.	Da	ate.	Cattle.	Buffa- lces.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	Horses.	Mules.	Asses.
Norway Philippine Islands	Sept. : Sept. : Sept. :	30, 1915 30, 1914 30, 1910 30, 1907 1900 1890 31, 1915 31, 1910 \$1, 1902	$\begin{array}{c} Thou\\sand.\\1,121\\1,146\\1,134\\1,089\\950\\1,006\\534\\270\end{array}$	Thou- sand. (¹) (¹) (¹) ² 143 ² 109 ² 170 1, 222 757	Thou- sand. 209 228 334 807 165 121 2,521 1,682	Thou- sand. 1,330 1,327 1,398 1,391 999 1,418 129 94	Thou- sand. 240 237 288 296 215 272 644 441	Thou- sand. 186 182 168 164 173 151 223 143	Thou- sand. (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	Thou- sand. (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)
Portugal	Dec. a Oct.,	1906	128 703	(1) (1)	1,179 1,111	50 3,073	$124 \\ 1,034$	144 88	(1) .58	(1) 144
Roumania	Apr.,	1870 1916	625 2,	938 667	$971 \\ 1,382 \\ 1,021$	2,977 7,811	937 301	87 1,219	(³)	138 12
	Dcc.,	1911 1907 <i>1900</i> 1890 1884	2,	585 44 520 376	1,021 1,124 1,709 926 886	5,269 5,105 <i>5</i> , <i>655</i> 5,002 4,655	$187 \\ 191 \\ 233 \\ 210 \\ 245$	825 808 864 595 533	1	4 5 7 2
Russian Empire: Russia, European		1913 1910 1900 1890	01 074	2605 2462 2350 (1)	13,45812,04911,7619,5549,265	$\begin{array}{c} 41,426\\ 40,734\\ 47,628\\ 46,052\\ 45,522 \end{array}$	$873 \\ 857 \\ 1,017 \\ (^1)$	$22,771 \\ 21,868 \\ 19,744 \\ 19,779 \\ 15,534$	6 5 1 (³)	7 2 2 (³)
Poland	summer.	1881 1913 1910 1900 1890 4 1881	$\begin{array}{c} 31,974\\ 31,315\\ 31,661\\ 25,528\\ 22,122\\ 2,011\\ 2,301\\ 2,823\\ 3,013\\ 5,055\\ \end{array}$	(1) (3) (3) (3) (3) (3) (3)	9,2654916121,4021,499706	$\begin{array}{r} 45,522\\ 683\\ 1,050\\ 2,823\\ 3,755\\ 3,375\end{array}$	1, 157 9 9 11 (¹) 10	$15,534 \\ 1,116 \\ 1,222 \\ 1,392 \\ 1,207 \\ 1,037$	(3) (3) (3) (3) (3) (1)	(3) (3) (3) (3) (1) (1)
Russia, Asiatic (33 govern- ments of the Caucusus, Cen- tral Asia, and	In							1,0.57	(1)	(1)
tral Asia, and Siberia)	Dec.	1913 <i>\$1,1910</i>	18,404 <i>957</i>	(¹) 7	2,895 866	38,696 3,819	$4,791 \\ 631$	11,959 153) 1	(¹) 1
Spain		31, 1905 1914 1913 31, 1910 31, 1906	963 2,743 2,879 2,369 2,497	7	$\begin{array}{c} 908 \\ 2,810 \\ 2,710 \\ 2,424 \\ 2,080 \\ 1,928 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3,160\\ 16,128\\ 16,441\\ 15,117\\ 13,481\\ 13,359\\ 993 \end{array}$	510 3,265 3,394 3,216 2,440 2,534	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1 984 948 886 802	1 849 868 744
Sweden	Dec. Dec.	1891 31, 1914 31, 1913 31, 1910 31, 1905 1900 1890	2,309 2,497 2,218 2,761 2,721 2,748 2,550 2,583 2,583 2,399 1,616	² 273 ² 226 ² 232 ² 288	1,928 1,015 968 957 830 806 645	$ \begin{array}{r} 13,359\\993\\988\\1,004\\1,074\\1,261\\1,351\end{array} $	2, 534 77 71 69 67 80 87	397 603 596 587 555 533	768 $(^{1})$ $(^{1})$ $(^{1})$ $(^{1})$ $(^{1})$ $(^{1})$	$\begin{array}{c} 754 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \end{array}$
Switzerland	Apr. Apr. Apr. Apr.	19, 1916 21, 1911 20, 1906 19, 1901 1912	$ \begin{array}{c} 2,399\\ 1,616\\ 1,443\\ 1,498\\ 1,340\\ (^1) \end{array} $		544 570 549 555	172 161 210 219	358 341 362 355	487 137 144 135 125	(1) 3 3 3 3	1 2 2 2
Turkey. European and Asiatic. Union of South Africa.		1910 1905 31, 1913	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ (1) \\ (1) \end{pmatrix}$	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	$ \begin{array}{c c} 73 \\ 175 \\ 196 \\ (^1) \\ 1,082 \end{array} $	27,095 27,662 23,614 35,711 30,657 16,\$23	20,269 21,283 16,411 11,521 11,763 9,771	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) 719	(1) (1) (1) (1) 94	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1)
United Kingdom: Great Britain	June	7, 1911 1904 5, 1916	5,797 3,500 7,442	(1) (1)	679	24,990	(1)	450	135 (1)	(1) (1)
Iroland	June June June June June June June June	$\begin{array}{c} 3, 1915\\ 4, 1915\\ 4, 1915\\ 4, 1910\\ 4, 1900\\ 4, 1890\\ 4, 1890\\ 4, 1890\\ 4, 1890\\ 1, 1915\\ 1, 1915\\ 1, 1915\\ 1, 1913\\ 1, 1910\\ 1, 1900\\ 1, 1890\\ 1, 1880\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7,288\\ 7,093\\ 6,964\\ 7,037\\ 6,805\\ 6,509\\ 5,912\\ 4,970\\ 4,844\\ 5,052\\ 4,933\\ 4,689\\ 4,609\\ 4,241\end{array}$		$\begin{array}{c} 2,315\\ 2,579\\ 2,634\\ 2,350\\ 2,382\\ 2,744\\ 2,001\\ 1,290\\ 1,205\\ 1,306\\ 1,060\\ 1,200\\ 1,200\\ 1,570\\ 850\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 24,598\\ 24,286\\ 23,931\\ 27,103\\ 26,592\\ 27,272\\ 26,619\\ 3,764\\ 3,600\\ 3,601\\ 3,621\\ 3,980\\ 4,387\\ 4,324\\ 3,561\\ \end{array}$	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (2) (1) (2)	$\begin{array}{c} 1,213\\ 1,296\\ 1,324\\ 1,545\\ 1,500\\ 1,432\\ 1,421\\ 599\\ 561\\ 619\\ 614\\ 613\\ 567\\ 585\\ 557\end{array}$	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (2) 31 30 31 31 30 25	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (230 245

³ No official statistics. ² Reindeer,

³ Less than 500.
⁴ Exclusive of the Government of Radom.

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TABLE 147.—Live stock in principal and other countries—Continued.

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES-Continued.

$\begin{array}{l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l $			011111 0							
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Country.	Date.	Cattle.		Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	Horses.	Mules.	Asses.
Azores and Madeira Islands	Continued. Isle of Man and ChannelIslands	1908 1900	sand. 40 8,193 6,827		sand. 11 180 94	sand. 78 26,286 18,609	sand. (¹) 20 20	sand. 10 556 561	sand. (¹) 18 2	sand. (1)
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			OTHEI	R COU	NTRIE	s.			· · · · ·	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Islands. Bachtoland. Bachtoland. Bechnanaland Pro- lectorate. British East Africa ² . British East Africa ² . British Cuiana Ceylon. Chile. Colta Rica. Colta Rica. Freedo Holdor. Colta Rica. Freedo Rica. Freedo Rica. Colta Rica. Colta Rica. Freedo Rica. Colta Rica. German East Africa. German East Africa. German S. W. Africa. Honduras. Icel.and Jamaica. Luxenburg. Madogascar. Mat. Matritius. Mat. Nasaland Protecto- rate. Panama. Rica. Rica. Nasaland Protecto- rate. Salvador.	$\begin{bmatrix} 1911 \\ 1910 \\ 1911 \\ 1910 \\ 0 \\ Mar. 31, 1915 \\ 1914 \\ Dec. 31, 1914 \\ 1914 \\ Dec. 31, 1915 \\ 1905 \\ Dec. 13, 1914 \\ 1905 \\ 1905 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1914 \\ 1915 \\ 1905 \\ 1915 \\ 1915 \\ 1915 \\ 1915 \\ 1905 \\ 1915 \\ 1915 \\ 1905 \\ 1915 \\ $	$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	(1) (3) (4) (4) (4) (4) (1) (1) (2) (2) (2) (2) (4) (3) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4	$\begin{array}{c} 93\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ 114\\ 4\\ 111\\ 84\\ 221\\ 64\\ (1)\\ 64\\ (1)\\ (2)\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (4)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1$	$ \begin{array}{c} 87\\ 1,369\\ 32\\ 1,455\\ 6,555\\ 20\\ 64\\ 4,602\\ (^3)\\ (^1)\\ (^2)\\ (^3)\\ (^1)\\ (^$	$ \begin{array}{c} (^1) \\ 58 \\ 473 \\ 4,020 \\ 15 \\ 190 \\ 299 \\ 1 \\ (^1) \\ (^1$	$\begin{array}{c} 88\\ 97\\ 2\\ 1\\ 4\\ 458\\ 52\\ 52\\ 673\\ 40\\ 3\\ (1)\\ (3)\\ (4)\\ (3)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (4)\\ (3)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (4)\\ (3)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (1)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (2)\\ (3)\\ 17\\ 74\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (7)\\ 74\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (7)\\ 74\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (3)\\ (3)$	$(1) \\ 4 \\ (4) \\ 2 \\ (1) \\ 38 \\ 2 \\ 50 \\ 68 \\ (1) \\ (3) \\ 22 \\ (1) \\ (3) \\ 22 \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (2) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (2) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ (2) \\ (1) \\ (2) \\ (1) \\ (2) \\ (1) \\ (2) \\ (1) \\ (2) \\ (1) \\ (2) \\ (1) \\ (2)$	$\begin{bmatrix} 174 \\ (^1) & 6 \\ (1) & 33 \\ (^3) & 3 \\ (^1) & (^1) \\ (^1) & (^1) \\ (^1) & (^1) \\ ($
¹ No official statistics. ² Figures incomplete. ³ Less than 500. ⁴ Zebus.	Straits Settlements Swaziland Togo ² . Trinidad and Tobago. Tunis. U ganda Protectorate ² Venezuela.	$egin{array}{c} 1914\\ 1915\\ 1913\\ 1914\\ July \ 51, 1915\\ 1914\\ 1912 \end{array}$	40 99 65 13 269 843 2,004	(1)	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	$ \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ (1) \\ 2 \\ 1, 119 \\ 6 \\ 177 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c c} 00 \\ 1 \\ 6 \\ 499 \\ 78 \\ 1,667 \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 2\\ 1\\ (^{1})\\ 5\\ 88\\ (^{3})\\ 191\end{array}$	(1) (1) (1) (1) (3) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (2) (3) (3) (3) (3)	(1) (1) (1) (1) 86 3) 313

TABLE 148.—Hides and skins: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

(This table gives the classification as found in the original returns, and the summary statements for "All countries" represent the total for each class only so far as it is disclosed in the original returns. The following kinds are included: Alligator, buffalo, calf, camel, cattle, deer, goat and kid, horse and colt, kangaroo, mule and ass, sheep and lamb, and all other kinds except furs, bird skins, sheepskins with wool on, skins of rabbits and hares, and tanned or partly tanned hides and skins. Number of pounds computed from stated number of hides and skins. See "General note," Table 10.1

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country and classi- fication.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	Country and classi- fication.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)
Argentina:	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Germany:	Pounds	Pounds.	Pounds.
Cattle, dried	46,779	31,984	56,391	Calf	19,158		
Cattle, salted	144,963	140,118	141.641	Cattle	104,653		
Deer	1	1		Goat	2,912		
Goat	4,387	3, 193	5,203	Horse	14,591		
Horse, dried	2,297 310	2,464	4,782	Sheep. Unclassified	947		
Horse, salted Kid	995	610 406	835	Itolus	1,296		
Sheep and lamb.	47,920	33,329	$342 \\ 50,705$	Italy:	10.004	02 449	30 85
Austria-Hungary:	11,020	00,025	50,105	Cattle Calf	$\frac{48,094}{7,446}$	$33,443 \\ 5,379$	16,57
Calf, dried	3,177			Goat	1, 191	598	42: 19:
Calf, green	22.004			Kid.	989	644	15
Cattle, dried				Lamb.	2,207	2,043	
Cattle, green	7,795 27,371			Sheep. Unclassified	782	517	
Goat Horse, dried	2,014			Unclassified	1,316	1,067	1,32
Horse, dried	1,230	• • • • • • • • • • •	********	Mexico:			,
Horse, green	3,810			Alligator	34		
Kid. Lamb.	1,300		••••	Cattle	34,773		
Sheen				l cer	606		
Sheep. Unclassified	1,351			Gent. Netherlands:	4,611		
Belgium:	1,001			Hides, dried	94 161	10 501	1 40
Unclassified	116,608			Hides, fresh	$24,161 \\ 162$	10, 01	1,46
Brazil:				Hides, salted	42,399	28,435	10,265
Cattle, dried	20,460	19,569	34,595	Sheep.	993	1,243	10,200
Cattle, green	56,866	49,730 284	47,153	New Zealand:	200	1,010	
Deer	387	284	47,153 305	Sheep.	20,671	21.923	24,974
Goat	5,062	3,786	6 0-0 1	Unclassified	7,004	5,130	
Sheep.	1,591	1,337	2,796	Peru:	- ,	- ,	- /
Unclassified	82	76	109	Cattle	6,930	4,826	
British India:	101 505			Goat	872	944	
Cattle	124,525	97,586	89,443	Sheep. Unclassified	172		
Goat Unclassified	52,438 7,160	40,905	42,477	Unclassified		1	
British South Africa:	7,100	5,755	5,496	Russia:	P	04.007	10.07
Cattle	21, 515	14,765	15,415	Hides, large	54,411	34,097	12, 278
Goat	9,105	7,944	8,321	Hides, small Sheep and goat	$\frac{36,676}{23,471}$	12,723	144
Sheep	32,319	30,403	37,282	Singapore:	20,471	15,614	144
anada:	00,010	00,100	01,202	Unclassified	2 7, 163	5 184	
Sheep. Unclassified ¹	/ 36			Spain:	- 1,100	0,101	
Unclassified 1	60,000	53,000	42,000	Goat	1,923	1,019	2.472
mna:			· .	Sheep	9,203	8,597	2,472 5,092
Buffalo	66,405		58,319	Unclassified	6,470	2,678	611
Horse	1,518	1,542	1,851	Sweden:			
Goat	22,176	17.646	22,652	Cattle, wet	21,359	24,703	
Sheep. Chosen (Korea):	1,105	825	1,325	Cattle, dry 1	366	166	
Cattle	4,649	5 625		Horse, wet	813		
uba:	7,019	0,045		Horse, dry Goat, kid, lamb,	1	2	
Cattle	14,207	14,458	16,539	Goat, kid, lamb,	000	054	
Unclassified	322	264		and sheep, wet. Goat, lamb, and	688	801	
Denmark:		1		shoop dry	157	120	
Unclassified	20,814			sheep, dry. Unclassified, dry.	107	102	
Outch East Indies:		1		Unclassified, wet.	175	166	
Unclassified	16,011	11,609		Switzerland:		100	
Sypt:		0. 1110		Unclassified	23,851	24,138	14,671
Cattle and camel.	7,029	6,883	5,100		#73 COA	arij 2000	×1,071
Sheep and goat	2,946	2,211	2,573	United Kingdom:	9.175	539	
Calf	24 161	21 150	10.050	Cattle Sheepskins	2,175 17,837	14,055	9,566
Goat	$34,164 \\ 5,411$	$21,150 \\ -3,964$	10,050 900	Unclassified	22,213	17,583	11,031
Kid	2 601	1,015	166	United States:		111000	44,002
Lamily	2,601 1,983	1,114	1,284	Calf	583	798	830
Lamp.							
Lamb. Sheep Unclassified	13,030	6,943	1,437	Cattle	14,451		19,401

¹ Unofficial estimate.

² Data for 1912.

TABLE 148.-Hides and skins: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915-Contd.

EXPORTS-Continued.

[000 omitted]

Country and classi- fication.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	Country and classi- fication.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)
Uruguay: Calf Cattle, dried Cattle, salted Horse, salted Lamb.	Pounds. 188 6,836 27,402 80 1 678 92 671	41	Pounds.	Othercountries-Con. Skins-Contd. Sheep and lamb Sheep and goat, mixed Unclassified Total.	Pounds. 17, 864 11, 687 54, 370	Pounds. 17,977 1,035 24,637 1,268,346	
Sheep. Yearling, dried Yearling, salted Venezucla: Cattle Deer. Goat. Unclassified.	23, 674 1, 116 489 7, 013 354 1, 606	9,503 1,195 272 6,587 362 2,041	$7, 644 \\ 200 \\ 1, 612 \\ 260$	All countries: Hides- Cattle and buf- falo Horse Skins-	924, 854	649,850 6,148	
Other countries: Hides— Cattle and buf- falo Horse. Skins— Alligator Calf.	361 72 4,033	93, 018 158 55 4, 307		Alligator Calf. Deer. Goat and kid Sheep and lamb Sheep and goat, mixed Unclassified	90, 753 2, 789 137, 924 202, 037 38, 949	55 31,862 1,942 98,251 150,098 19,846 310,294	
Deer Goat and kid	$1,441 \\ 18,246$	1,295 8,115		Total	2,015,873	1,268, 3 46	

IMPORTS.

		558.0 M		1		1	1
Austria-Hungary:			1	Greece:			
Calf, dried	1,071			Unclassified	5,219	4,086	
Calf, green				Italy:	0,	-,000	
	42,309			Calf	1,211	726	2,144
Cattle, dried				Cattle	47,615	35,965	72,687
Cattle, green	37,440			Sheep	4,270	2,502	4,185
Goat	1,500			Goat	101	90	288
Horse, dried	245			Kid	61	20	17
Horse, green	243				537	363	2,139
Kid	586			Lamb			871
Lamb	10, 124			Unclassified	181	162	. 0/1
Sheep	3,770			Japan:	F 101	5 010	17 050
Unclassified	60S			Cattle	7,171	5,949	15,053
Belgium:				Deer	509	571	483
Hides, green	197,072			Netherlands:			10 007
British India:				Hides, dried	41,384	26,450	13,695
Cattle	14,401	15,301	8,477	Hides, fresh	25	32	
Unclassified	5,737	5,255	5,544	Hides, salted	34,189	25,369	6,453
Canada:				Shcep	4,812	2,894	
Unclassified	44,667	50,782	60,297	Norway:			
Denmark:	,	· ·		Hides, dry	3,507	2,011	2,933
Unclassified	10,766			Hides, green	9,336	8,504	8,221
Finland:	,		1	Hides, salted	608	560	
Hides, dried	6,200	2,563	646	Unclassified	29	32	
Hides, green	6,374	2,945	11,063	Portugal:			
Sheep	310	109	91	Hides, dried	5,895	4,404	
France:				Hides, green	339	104	
Calf	5,123	3,205	1.022	Roumania:			
Goat	19,131	16,699	5,095	Buffalo and cattle	6,326		
Kid	4,151	3,092	1,094	Horse and swine	7		
Lamb	334	257	79	Sheep, lamb, and			
Sheep	3,139	3,729	398	goat	514		
Unclassified	131,148	86,609	43,348	Russia:		1	
Germany:	104, 110	00,000	10,010	Hides, dry	14,110	11,006	61
Calf, dried	10,641			Hides, green	102,700	59,212	506
Calf. green	75,846			Goat and kid	3,399	2,244	4
Cattle, dried	120,063			Sheep.	10,078	12,162	867
	249, 518			Singapore:	10,010	12,200	
Cattle, green	24, 426			Unclassified	1 10,965	8,942	1
Goat, withhairon.	4, 333			Spain:	10,000	0,014	
Horse, dried				Unclassified	18,236	11,977	28,194
Horse, green Sheep and lamb	25,096 2,582			Sweden:	10,200	1 11,011	20,101
Unclassified				Cattle, wet	19,159	17,187	
Unclassified	2,239			I Cattio, wetererer	10,100	1 117101	

¹ Data for 1912.

TABLE 148.-Hides and skins: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915-Contd.

IMPORTS-Continued.

[000 omitted.]

Country and classi- fication.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	Country and classi- fication.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)
Sweden-Contd.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Other countries:			
Cattle, dry	7,000	3,206		Hides-	1		
Horse, wet	26	196		Cattle and buf-	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
Goat, kid, lamb,				falo		5,230	1 ounus.
and sheep, wet.	343	374		II orse	51	18	
Goat, lamb, and	·			Skins-	0.	10	
sheep, dry	365	363		Deer	12	14	
Unclassified	65	32		Goat and kid	556	3	
United Kingdom:				Sheep and lamb		1,175	********
Calf, dry	24	167		Sheep and goat,	000	1,110	
Calf, wet	666	1,046	1,094	mixed	235	87	
Goat	7,203	7,541	13,287	Unclassified			• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Hides, dry and	-		,				
wet	105, 165	117,535	164,881	Total	2.100.395	1.149.429	1
Sheep	1,717	1,283	2,426		,,.	-,,	
United States:				Allcountries:			
Calf, dry	26,302	13,899	22,703	Hides—			
Calf, green or				Cattle and buf-			
pickled	50,152	53,016	26,211	falo	801,966	403,341	
Cattle and buf-				Horse	47,155	10,830	
falo, dry	77,625	83,730	140,944	Skins-	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	,,	
Cattle and buf-				Calf	172,617	72,059	
falo, green or				Deer	521	585	
pickled	158,655	236,773	281,141	Goat and kid	150,794	105,544	
Goat, dry	64,509	57,983	62,721	Kangaroo	1,309	1,008	
Goat, green or				Sheep and lamb	110,785	90,418	
pickled	25,168	17,822	16,566	Sheep and goat,			
Horse, dry	9,726	5,810	5,452	mixed	1,457	824	
Horse, green or				Unclassified	813,791	464,820	
pickled	7,425	4,806	4,475				
Kangaroo	1,309	1,008	933	Total	2,100,395	1,149,429	
Sheep, dry	27,552	24,999	36,801				
Sheep, green or	10 051	10 01-	00.000				
pickled	40,654	40,945	38,286				
Unclassified	8,803	15,353	9,991				

HORSES AND MULES.

TABLE 149.—Horses and mules: Number and value on farms in the United States, 1867-1917.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of numbers are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available. It should also be observed that the consus of 1910, giving numbers as of Apr. 15, is not strictly comparable with former censuses, which related to numbers June 1.

1		Horses.			Mules.	
Jan. 1—	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.
1867. 1863. 1869. 1870. 1970. 19	5, 401, 000 5, 757, 000 6, 333, 000 8, 249, 000 7, 1.45, 370	\$59.05 54.27 62.57 67.43	\$318,924,000 312,416,000 396,222,000 556,251,000	822,000 856,000 922,000 1,180,000 1,125,415	\$66. 94 56. 04 79. 23 90. 42	\$55, 048, 000 47, 954, 000 73, 027, 000 106, 654, 000
1871 1872 1873 1874 1875	8,702,000 8,991,000 9,222,000 9,334,000 9,504,000	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{71. 14} \\ \textbf{67. 41} \\ \textbf{66. 39} \\ \textbf{65. 15} \\ \textbf{61. 10} \end{array}$	619,039,000 606,111,000 612,273,000 608,073,000 580,708,000	$\begin{array}{c} 1,242,000\\ 1,276,000\\ 1,310,000\\ 1,339,000\\ 1,334,000 \end{array}$	91. 98 87. 14 85. 15 81. 35 71. 89	$\begin{array}{c} 114, 272, 000\\ 111, 222, 000\\ 111, 546, 000\\ 108, 953, 000\\ 100, 197, 000 \end{array}$
1876 1977 1879 1879 1889 1889 1889	9,735,000 10,155,000 10,330,000 10,939,000 11,202,000 10, $357,483$	57, 29 55, 83 56, 63 52, 36 54, 75	$\begin{array}{c} 557,747,000\\ 567,017,000\\ 584,999,000\\ 572,712,000\\ 613,297,000 \end{array}$	1,414,000 1,444,000 1,638,060 1,713,000 1,730,000 1,812,808	$\begin{array}{c} 66.\ 46\\ 64.\ 07\\ 62.\ 03\\ 56.\ 00\\ 61.\ 26\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 94,001,000\\92,482,000\\101,579,000\\95,942,000\\105,948,000\end{array}$
1851 18-2 18-3 1854 1855	11, 430, 000 10, 522, 000 10, 838, 000 11, 170, 000 11, 565, 000	58.4458.5370.5974.6473.70	$\begin{array}{c} 667, 954, 000\\ 915, 825, 000\\ 705, 041, 000\\ 833, 734, 000\\ 852, 283, 000 \end{array}$	1,721,000 1,835,000 1,871,000 1,914,000 1,973,000	69. 79 71. 35 79. 49 84. 22 82. 38	$120,096,009\\130,945,000\\148,732,000\\161,215,000\\162,497,000$
1886	$\begin{array}{c} 12,078,000\\ 12,497,000\\ 13,173,000\\ 13,663,000\\ 14,214,000\\ 14,969,467\end{array}$	71. 2772. 1571. 8271. 8968. 84	860, 823,000 901, 686,000 946,096,000 952,195,000 978,517,000	2,053,000 2,117,000 2,192,000 2,258,000 2,331,000 2,295,532	79.60 78.91 79.78 79.49 78.25	$\begin{array}{c} 163, 381, 000\\ 167, 058, 000\\ 174, 854, 000\\ 179, 444, 000\\ 182, 394, 000\end{array}$
1831 1892 1893 1894 1894 1885	14,057,000 15,498,000 16,207,000	$\begin{array}{c} 67.00\\ 65.01\\ 61.22\\ 47.83\\ 36.29\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 941,823.000\\ 1,007.594,000\\ 992,225,000\\ 709,225,000\\ 576,731,000 \end{array}$	2,297,000 2,315,000 2,331 000 2,352,000 2,333,000	77.88 75.55 70.68 62.17 47.55	178, 847, 000 174, 882, 000 164, 764, 000 146, 233, 000 110, 928, 000
1895. 1897. 1898. 1899. 1999. 1999. 1999. census, June 1	$\begin{array}{c} 15,124,000\\ 14,305,000\\ 13,961,000\\ 13,665,000\\ 13,538,000\\ 18,567,029 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 33.\ 07\\ 31.\ 51\\ 34.\ 26\\ 37.\ 40\\ 44.\ 61\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 500, 140, 000\\ 452, 649, 000\\ 478, 362, 000\\ 511, 075, 000\\ 603, 969, 000 \end{array}$	2, 279, 000 2, 216, 000 2, 190, 000 2, 134, 000 2, 086, 000 3, 264, 615	$\begin{array}{r} 45.\ 29\\ 41.\ 66\\ 43.\ 88\\ 44.\ 96\\ 53.\ 55\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 103, 204, 000\\ 92, 302, 000\\ 96, 110, 000\\ 95, 963, 000\\ 111, 717, 900 \end{array}$
1001 ¹	16,745,000 16,531,000 16,557,000 16,736,060 17,058,000	52.8658.6162.2567.9370.37	885,200,000 968,935,000 1,030,706,000 1,136,940,000 1,200,310,000	2, 864, 060 2, 757, 000 2, 728, 000 2, 758, 000 2, 889, 000	63. 97 67. 61 72. 49 78. 88 87. 18	183, 232, 000 186, 412, 000 197, 753, 000 217, 533, 000 251, 840, 000
1999. 1997. 1998. 1999. 1990. 1990. 1990. 1990. 1990. 1990. 1990. 1990. 1990. 1997. 1977. 19	$18,719,000 \\10,747,000 \\10,992,000 \\20,640,000 \\21,040,000$	80.72 93.51 93.41 95.64	1, 510, 890, 000 1, 846, 578, 000 1, 867, 530, 000 1, 974, 052, 000	3,404,000 3,817,000 3,869,000 4,053,000 4,123,000 4,209,769	98.31 112.16 107.76 107.84	334, 681, 000 428, 064, 000 416, 939, 000 437, 082, 000 506, 049, 000
1910, census, A pr. 15 1911 1912 1913 1914 1914 1915 1916 1917	20,567,000 20,962,000 21,195,000	108.03 111.46 105.94 110.77 109.32 103.33 101.60 102.94	2, 142, 524, 000 2, 259, 981, 000 2, 172, 694, 000 2, 278, 222, 000 2, 291, 638, 000 2, 190, 102, 000 2, 149, 786, 000 2, 174, 629, 000	4, 209, 789 4, 323, 000 4, 362, 000 4, 386, 000 4, 449, 000 4, 479, 000 4, 593, 000 4, 639, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 120, 20\\ 125, 92\\ 120, 51\\ 124, 31\\ 123, 85\\ 112, 36\\ 113, 83\\ 118, 32\\ \end{array}$	500, 049, 000 544, 359, 000 525, 657, 000 545, 245, 000 551, 017, 000 503, 271, 000 522, 834, 000 548, 864, 000

¹ Estimates of numbers revised, based on census data.

HORSES AND MULES-Continued.

 TABLE 150.—Horses and mules: Number and value on farms Jan. 1, 1916 and 1917, by

 States.

]	Horses.					м	lules.		
State.	(thous	nber sands) . 1—	pric he	rage e per ad, . 1—			(thou	nber sands) . 1—	pric he	erage e per ad, . 1—	Farm value (thousands of dollars) Jan. 1—	
	1917	191 6	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
Me N. H Vt Mass R. I	109 44 89 59 8	109 44 89 60 9	\$152.00 135.00 134.00 156.00 155.00	$\begin{array}{c} \$142.\ 00\\ 132.\ 00\\ 130.\ 00\\ 146.\ 00\\ 151.\ 00 \end{array}$	\$16,568 5,940 11,926 9,204 1,240	\$15,478 5,808 11,570 8,760 1,359						
Conn N. Y N. J Pa Del	$\begin{array}{r} 46 \\ 609 \\ 92 \\ 596 \\ 36 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 46 \\ 609 \\ 92 \\ 602 \\ 36 \end{array} $	$147.00 \\ 139.00 \\ 149.00 \\ 126.00 \\ 90.00$	$146.00 \\ 139.00 \\ 144.00 \\ 124.00 \\ 95.00$	6,762 84,651 13,708 75,096 3,240	6,716 84,651 13,248 74,648 3,420	$\begin{array}{c} 4\\ 4\\ 48\\ 6\end{array}$	4 4	\$155.00 169.00 137.00 116.00		\$620 676 6,576 696	\$592 656 6,439 684
Md Va W.Va. N. C S. C	169 361 196 185 85	$169 \\ 361 \\ 194 \\ 185 \\ 84$	$\begin{array}{c} 105.00\\ 100.00\\ 107.00\\ 125.00\\ 136.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 105.00\\ 99.00\\ 108.00\\ 122.00\\ 135.00 \end{array}$	$17,745 \\ 36,100 \\ 20,972 \\ 23,125 \\ 11,560$	$17,745 \\ 35,739 \\ 20,952 \\ 22,570 \\ 11,340$	$25 \\ 64 \\ 12 \\ 200 \\ 174$	$25 \\ 64 \\ 12 \\ 200 \\ 171$	$\begin{array}{c} 127.00\\ 122.00\\ 117.00\\ 150.00\\ 162.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 121.00\\ 120.00\\ 116.00\\ 140.00\\ 161.00 \end{array}$	3,175 7,808 1,404 30,000 28,188	3,025 7,680 1,392 28,000 27,531
Ga Fla Ohio Ind Ill	127 60 892 845 1,452	$125 \\ 59 \\ 901 \\ 854 \\ 1,452$	$\begin{array}{c} 129.\ 00\\ 120.\ 00\\ 119.\ 00\\ 108.\ 00\\ 106.\ 00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 126.\ 00\\ 112.\ 00\\ 116.\ 00\\ 104.\ 00\\ 103.\ 00 \end{array}$. 16, 383 7, 200 106, 148 91, 260 153.912	$15,750 \\ 6,608 \\ 104,516 \\ 88,816 \\ 149,556$	$324 \\ 31 \\ 26 \\ 95 \\ 150$	$315 \\ 29 \\ 26 \\ 95 \\ 152$	$\begin{array}{c} 163.00\\ 166.00\\ 120.00\\ 114.00\\ 115.00 \end{array}$	156.00 154.00 119.00 111.00 111.00	52,812 5,146 3,120 10,830 17,250	49,140 4,460 3,094 10,545 16,872
Mich Wis Minn . Iowa Mo	680 715 900 1,552 1,040	680 712 890 1,584 1,060	$\begin{array}{c} 121.\ 00\\ 120.\ 00\\ 109.\ 00\\ 107.\ 00\\ 92.\ 00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 128.00 \\ 124.00 \\ 109.00 \\ 105.00 \\ 90.00 \end{array}$	82,280 85,800 98,100 166,064 95,680	87,040 88,288 97,010 166,320 95,400	$ \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 3 \\ 6 \\ 62 \\ 350 \end{array} $		$\begin{array}{c} 122.\ 00\\ 117.\ 00\\ 110.\ 00\\ 116.\ 00\\ 104.\ 00 \end{array}$	$133.00 \\ 120.00 \\ 116.00 \\ 110.00 \\ 99.00$	488 351 600 7,192 36,400	532 360 690 6,710 33,660
N. Dak S. Dak Nebr Kans Ky	1,018	801 759 1,028 1,109 434	106.00 93.00 95.00 99.00 93.00	$110.00 \\ 93.00 \\ 94.00 \\ 97.00 \\ 90.00$	87,450 71,982 96,710 110,880 40,362	88, 110 70, 587 96, 632 107, 573 39, 060	$9 \\ 15 \\ 112 \\ 265 \\ 224$	9 15 98 255 229	$\begin{array}{c} 122.\ 00\\ 108.\ 00\\ 106.\ 00\\ 108.\ 00\\ 112.\ 00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 124.00\\ 109.00\\ 104.00\\ 105.00\\ 102.00 \end{array}$	1,095 1,620 11,872 28,620 25,088	1, 116 1, 635 10, 192 26, 775 23, 358
Tenn Ala Miss La Tex	350 150 243 195 1,156	349 150 243 193 1,180	$105.00 \\99.00 \\87.00 \\86.00 \\78.00$	$101.00 \\ 101.00 \\ 88.00 \\ 82.00 \\ 78.00$	36,750 14,850 21,141 16,770 90,168	35, 249 15, 150 21, 384 15, 826 92, 040	270 278 292 139 760	272 281 292 132 768	$\begin{array}{c} 120.\ 00\\ 118.\ 00\\ 109.\ 00\\ 125.\ 00\\ 103.\ 00 \end{array}$	113.0 121.00 110.00 121.00 100.00	32,400 32,804 31,828 17,375 78,280	30,730 34,001 32,120 15,972 76,800
Okla Ark Mont Wyo Colo	743 275 452 191 365	743 270 430 185 301	86.00 87.00 92.00 80.00 93.00	85.00 82.00 86.00 82.00 90.00	63, 898 23, 925 41, 584 15, 280 33, 945	63, 155 22, 140 36, 980 15, 170 32, 490	$276 \\ 250 \\ 4 \\ 3 \\ 20$	$282 \\ 240 \\ 4 \\ 3 \\ 19$	$104.00 \\ 114.00 \\ 107.00 \\ 97.00 \\ 104.00$	$\begin{array}{r} 98.00 \\ 102.00 \\ 98.00 \\ 99.00 \\ 101.00 \end{array}$	28,704 28,500 428 291 2,080	27,630 24,480 392 297 1,919
N.Mex Ariz Utah Nev	250 129 138 73	234 124 146 77	$\begin{array}{c} 62.\ 00\\ 75.\ 00\\ 87.\ 00\\ 76.\ 00\end{array}$	$58.00 \\71.00 \\86.00 \\75.00$	15,500 9,675 12,006 5,548	13, 572 8, 804 12, 556 5, 775	19 8 2 3	17 7 2 3	$\begin{array}{c} 89.00\\ 104.00\\ 79.00\\ 85.00\end{array}$	85.00 99.00 78.00 75.00	$1,691 \\ 832 \\ 158 \\ 255$	${ \begin{smallmatrix} 1,445\\693\\156\\225 \end{smallmatrix} }$
Idaho. Wash. Oreg Cal	239 305 286 468	241 308 295 493	93.00 98.00 98.00 97.00	90.00 94.00 89.00 96.00	22, 227 29, 890 28, 028 45, 396	21, 690 2 8, 952 2 6, 255 4 7, 328	$ \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 18 \\ 10 \\ 70 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 4 \\ 17 \\ 10 \\ 70 \\ 70 \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 100.00\\ 111.00\\ 103.00\\ 116.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 95.00 \\ 106.00 \\ 93.00 \\ 110.00 \end{array}$	400 1,998 1,030 8,120	380 1,892 903 7,700
U.S.	21, 126	21, 159	102.94	101.60	2, 174, 629	2, 149, 786	4,639	4, 593	112.32	113.83	545, 864	522, 834

HORSES AND MULES.

TABLE 151.—Prices of horses and mules at St. Louis, 1900-1916.

	R	inge	of pr	ices.		Ra	nge	of pri	ices.		Ra	nge o	f pri	ces.
Year and month	gra goo cho	rses, ade, d to bice aft.	gra 16 t	les, de, o 16} nds.	Year and month.	gra		gra 16 t	iles, ade, o 16½ nds.	Year and month.	gra goo cho	rses, de, d to bice aft.	Mu gra 16 to han	de, 0 161
	L.	н.	L.	Н.		L.	п,	L_{*}	Η,		\mathbf{L}_{*}	н.	\mathbf{L}_{\bullet}	н.
1900 1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1905 1905 1907 1908 1909 1909 1910 1911 1912	$\begin{array}{c} 150\\ 160\\ 160\\ 175\\ 175\\ 175\\ 175\\ 175\\ 175\\ 165\\ 165\\ 165\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 175 \\ 185 \\ 185 \\ 200 \\ 225 \\ 225 \\ 225 \\ 250 \\ 225 \\ 210 \\ 235 \end{array}$	$\frac{110}{120}$	$175 \\ 200 \\ 210 \\ 215 \\ 250 \\ 200 \\ 225 \\ 275 \\ 275 \\ 275 \\ 275 \\$	1915. Jan Feb Mar Apr May June July Aug. Sept Oct Nov Dec	175 175 175 180	220 225 225 220 220 220 220 220 225 225	\$125 125 125 120 120 125 125 135 135 135 135 135	$\begin{array}{c} 250 \\ 250 \\ 265 \\ 265 \\ 265 \\ 265 \\ 265 \\ 265 \\ 265 \\ 275 \\ 275 \\ 275 \end{array}$	1916. Jan Feb Mar Apr May June. July Sept Oct Nov. Dec	$150 \\ 150$	$\begin{array}{c} 185\\ 185\\ 190\\ 200\\ 200\\ 225\\ 225\\ 225\\ 225\\ 220\\ 220$	$150 \\ 150 \\ 150 \\ 150 \\ 150 \\ 140 \\ 150 \\ 140 \\ 150 \\ 100 $	275 275 275 275 275 275 270 250 250 235 235
1913 1914	$200 \\ 175$		$160 \\ 120$		Year, 1915.	160	225	120	275	Year, 1916.	150	225	135	275

TABLE 152.—Average price per head for horses on the Chicago horse market, 1901-1916.

Date.	Drafters.	Carriage teams.	Drivers.	General.	Bussers, tram- mers.	Sad- dlers.1	Southern chunks.
					mors.		
1901	\$157.00	\$400.00	\$137.00	\$102.00	\$121.00	\$147.00	\$52.00
1902	166.00	450.00	145.00	117.00	135.00	151.00	57.00
1903	171.00	455.00	150.00	122.00	140.00	156.00	62.00
1904	177.00	475.00	150.00	140.00	140.00	160.00	64.00
1905.	186.00	486.00	156.00	132.00	145.00	172.00	70.00
1906	188.00	486.00	158.00	154.00	147.00	174.00	72,50
1907	194.00	482.00	165.00	137.00	152.00	172:00	77.50
1907.	180.00	450.00	156.00	129.00	138.00	164.00	69.00
1909	194.00	482.00	165.00	137.00	152.00	172.00	77.00
1910	200.00	473.00	172.00	144.00	161.00	177.00	87.00
1510	200.00	310.00	112.00	144.00		111.00	01.00
1911	205.00	483.00	182.00	155.00	170.00	190.00	92.00
1912	210.00	473.00	177.00	160.00	175.00	195.00	97.00
1913	213.00	493.00	174.00	165.00	176.00	189.00	98.00
1914	208.00	483.00	169.00	160.00	171.00	184.00	93.00
. 1915.							
January	205.00	440.00	165.00	150.00	160.00	180.00	90.00
February	215,00	490.00	170.00	155.00	170.00	190.00	95.00
March	220.00	510.00	175.00	160.00	175.00	195.00	100.00
April	220.00	510,00	175.00	160.00	175.00	195.00	100.00
	215.00	510.00	170.00	155.00	170.00	190.00	95.00
May. June.	210.00	510.00	165.00	150.00	165.00	185.00	90,00
July	205.00	480.00	165.00	145.00	165.00	180.00	85.00
August	195.00	470.00	160.00	140.00	160.00	175.00	80.00
September	190.00	455.00	155.00	145.00	170.00	170.00	75.00
October.	190.00	440.00	155.00	145.00	165.00	165.00	75.00
November	195.00	440.00	155.00	140.00	160.00	165.00	80.00
Dccember	190.00	440.00	155.00	140.00	160.00	165.00	90.00
	007 00	470.00	164.00	155.00	166.00	179.00	88.00
Year	205.00	473.00	104.00	199.00	100.00	179.00	88.00
1916.				100.00	105 00	105 00	110.00
January	225.00) (150.00	160.00	165.00	125.00	110.00
February	250.00		200.00	160.00	165.00	125.00	110.00
March	275.00		150.00	160.00	165.00	125.00	110.00
April	275.00		150.00	160.00	165.00	125.00	110.00
May	250.00		200.00	160.00	165.00	125.00	110.00
Juno	225.00		150.00	160.00	165.00	125.00	110.00
July	225.00	No J	150.00	160.00	165.00	115.00	110.00
August	250.00	(sales.)	175.00	160.00	165.00	115.00	110.00
September	250.00		175.00	160.00	165.00	115.00	110.00
October	275.00		200.00	160.00	165.00	115.00	110.00
November ²	263.00		145.00	162.00	175.00	142.00	102.00
December ²	263,00		145.00	162.00	175.00	142.00	102.00
Year	252.00) (166.00	160.00	167.00	124.00	109.00

¹ Cavalry horses, 1916.

² Mean of low and high quotations.

HORSES AND MULES-Continued.

TABLE 153.—Number of horses and mules received at principal live-stock markets.

[From reports of stockyards companies.]

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Horses.	Hors	es and mu	les.
Year and month.	Chicago.	St. Louis (National Stock Yards, Ill.)	Kansas City.	Omaha.
1900	99,010 109,353 102,100 100,603 105,949	$144,921 \\128,880 \\109,295 \\128,615 \\181,341$	$103,308 \\96,657 \\76,844 \\67,274 \\67,562$	59,64536,39142,07952,82946,845
1905	$127,250 \\ 126,979 \\ 102,055 \\ 92,138 \\ 91,411$	$178, 257 \\ 166, 393 \\ 117, 379 \\ 109, 393 \\ 122, 471$	$\begin{array}{c} 65,582\\ 69,629\\ 62,341\\ 56,335\\ 67,796 \end{array}$	45, 422 42, 269 44, 020 39, 998 31, 711
1910 1911. 1912. 1913. 1913. 1914.	$\begin{array}{c} 83,439\\ 104,545\\ 92,977\\ 90,615\\ 106,282 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 130,271\\ 170,379\\ 163,973\\ 156,825\\ 148,128 \end{array}$	69, 628 84, 861 73, 445 82, 110 87, 155	23, 734 31, 771 32, 520 31, 580 30, 688
1915. January	$\begin{array}{c} 11,213\\ 12,616\\ 14,930\\ 10,895\\ 13,831\\ 14,978\\ 11,726\\ 14,931\\ 18,001\\ 17,742\\ 14,339\\ 10,048 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 25,554\\ 29,979\\ 25,794\\ 23,849\\ 25,627\\ 21,400\\ 16,543\\ 14,426\\ 27,458\\ 17,066\\ 16,972 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 16,671\\ 11,800\\ 12,820\\ 13,748\\ 11,425\\ 3,030\\ 3,990\\ 7,424\\ 6,714\\ 5,189 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 4,981\\ 4,233\\ 4,420\\ 3,001\\ 2,355\\ 3,498\\ 3,758\\ 2,655\\ 4,081\\ 4,557\\ 3,518\\ 622\end{array}$
Total, 1915	165, 253	270,612	102, 153	41,679
1016. January	$\begin{array}{c} 12,986\\ 15,913\\ 17,469\\ 14,882\\ 18,240\\ 17,557\\ 18,990\\ 23,896\\ 21,132\\ 18,952\\ 18,952\\ 14,342\\ 11,090 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 25,809\\ 20,114\\ 17,599\\ 14,881\\ 20,695\\ 15,785\\ 26,574\\ 23,292\\ 26,655\\ 31,147\\ 22,244\\ 22,023\\ \end{array}$	7,886 4,735 5,012 7,073 8,171 7,156 11,027 13,414 13,349 17,145 13,093 15,080	1,443 2,135 2,952 1,695 3,036 2,338 2,177 3,152 3,332 2,042 1,731 1,453
Total, 1916	205,449	266,818	123,141	27,486

HORSES AND MULES-Continued.

TABLE 154.—Horses and mules: Imports, exports, and prices, 1893-1916.

	II	nports of ho	rses.	Ex	ports of hors	es.	E	ports of m	ules.
Year ending June 30—	Num- ber.	Value.	Average import price.	Num- ber.	Value.	Average export price.	Num- ber.	Value.	Average export price.
1893 1894 1895 1896 1897	15,451 6,166 13,098 9,991 6,998	\$2,388,267 1,319,572 1,055,191 662,591 464,808		2,967 5,246 13,984 25,126 39,532	\$718,607 1,108,995 2,209,298 3,530,703 4,769,265	\$242.20 211.40 157.99 140.52 120.64	1,634 2,063 2,515 5,918 7,473	\$210,278 240,961 186,452 406,161 545,331	\$128.69 116.80 74.14 68.63 72.97
1898 1899 1959 1901 1902	3,085 3,042 3,102 3,785 4,832	414,899 551,050 596,592 985,738 1,577,234	$134. 49 \\181. 15 \\192. 32 \\260. 43 \\326. 41$	$51, 150 \\ 45, 778 \\ 64, 722 \\ 82, 250 \\ 103, 020$	$\begin{array}{c} 6,176,569\\ 5,444,342\\ 7,612,616\\ 8,873,845\\ 10,048,046 \end{array}$	120.75 118.93 117.62 107.89 97.53	34,405	664,789 516,908 3,919,478 3,210,267 2,692,298	82.09 76.52 90.38 93.31 97.60
1903 1904 1905 1906 1907	4,999 4,726 5,180 6,021 6,080	$\begin{array}{c} 1,536,296\\ 1,460,287\\ 1,591,083\\ 1,716,675\\ 1,978,105 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 307.\ 32\\ 308.\ 99\\ 307.\ 16\\ 285.\ 11\\ 325.\ 35 \end{array}$	34,007 42,001 34,822 40,087 33,882	$\begin{array}{c} 3,152,159\\ 3,189,100\\ 3,175,259\\ 4,365,981\\ 4,359,957 \end{array}$	92, 69 75, 93 91, 19 108, 91 131, 99	4,294 3,658 5,826 7,167 6,781	$521,725 \\ 412,971 \\ 645,464 \\ 989,639 \\ 850,901$	121, 47 112, 90 110, 79 138, 08 125, 48
1908 1909 1910 1911	5,487 7,084 11,620 9,593	$\begin{array}{c} 1,604,392\\ 2,007,276\\ 3,296,022\\ 2,692,074 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 292,40\\ 283,35\\ 283,65\\ 280,63\end{array}$	$19,000 \\ 21,616 \\ 28,910 \\ 25,145$	2,612,587 3,386,617 4,081,157 3,845,253	$\begin{array}{c} 137.50\\ 156.67\\ 141.17\\ 152.92 \end{array}$	6,609 3,432 4,512 6,585	$990,667 \\ 472,017 \\ 614.094 \\ 1,070,051$	149.90 137.53 136.18 162.50
1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	33,019	1,923,025 2,125,875 2,605,029 977,380 1,618,245	291.06 212.42 78.89 77.25 104.03	34,828 28,707 22,776 289,340 357,553	$\begin{array}{r} 4,764,815\\ 3,960,102\\ 3,388,819\\ 64,046,534\\ 73,531,146\end{array}$	136. 81 137. 95 148. 79 221. 35 205 . 65		732,095 733,795 690,974 12,726,143 22,946,312	149.30 154.68 141.51 193.44 205.03

CATTLE.

TABLE 155.—Cattle (live): Imports, exports, and prices, 1893-1916.

		Imports.			Exports.	
Year ending June 30-	Number.	Value.	Average import price.	Number.	Value.	Average export price.
1893. 1534. 1835. 1835. 1836. 1837.	1,592 149,781	\$45,682 18,704 765,853 1,509,856 2,589,857		$\begin{array}{r} 287,094\\ 359,278\\ 331,722\\ 372,461\\ 392,190 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \$26,032,428\\ 33,461,922\\ 30,603,796\\ 34,560,672\\ 36,357,451 \end{array}$	\$90.68 93.14 92.26 92.79 92.70
1833 1833 1809 1901 1902		2,913,223 2,320,362 2,257,694 1,931,433 1,608,722	$\begin{array}{r} 9.99\\ 11.62\\ 12.47\\ 13.23\\ 16.75\end{array}$	439, 255 389, 490 397, 286 459, 218 392, 884	37,827,500 30,516,833 30,635,153 37,566,980 29,902,212	86. 12 78. 35 77. 11 81. 81 76. 11
1903. 1904. 1905. 1905. 1907.	$\begin{array}{c} 66,175\\ 16,056\\ 27,855\\ 29,019\\ 32,402 \end{array}$	$1, 161, 548 \\310, 737 \\458, 572 \\548, 430 \\505, 122$	$\begin{array}{c} 17.55\\ 19.35\\ 16.46\\ 18.90\\ 17.44 \end{array}$	402, 178 593, 409 567, 806 584, 239 423, 051	$\begin{array}{c} 29,848,936\\ 42,256,291\\ 40,598,048\\ 42,081,170\\ 34,577,392 \end{array}$	74.2271.2171.5072.0381.73
1993. 1909. 1910. 1911.	$\begin{array}{r} 92,356\\139,184\\195,938\\182,923\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c}1,507,310\\1,999,422\\2,909,824\\2,953,077\end{array}$	16.32 14.37 15.37 16.14	349,210 207,542 139,430 150,100	29, 339, 134 18, 046, 976 12, 200, 154 13, 163, 920	81.02 86.96 87.50 87.70
1912	$\begin{array}{c} 318,372\\ 421,649\\ 868,368\\ 538,167\\ 439,185 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4,805,574\\ 6,640,663\\ 18,696,718\\ 17,513,175\\ 15,187,593 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15.\ 09\\ 15.\ 75\\ 21,53\\ 32.\ 54\\ 34.\ 58 \end{array}$	105,50624,71118,3765,48421,666	$\begin{array}{r} 8,870,075\\ 1,177,199\\ 647,288\\ 702,847\\ 2,383,765 \end{array}$	84.07 47.63 35.22 128.16 110.02

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CATTLE-Continued.

TABLE 156.—Cattle: Number and value on farms in the United States, 1867-1917.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of numbers are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available. It should also be observed that the census of 1910, giving numbers as of Apr. 15, is not strictly comparable with former censuses, which related to numbers June 1.

		Milch cow	s.		Other catt	е.
Jan: 1—	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.
1867. 1803. 1869. 1870. 1870. 1870. census June 1.	8,319,000 8,692,000 9,248,000 10,096,000 8,935,332	\$28.74 26.56 29.15 32.70	\$239, 947, 000 230, 817, 000 269, 610, 000 330, 175, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 11,731,600\\ 11,942,000\\ 12,185,000\\ 15,388,000\\ 13,566,005 \end{array}$	\$15.79 15.06 18.73 18.87	\$185, 254, 060 179, 888, 000 228, 183, 000 290, 401, 000
1871 1872 1873 1873 1874 1875	$\begin{array}{c} 10,023,000\\ 10,304,000\\ 10,576,000\\ 10,705,000\\ 10,907,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 33.89\\ 29.45\\ 26.72\\ 25.63\\ 25.74\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 339,701,000\\ 303,438,000\\ 282,559,000\\ 274,326,000\\ 280,701,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 16,212,000\\ 16,390,000\\ 16,414,000\\ 16,218,000\\ 16,313,090 \end{array}$	$20.78 \\18.12 \\18.06 \\17.55 \\16.91$	$\begin{array}{c} 336,860,000\\ 296,932,000\\ 296,448,000\\ 284,706,000\\ 275,872,000 \end{array}$
1876 1877 1878 1879 1880 1880. census June 1	$\begin{array}{c} 11,085,000\\ 11,261,000\\ 11,300,000\\ 11,326,000\\ 11,826,000\\ 12,027,000\\ 12,443,120\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 25.61\\ 25.47\\ 25.74\\ 21.71\\ 23.27\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 283,879,000\\ 286,778,000\\ 290,898,000\\ 256,721,000\\ 279,899,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 16,785,000\\ 17,956,000\\ 19,223,000\\ 21,403,000\\ 21,231,000\\ 22,483,550 \end{array}$	$17.00 \\ 15.99 \\ 16.72 \\ 15.38 \\ 16.10$	$\begin{array}{c} 285,387,000\\ 287,156,000\\ 321,346,000\\ 329,254,000\\ 341,761,000 \end{array}$
1881	$\begin{array}{c} 12,369,000\\ 12,612,000\\ 13,126,000\\ 13,501,000\\ 13,905,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23.95\\ 25.89\\ 30.21\\ 31.37\\ 29.70 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 296, 277, 000\\ 326, 489, 000\\ 396, 575, 000\\ 423, 487, 000\\ 412, 903, 000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 20,939,000\\ 23,280,000\\ 28,016,000\\ 29,046,000\\ 29,867,000 \end{array}$	$17. 33 \\ 19. 89 \\ 21. 81 \\ 23. 52 \\ 23. 25$	362, 862, 600 463, 070, 060 611, 549, 000 683, 229, 000 694, 383, 000
1886	$\begin{array}{c} 14,235,000\\ 14,522,000\\ 14,856,000\\ 15,299,000\\ 15,953,000\\ 16,511,950 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 27.40\\ 26.08\\ 24.65\\ 23.94\\ 22.14\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 389, 986, 000\\ 378, 790, 090\\ 366, 252, 000\\ 366, 226, 000\\ 353, 152, 000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 31,275,000\\ 33,512,000\\ 34,378,000\\ 35,032,000\\ 36,849,000\\ 33,734,128 \end{array}$	$21.17 \\ 19.79 \\ 17.79 \\ 17.05 \\ 15.21$	$\begin{array}{c} 661, 956, 000\\ 663, 138, 000\\ 611, 751, 000\\ 597, 237, 000\\ 560, 625, 000 \end{array}$
1891 1892 1893 1894 1895	$\begin{array}{c} 16,020,000\\ 16,416,000\\ 16,424,000\\ 16,487,000\\ 16,505,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 21.62\\ 21.40\\ 21.75\\ 21.77\\ 21.97 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 346,398,000\\ 351,378,000\\ 357,300,000\\ 358,999,000\\ 362,602,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{36, 876, 000} \\ \textbf{37, 651, 000} \\ \textbf{35, 954, 000} \\ \textbf{36, 608, 000} \\ \textbf{34, 364, 000} \end{array}$	$14.76 \\ 15.16 \\ 15.24 \\ 11.66 \\ 14.06$	514, 128, 000 570, 749, 000 547, 882, 000 536, 790, 000 482, 999, 000
1896. 1897. 1893. 1899. 1899. 1900. 1900. 1900. 1909. census June I.	$\begin{array}{c} 16, 138, 000\\ 15, 912, 000\\ 15, 841, 000\\ 15, 990, 000\\ 16, 292, 000\\ 17, 135, 633 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 22.55\\ 23.16\\ 27.45\\ 29.66\\ 31.60\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 363,956,000\\ 369,240,000\\ 431,814,000\\ 474,234,000\\ 514,812,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 32,085,000\\ 30,508,000\\ 29,264,000\\ 27,994,000\\ 27,610,000\\ 50,585,777 \end{array}$	$15.86 \\ 16.65 \\ 20.92 \\ 22.79 \\ 24.97 \\$	508, 928, 000 507, 929, 000 612, 297, 000 637, 931, 000 689, 486, 000
1901 ¹ 1902 1903 1904 1905	$\begin{array}{c} 16,834,000\\ 16,697,000\\ 17,105,000\\ 17,420,000\\ 17,572,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 30.00\\ 29.23\\ 30.21\\ 29.21\\ 27.44 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 505,093,000\\ 488,130,000\\ 516,712,000\\ 508,841,000\\ 482,272,000 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 45,500,000\\ 44,728,000\\ 41,659,000\\ 43,629,000\\ 43,669,000 \end{array}$	$19.93 \\18.76 \\18.45 \\16.32 \\15.15$	$\begin{array}{c} 906, 614, 000\\ 839, 126, 000\\ 824, 055, 000\\ 712, 178, 000\\ 661, 571, 000 \end{array}$
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910 1910, census A pr. 15	19, 794, 000 20, 968, 000 21, 194, 000 21, 720, 000 21, 801, 000 20, 625, 432	29. 44 31. 00 30. 67 32. 36 35. 29	$\begin{array}{c} 582,789,000\\ 645,497,000\\ 650,057,000\\ 702,945,000\\ 727,802,000\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 47,06\$,000\\ 51,566,000\\ 50,073,060\\ 49,379,000\\ 47,279,000\\ 41,178,434 \end{array}$	15.85 17.10 16.89 17.49	746, 172, 000 881, 557, 000 815, 938, 000 863, 751, 000 785, 261, 000
1011 ¹	20,823,000 20,699,000 20,497,000 20,737,000 21,262,000 22,103,000 22,768,000	$\begin{array}{c} 39.97\\ 39.39\\ 45.02\\ 53.94\\ 55.33\\ 53.92\\ 59.66\end{array}$	832, 209, 000 815, 114, 000 922, 783, 000 1, 118, 487, 000 1, 176, 338, 000 1, 191, 955, 000 1, 358, 435, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 39,679,000\\ 37,260,000\\ 36,030,000\\ 35,855,000\\ 37,067,000\\ 39,812,000\\ 40,849,000 \end{array}$	20, 54 21, 20 26, 36 31, 13 33, 38 33, 53 35, 88	$\begin{array}{c} 815, 184, 000\\ 790, 064, 000\\ 919, 615, 000\\ 1, 116, 333, 000\\ 1, 237, 376, 000\\ 1, 334, 928, 000\\ 1, 365, 786, 000\end{array}$

1 Estimates of numbers revised, based on census data.

CATTLE—Continued.

TABLE 157 .- Cattle: Number and value on farms Jan. 1, 1916 and 1917, by States.

			Mi	lch cov	vs.				Oth	er cattl	e.	
State.	(thous	nbe r sands) . 1—	price he	rage e per ad . 1—			(thou	nber sands) . 1—	pric he	rage e per ad . 1—	Farm value (thousands of dollars) Jan. 1—	
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
Maine. New Hampshire. Vermont. Massachusetts Rhode Island	162 97 281 160 22	159 97 273 158 22	$66.50 \\ 62.50$	68.60	6,450	\$7,950 5,820 14,742 10,744 1,694	110 63 172 88 11	63 170	31.60 25.70 29.60	\$24.60 28.50 23.30 25.40 28.30	\$3,069 1,991 4,420 2,605 344	\$2,583 1,796 3,961 2,159 311
Connecticut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware	$121 \\ 1,539 \\ 155 \\ 980 \\ 43$	119 1,539 152 971 42	66.00 76.00 62.50	$\begin{array}{c} 68.30\\ 57.20\\ 71.00\\ 56.50\\ 53.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 8,894 \\ 101,574 \\ 11,780 \\ 61,250 \\ 2,408 \end{array}$	8,128 88,031 10,792 54,862 2,226	$73 \\ 939 \\ 74 \\ 664 \\ 21$	72 939 73 657 21	31.00	26.90 32.50 27.10	2,248 29,109 2,516 20,451 670	2,138 25,259 2,372 17,805 588
Maryland Virginia West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina	183 373 245 315 189	181 359 241 321 189	$\begin{array}{c} 46.50 \\ 53.50 \\ 39.00 \end{array}$	$50.00 \\ 34.00$	10,614 17,344 13,108 12,285 7,560	9,412 14,898 12,050 10,914 6,520	$125 \\ 486 \\ 369 \\ 364 \\ 215$	125 472 362 375 215	$31.80 \\ 38.70 \\ 19.40$	$\begin{array}{c} 28.\ 20\\ 36.\ 30\\ 16.\ 80 \end{array}$	4,025 15,455 14,280 7,062 3,934	3,600 13,310 13,141 6,300 3,311
Georgia. Florida. Ohio. Indiana. Illinois.	418 141 950 700 1,057	414 136 922 672 1,047	43.00 60.00 58.50	$\begin{array}{c} 31.50 \\ 40.00 \\ 56.00 \\ 54.50 \\ 60.20 \end{array}$		$13,041 \\ 5,440 \\ 51,632 \\ 36,624 \\ 63,029$	1,251		16.50 36.40 39.00	$\begin{array}{c} 14.90\\ 33.80\\ 36.80\end{array}$	$11,113\\14,272\\31,413\\28,665\\54,168$	9,261 11,920 29,474 26,790 47,702
Michigan. Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa. Missouri	865 1,750 1,302 1,405 845	847 1,675 1,240 1,391 837	$\begin{array}{c} 65. 60 \\ 58. 00 \\ 66. 50 \end{array}$	56.20 55.00 51.00 58.50 54.40	113,750 75,516 93,432	03.240	$720 \\ 1,340 \\ 1,340 \\ 2,754 \\ 1,600 \end{cases}$	735 1,313 1,275 2,737 1,555	29.80 26.50 43.20	25.20 22.49	21,744 39,932 35,510 118,973 65,440	28,560 104,827
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky	$410 \\ 524 \\ 676 \\ 900 \\ 418$	373 485 650 835 406	67.00 68.00 64.50	57.00 59.00 60.00 60.60 44.80	25,215 35,108 45,968 58,050 20,691	21,261 28,615 39,000 50,601 18,189	$629 \\ 1,181 \\ 2,349 \\ 2,115 \\ 570 $	577 1,064 2,237 2,160 570	$\begin{array}{c} 38.\ 29\\ 43.\ 70\\ 44.\ 30\\ 43.\ 10\\ 33.\ 70 \end{array}$	38.40	24,028 51,610 104,061 91,156 19,209	20, 195 40, 858 90, 598 90, 072 17, 556
Tennessee Alabama Mississisppi Louisiana Texas	$ 405 \\ 450 \\ 274 $	366 405 447 271 1,119	$36.50 \\ 38.00 \\ 42.00$	$\begin{array}{c} 39.\ 50\\ 32.\ 00\\ 33.\ 50\\ 37.\ 00\\ 51.\ 00 \end{array}$	15,738 14,782 17,100 11,508 64,038	14,457 12,960 14,974 10,027 57,069	528 534 535 475 5,482	518 534 535 475 5,428	20.00	$\begin{array}{c} 22.60\\ 13.00\\ 14.10\\ 16.80\\ 33.10 \end{array}$	13,464 7,850 8,774 9,500 178,713	11,7076,9427,5447,980179,667
Oklahoma. Arkansas. Montana. Wyoming. Colorado.	$535 \\ 402 \\ 148 \\ 55 \\ 237$	$519 \\ 402 \\ 129 \\ 50 \\ 219$	44.00 79.00 81.50	55.00 38.00 77.50 80.50 72.00	32,100 17,688 11,692 4,482 17,420	28,545 15,276 9,998 4,025 15,768		523 894 750	$19.20 \\ 53.10 \\ 52.70$	37.90 . 17.00 50.40 52.70 44.80	47,536 10,560 52,197 43,478 51,405	
New Mexico Arizona Utah Nevada	85 81 91 26	76 58 96 25	85.00	62.00	5,780		1.145	$1,090\\838\\408\\472$	$37.30 \\ 34.90$	$\begin{array}{c} 40.\ 10\\ 34.\ 20\\ 35.\ 80\\ 39.\ 70\end{array}$	45,456 32,227 14,239 18,565	43,709 28,660 14,606 18,738
Idaho. Washington Oregon. California	130 263 222 591	$126 \\ 263 \\ 216 \\ 568$	59.50 55.00	$\begin{array}{c} 66.\ 00\\ 60.\ 50\\ 55.\ 00\\ 69.\ 00 \end{array}$	15,648 12,210	8,316 15,912 11,880 39,192	577	406 255 553 1,558	$30.40 \\ 37.30$	30.30 32.20	16, 135 8, 360 21, 522 62, 332	$15,672 \\ 7,726 \\ 17,807 \\ 56,555$
United States.	22,768	22, 108	59.66	53.92	1,358,435	1, 191, 955	40, 849	39,812	35.88	33. 53	,465,786	1,334,928

CATTLE-Continued.

TABLE 158.—Cattle: Wholesale price per 100 pounds, 1912-1916.

	Chic	ago.	Cincir	nnati.	St. I.	ouis.	Kansa	s City.	Om	aha.
Date.		ior to me.	Fair t diu	o me- m.		o choice steers.	Comm prin		Native	beeves.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. January-June July-December	\$1.75 2.25	\$9.60 11.25	\$4.10 4.05	\$6. 25 6. 75	\$7.35 8.30	\$9.50 11.00	\$4.60 5.50	\$9.50 12.40		
1913. January-June July-December	$3.00 \\ 3.00$	9.50 10.25	$4.65 \\ 4.50$	7.65 7.00	8.00 8.50	9.25 10.00	4.75 4.50	9.00 10.00	\$3.25 3.00	\$8.80 9.60
1914. January-June July-December	6.60 4.85	9.75 11.25	$5.35 \\ 4.65$	7.25 7.25	8.00 8.00	9.00 9.50	$5.20 \\ 4.50$	9.40 11.35	6.50 6.00	9.25 10.75
1915. January February March April. May. June	$\begin{array}{r} 4.\ 60\\ 4.\ 25\\ 4.\ 50\\ 4.\ 65\\ 4.\ 90\\ 4.\ 75\end{array}$	9.65 9.25 9.15 8.90 9.65 9.95	$\begin{array}{r} 4.85\\ 5.00\\ 5.10\\ 5.00\\ 5.25\\ 5.35\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 25 \\ 6.\ 65 \\ 6.\ 50 \\ 6.\ 50 \\ 7.\ 00 \\ 7.\ 00 \end{array}$	8.50 7.40 8.50 7.35 8.50 9.00	9.25 8.85 9.00 8.85 9.30 9.40	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ \end{array}$	9.758.858.659.009.259.35	8.50 8.30 8.45 8.50 9.00 9.35	8, 50 8, 30 8, 45 8, 50 9, 00 9, 35
JanJune	4.25	9,95	4.85	7.00	7.35	9.40	6.00	9.75	8.30	9.35
July. August. September October November December.	$\begin{array}{r} \textbf{4.50} \\ \textbf{4.50} \\ \textbf{4.25} \\ \textbf{4.00} \\ \textbf{4.50} \\ \textbf{4.50} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 10.\ 40\\ 10.\ 50\\ 10.\ 50\\ 10.\ 60\\ 10.\ 55\\ 13.\ 60\\ \end{array}$	5.254.604.154.004.504.50	7.00 6.65 6.00 5.80 5.75 6.00	9.60 9.25 10.00 10.00 9.75 8.80	$10.35 \\ 10.00 \\ 10.00 \\ 10.35 \\ 10.30 \\ 10.40$	6,60 6,60 6,60 6,60 6,00 5,50	$\begin{array}{c} 10.10\\ 10.00\\ 10.10\\ 10.25\\ 10.25\\ 10.35 \end{array}$	10.10 9.85 9.85 9.90 10.00 10.00	10.10 9.85 9.85 9.90 10.00 10.00
July-Dec	4.00	13.60	4.15	7.00	8,80	10.40	5.50	10.35	9.85	10.10
1916. January February March April May. June	5.50 5.70 6.75 7.25 7.50 7.15	9.85 9.75 10.05 10.00 10.90 11.50	$5.00 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.50 \\ 6.00 \\ 6.25 \\ 6.25 \\ 6.25 $	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 25 \\ 6.\ 40 \\ 7.\ 40 \\ 7.\ 75 \\ 9.\ 25 \\ 8.\ 50 \end{array}$	8.40 8.50 9.00 9.25 9.55 10.60	$\begin{array}{r} 9.\ 60\\ 9.\ 00\\ 10.\ 00\\ 10.\ 00\\ 10.\ 25\\ 11.\ 35\end{array}$	7.156.907.107.507.508.00	$\begin{array}{r} 9.\ 75\\ 9.\ 75\\ 10.\ 05\\ 10.\ 00\\ 11.\ 05\\ 11.\ 50 \end{array}$	6.00 6.25 7.00 7.25 7.65 7.25	8.75 8.65 9.40 9.50 10.65 11.00
JanJune	5.50	11.50	5.00	9.25	8.40	11.35	6.90	11.50	6.00	11.00
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{c} 6.00 \\ 6.00 \\ 5.60 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.65 \\ 6.25 \end{array}$	11. 30 11. 50 11. 50 11. 65 12. 40 13. 00	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 00\\ 6.\ 00\\ 5.\ 75\\ 5.\ 50\\ 5.\ 50\\ 6.\ 00 \end{array}$	8.00 7.50 7.25 7.00 7.35 7.75	9.60 9.20 10.35 10.60 9.00 8.00	11.00 10.50 10.85 11.15 9.85 11.50	7.757.759.507.756.006.00	$11.30 \\ 11.35 \\ 11.25 \\ 10.50 \\ 11.75 \\ 12.00$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.75 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.50 \\ 7.00 \end{array}$	10.40 10.60 10.85 11.10 11.50
July-Dec	5.50	13.00	5.50	8.00	8.00	11.50	6.00	12.00	6.50	11.50

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BUTTER AND EGGS.

TABLE 159.—Butter: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1916.

	El	gin.		Chic	ago.		Cinci	nnati.	Milwa	aukee.	New	York.
Date.		mery, tra.		mery, tra.	first	ries, is to ras.		nery, tra.		mery, icy.	Creamery, extra.	
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. January-June. July-December	Cts. 25 25	$Cts. 40 \\ 35\frac{1}{2}$	Cts. 25 24	Cts. 40 37	Cts. 22 22	Cts. 34 33	$Cts. 27\frac{1}{2} 27\frac{1}{2}$	Cts. 421 39	Cts. 25 25	$Cts. 40 \\ 35\frac{1}{2}$	-Cts. 26 26	Cts. 41 38
1913. January-June. July-December	$26\frac{1}{2}$ 26	$\frac{35}{35\frac{1}{2}}$	$25 \\ 24$	36 36	$\frac{24}{24}$	33 33	31 30	40 39 <u>1</u>	27 26	35 35 <u>1</u>	261 26	42 371
1914. January-Juno. July-December	231 26	$35\frac{1}{2}$ 34	$\frac{24}{26}$	$35\frac{1}{2}$ 34	$20 \\ 22$	33 33½	$\frac{27\frac{1}{2}}{30}$	39 <u>1</u> 38	$23\frac{1}{2}$ 26	$35\frac{1}{2}$ 34	$24\frac{1}{26\frac{3}{4}}$	50 36½
1915. January. February. March. April. May. June.	$\begin{array}{c} 30 \\ 29 \\ 28\frac{1}{2} \\ 28 \\ 25\frac{1}{2} \\ 26\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	34 32 29 31 ¹ / ₂ 28 28	$ \begin{array}{r} 30 \\ 29 \\ 28 \\ 27\frac{1}{2} \\ 26 \\ 27 \end{array} $	$34 \\ 32 \\ 29{1 \over 2} \\ 31 \\ 28{1 \over 2} \\ 27{1 \over 2}$	$27\frac{1}{26}$ 22 22 22 21 23	32 30 28 30 27 27	$34 \\ 34 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 29\frac{1}{2} \\ 30\frac{1}{2}$	38 36 $34\frac{1}{2}$ $32\frac{1}{2}$ $32\frac{1}{2}$ 32	$\begin{array}{c} 30\\ 30\frac{1}{2}\\ 28\\ 28\\ 28\\ 25\frac{1}{2}\\ 26\frac{1}{2}\\ 26\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$34 \\ 32 \\ 30 \\ 31\frac{1}{2} \\ 28 \\ 28\frac{1}{2}$	$32 \\ 24 \\ 28^{1}_{2} \\ 29 \\ 27^{1}_{2} \\ 28$	36 30 32 32 31 28]
January-June	$25\frac{1}{2}$	34	26	34	21	32	$29\frac{1}{2}$	38	$25\frac{1}{2}$	34	24	36
July August. September October November Docember.	$ \begin{array}{r} 24\frac{1}{2} \\ 24 \\ 24\frac{1}{2} \\ 26 \\ 28 \\ 33 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 27 \\ 25 \\ 26 \\ 28 \\ 33 \\ 34 \\ 34 \end{array} $	$25 \\ 24 \\ 21 \\ 26\frac{1}{2} \\ 28 \\ 32$	$27 \\ 25 \\ 26\frac{1}{2} \\ 28 \\ 32 \\ 34$	22 21 21 22 23 25	26 25 24 27 30 30	$28\frac{1}{28}$ 28 28 30 32 37	31 29 30 32 37 38	$25 \\ 24 \\ 24 \\ 26 \\ 28 \\ 33$	$\begin{array}{c} 26\frac{1}{2}\\ 24\frac{1}{2}\\ 26\\ 28\\ 33\\ 34\\ \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 26 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ 28 \\ 28 \\ 28 \\ 33 \\ 33 \end{array} $	28 26 28 28 29 34 30
July-December	21	34	24	34	21	30	28	.38	24	34	25	36}
1916. January. February. March. April. May. June.	30 30 34 32 28 28	$31\frac{1}{2}$ 34 36 36 36 32 29	$\begin{array}{c} 30 \\ 30 \\ 34 \\ 32\frac{1}{2} \\ 28\frac{1}{2} \\ 27\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$32 \\ 33\frac{1}{2} \\ 36\frac{1}{2} \\ 36 \\ 32 \\ 29$	25 25 28 31 27 25	$30 \\ 31\frac{1}{2} \\ 35 \\ 35 \\ 35 \\ 32 \\ 29$	35 34 38 37 32 32	$351 \\ 37 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 37 \\ 33$	30 30 34 33 28 28	$31\frac{3}{34}$ 36 36 32 29	31 301/2 36 331/2 30 29	33] 36 33 37] 34 30]
January-June	28	36	$27\frac{1}{2}$	$36\frac{1}{2}$	25	35	32	40	28	36	23	38
July August. September October November. December.	27½ 28 31½ 34 35 37	$ \begin{array}{r} 28 \\ 31 \\ 34 \\ 35 \\ 42 \\ 42 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 27\frac{1}{2}\\ 28\frac{1}{2}\\ 31\frac{1}{2}\\ 34\\ 35\\ 37 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 28 \\ 31\frac{1}{2} \\ 34 \\ 35 \\ 42 \\ 40 \\ 40 \end{array} $	25	271	$31\frac{1}{2}$ 32 35 37 39 41	$32 \\ 35 \\ 37 \\ 39 \\ 46 \\ 46 \\ 46$	$27\frac{1}{3}$ 28 31 34 35 37	28 31 33 35 42 42 42	$28\frac{1}{2}$ 30 33 35 $\frac{1}{3}$ 36 37	$ \begin{array}{r} 30 \\ 33\frac{1}{3} \\ 34 \\ 36\frac{1}{4} \\ 42\frac{1}{4} \\ 41\frac{1}{4} \end{array} $
July-December	271	42	$27\frac{1}{2}$	42	25	271	311/2	46	271	42	285	421

TABLE 160.—Butter: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

(Butter includes all butter made from milk, melted and renovated butter, but does not include margarine cocco butter, or ghee. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

Country.	1913	1914	1915 (prelim.)	Country.	1913	1914	1915 (prelim.)
Argentina. Australia. Austria-Hungary. Belgium Canada. Denmark. Finland France. Germany. Italy.	Pounds. 8,342 76,334 3,039 2,147 1,220 200,670 27,867 38,360 602 6,034	Pounds. 7,676 56,163 2,500 24,567 44,619 9,310	Pounds. 10, 192 3, 593 20, 015 50, 337 7, 689	Netherlands Nerway. Russia. Sweden United States. Other countries Total		Pounds. 81,407 48,616 1,575 118,997 41,941 3,668 2,649 446,708	Pounds. 93, 113 47, 056 3, 607 111, 950 17, 941

IMPORTS.

Austria-Hungary Belgium Brazil British SouthAfrica Canada. Denmark Dutch East Indies. Egypt Finland. France.	4,336 3,910 7,886 6,242 4,550		732 2,030 5,661 1,194 4,916 1,710	Germany Netheriands Sweden Switzerland. United Kingdom Other countries Total	$ \begin{array}{r} 432 \\ 11,155 \\ 451,736 \end{array} $	3,880 2,969 189 8,900 436,019 29,019 518,038	904 1,517 5,700 426,355
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BUTTER AND EGGS-Continued.

TABLE 161.—Butter: Average price received by farmers on first of each month, by States, 1916.

-					Butte	r, cen'	s per I	ound.				
State and division.	January.	Fohruary.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Isiand	32 34 33 35 30	31 34 35 24	$31 \\ 33 \\ 34 \\ 36 \\ 34 \\ 34 \\ 36 \\ 34 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31$	32 30 35 36 37	32 32 36 38 35	32 34 34 36 34	31 32 32 34 32	33 33 32 36 36	31 34 34 37 37	$ \begin{array}{r} 34 \\ 36 \\ 34 \\ 37 \\ 40 \end{array} $	$35 \\ 39 \\ 37 \\ 41 \\ 40$	37 39 39 41 40
Connecticut. New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware	5336 336 336 336 336	$34 \\ 32 \\ 34 \\ 32 \\ 30 \\ 30 \\ 30 \\ 31 \\ 32 \\ 30 \\ 30 \\ 31 \\ 32 \\ 30 \\ 30 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 32 \\ 30 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 32 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 32 \\ 31 \\ 31$	34 32 36 32 32	34 32 34 23	25 34 36 32 30	35 32 35 20 32	35 30 34 28 38	34 30 34 29 36	36 32 35 31 32	38 34 37 34	37 36 39 36	40 39 41 39 38
Maryland Virginia West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina	20 26 23 25 26	$30 \\ 25 \\ 27 \\ 24 \\ 25$	$28 \\ 26 \\ 26 \\ 24 \\ 26 \\ 26$	29 26 27 23 26	28 26 28 24 23	26 25 24 24 24 27	24 23 23 24 28	26 23 25 24 28	23 26 25 27	29 26 27 26 28	32 23 30 26 32	35 30 32 29 31
Georgia Plorida Obio Indiana Illinois.	25 35 29 25 28	$25 \\ 34 \\ 27 \\ 24 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 2$	$25 \\ 36 \\ 27 \\ 24 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27$	26 34 28 25 23	25 34 28 25 27	$25 \\ 35 \\ 26 \\ 24 \\ 26$	$25 \\ 34 \\ 26 \\ 24 \\ 26 \\ 26$	$25 \\ 36 \\ 26 \\ 24 \\ 26$	26 35 27 25 28	28 37 29 26 29	29 36 31 29 30	30 39 35 32 34
Michigan	28 33 30 28 24	$28 \\ 31 \\ 30 \\ 29 \\ 24$	27 31 29 27 23	28 33 29 29 24	28 32 31 29 25	26 30 29 27 24	25 28 28 26 23	26 28 27 27 23	28 30 29 28 24	30 32 30 30 25	32 35 33 32 28	36 40 37 36 31
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky	20 20 26 27 22	$28 \\ 27 \\ 25 \\ 26 \\ 21$	$26 \\ 26 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ 22 \\ 22 \\ 22 \\ 22 \\ $	$24 \\ 26 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ 21$	$ \begin{array}{r} 25 \\ 28 \\ 26 \\ 22 \\ 22 \end{array} $	$26 \\ 27 \\ 25 \\ 25 \\ 21$	$24 \\ 26 \\ 24 \\ 25 \\ 21$	$24 \\ 25 \\ 24 \\ 25 \\ 21$	$25 \\ 26 \\ 25 \\ 26 \\ 26 \\ 22$	28 29 27 28 23	30 32 29 30 24	35 36 33 33 27
Tennessee Alabama Mississippi Louisiana Texas	21 22 24 30 25	21 22 24 28 24	$20 \\ 21 \\ 24 \\ 28 \\ 23$	20 23 24 29 23	20 22 23 28 23	$19 \\ 22 \\ 23 \\ 29 \\ 23 \\ 23 \\ 23 \\ 23 \\ 2$	$ \begin{array}{r} 18 \\ 22 \\ 23 \\ 29 \\ 22 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 19 \\ 22 \\ 24 \\ 29 \\ 23 \end{array} $	$19 \\ 24 \\ 24 \\ 20 \\ 24 \\ 24$	$21 \\ 24 \\ 24 \\ 28 \\ 24 \\ 24$	23 25 25 33 27	26 27 27 32 31
Oklahoma Arkansas Montana Wyoning Colorado	26 25 35 35 35 35 35 35	25 24 35 32 29	24 23 35 31 28	$24 \\ 23 \\ 32 \\ 29 \\ 28$	$25 \\ 24 \\ 33 \\ 30 \\ 29$	25 23 31 27 27	24 23 28 28 29 27	24 24 31 30 27	25 25 29 29 29	28 25 32 31 30	29 27 39 35 33	32 29 39 38 36
New Mexico Arizon 1 Utah Nevada	85 23 28 33	34 38 28 34	33 35 28 32	34 36 28 37	33 35 28 36	31 37 25 32	34 39 26 34	33 38 28 32	32 37 30 34	33 38 29 36	34 38 36 41	37 42 37 39
Idaho. Washington. Orecon California	31 34 32 32	32 33 33 32	30 33 32 32	29 32 33 29	30 32 32 27	28 29 29 29	27 20 28 27	27 29 29 28	29 31 31 29	31 32 32 31	35 37 34 32	38 39 38 37
Unite 1 States	25.3	27.6	27.1	27.6	27.9	26.5	25.7	26.1	27.4	29.0	31.1	34.4
North Atlantic. South Atlantic N. Central E. Miss. R. N. Central W. Miss. R. South Central. Far Western.	-23.7	32.3 26.1 27.3 27.0 23.0 31.9	$\begin{array}{c} 32.4\\ 25.8\\ 27.1\\ 25.9\\ 22.5\\ 31.5\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 32.8\\ 26.0\\ 28.2\\ 26.5\\ 22.6\\ 30.2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 33.4 \\ 26.4 \\ 27.9 \\ 27.5 \\ 22.7 \\ 29.5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 31.4\\ 25.1\\ 26.3\\ 26.1\\ 22.2\\ 28.6\end{array}$	29.9 24.4 25.7 25.3 21.8 27.6	$\begin{array}{c} 30.5 \\ 25.0 \\ 26.0 \\ 25.3 \\ 22.4 \\ 28.4 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 32.1 \\ 26.3 \\ 27.5 \\ 26.4 \\ 23.2 \\ 20.8 \end{array}$	34.3 27.2 29.1 28.4 23.9 31.2	36.3 29.0 31.3 30.6 25.8 34.1	39.0 31.0 35.3 34.3 28.6 37.5

TABLE 162.-Butter: Receipts at seven leading markets in the United States, 1891-1916.

[From Board of Trade, Chamber of Commerce, and Merchants' Exchange reports.]

[000 omitted.]

Year.	Boston.	Chicago.	Mil- waukee.	St. Louis	San Fran- cisco.	Total 5 cities.	Cincin- nati.	New York.
Averages: 1891–1895 1896–1900 1901–1905 1906–1910	Pounds. 40,955 50,790 57,716 66,612	Pounds. 145, 225 232, 289 245, 203 286, 518	Pounds. 3,996 5,096 7,164 8,001	Pounds. 13,944 14,582 14,685 17,903	Pounds. 15, 240 14, 476 15, 026 13, 581	Pounds. 219,360 317,233 339,794 392,615	Packages. 88 157 177 169	Packages. 1,741 2,010 2,122 2,207
1901	57,500 54,574 54,347 55,435 66,725	253, 809 219, 233 232, 032 249, 024 271, 915	5,590 7,290 6,857 7,993 8,091	$13,477 \\ 14,573 \\ 14,080 \\ 15,727 \\ 15,566$	$\begin{array}{c} 14,972\\ 14,801\\ 13,570\\ 14,336\\ 17,450 \end{array}$	345,348 310,471 320,886 342,515 379,747	238 223 121 147 155	2,040 1,933 2,113 2,170 2,355
1906. 1907. 1908. 1908. 1909. 1910.	$\begin{array}{c} 65,152\\ 63,589\\ 69,843\\ 65,054\\ 69,421 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 248,648\\ 263,715\\ 316,695\\ 284,547\\ 318,986 \end{array}$	8,209 8,219 8,798 7,458 7,319	$13,198 \\ 13,453 \\ 18,614 \\ 21,086 \\ 23,163$	9,282 16,725 13,528 14,449 13,922	344,489 365,701 427,478 392,594 432,811	$205 \\ 187 \\ 166 \\ 150 \\ 135$	$2,242 \\ 2,113 \\ 2,175 \\ 2,250 \\ 2,257$
1911. 1912. 1913. 1914. 1914. 1915. 1916.	63,874 72,109 70,737 73,028 82,396 79,305	$\begin{array}{r} 334,932\\ 286,213\\ 277,651\\ 307,899\\ 341,202\\ 344,381 \end{array}$	8,632 7,007 9,068 9,496 8,624 7,705	$\begin{array}{r} 24,839\\ 20,521\\ 24,726\\ 24,614\\ 21,334\\ 16,435\end{array}$	$17,606 \\ 28,172 \\ 23,122 \\ 22,421 \\ 28,349 \\ 28,029$	$\begin{array}{r} 449,883\\ 414,022\\ 405,304\\ 437,458\\ 481,905\\ 475,855\end{array}$	$162 \\ 109 \\ 103 \\ 82 \\ 130 \\ 256$	2,405 2,436 2,517 2,513 2,734 2,929
1916. January	2,849 3,769 2,912 4,052 8,864 16,361 13,375 9,681 6,629 5,188 3,149 2,476	$\begin{array}{c} 18, 499\\ 17, 549\\ 20, 652\\ 29, 918\\ 49, 705\\ 49, 244\\ 35, 309\\ 31, 123\\ 30, 571\\ 22, 223\\ 18, 614 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 453\\ 453\\ 542\\ 444\\ 644\\ 1,252\\ 1,016\\ 811\\ 672\\ 692\\ 342\\ 384\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,080\\ 1,016\\ 1,306\\ 1,270\\ 1,176\\ 1,781\\ 1,688\\ 1,225\\ 1,752\\ 1,452\\ 1,752\\ 1,393\\ 1,291 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,791\\ 1,766\\ 2,469\\ 3,404\\ 3,259\\ 3,006\\ 2,212\\ 2,284\\ 2,141\\ 1,881\\ 1,856\\ 1,900\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 24,672\\ 21,533\\ 28,113\\ 20,822\\ 43,861\\ 72,255\\ 67,535\\ 49,310\\ 42,317\\ 39,783\\ 28,963\\ 24,665\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 129 \\ 5 \\ 11 \\ 6 \\ 10 \\ 16 \\ 13 \\ 16 \\ 6 \\ 11 \\ 15 \\ 18 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 150\\ 152\\ 207\\ 185\\ 264\\ 443\\ 371\\ 319\\ 269\\ 254\\ 163\\ 153\\ \end{array}$

TABLE 163.-Eggs: Average price received by farmers on first of each month, by States, 1916.

					Eggs	, cents	per de	ozen.				
State and division.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
Maine. New Hampshire Vermont. Massechusetts. Rhoda Island.	$37 \\ 41 \\ 39 \\ 44 \\ 47$	31 35 33 36 36	27 28 29 35 30	23 22 26 28 27	21 23 21 26 26	24 25 22 28 27	$26 \\ 29 \\ 24 \\ 34 \\ 31$	29 31 26 34 35	$35 \\ 37 \\ 33 \\ 44 \\ 43$	$39 \\ 41 \\ 37 \\ 52 \\ 44$	42 46 41 49 50	50 51 50 60 63
Connecticut. New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware	$ \begin{array}{r} 44 \\ 41 \\ 45 \\ 37 \\ 34 \end{array} $	37 34 37 29 24	28 27 33 25 22	$28 \\ 24 \\ 28 \\ 22 \\$	$22 \\ 22 \\ 25 \\ 20 \\ 21$	$25 \\ 23 \\ 26 \\ 21 \\ 24$	29 25 28 24 27	33 28 31 26 29	40 33 35 29 30	$ \begin{array}{r} 44 \\ 39 \\ 42 \\ 33 \\ \dots \end{array} $	52 44 50 38	61 50 55 44 46
Maryland Virginia West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina.	31 29 31 26 26	26 23 27 21 22	$21 \\ 20 \\ 22 \\ 17 \\ 18$	$19 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 16 \\ 18$	19 18 18 16 18	20 19 18 17 19	21 19 20 18 19	22 20 21 18 19	26 24 24 22 22 22	31 28 27 26 25	33 30 33 27 29	42 36 36 31 34
Georgia Florida. Ohio Indiana Illinois.	28 33 32 30 31	21 26 25 26 29	$ \begin{array}{r} 17 \\ 24 \\ 20 \\ 19 \\ 22 \end{array} $	17 20 18 17 18	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 22 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 18 \\$	$ \begin{array}{r} 17 \\ 22 \\ 20 \\ 19 \\ 10 \\$	$ \begin{array}{r} 17 \\ 23 \\ 21 \\ 19 \\ 20 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 19 \\ 24 \\ 23 \\ 21 \\ 20 \end{array} $	23 27 26 22 23	26 30 30 28 27	29 32 34 32 31	34 37 40 38 38
Michigan	31 31 31 28 26	28 29 28 27 25	$23 \\ 25 \\ 24 \\ 22 \\ 18$	19 18 17 17 17	19 19 18 18 18	20 20 19 19 19	20 20 19 19 13	23 21 20 20 17	$25 \\ 24 \\ 22 \\ 21 \\ 18$	27 26 26 26 25	32 31 31 30 28	38 36 36 34 34
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska. Kansas Kentucky	31 29 27 26 26	30 26 25 25 23	28 23 19 17 17	$ \begin{array}{c} 17 \\ 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 15 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 17 \\ 17 \\ 17 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 17 \\$	16 18 17 17 17	16 18 17 17 18	19 20 18 18 20	23 25 24 25 25	28 29 28 29 28	36 35 34 35 34
Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana. Texas.	$24 \\ 23 \\ 26 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27$	22 20 21 22 22	$ \begin{array}{r} 17 \\ 16 \\ 17 \\ 18 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ \end{array} $	$15 \\ 14 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 14$	$15 \\ 14 \\ 16 \\ 17 \\ 15$	16 15 16 18 15	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 16 \\ 16 \\ 17 \\ 14 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 16 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 18 \\ 16 \end{array} $	19 19 20 22 18	24 24 23 24 23	27 25 25 29 27	33 30 31 31 35
Oklahoma. Arkansas. Montana Wyoming. Colorado.	$25 \\ 26 \\ 46 \\ 39 \\ 36$	24 23 41 38 31	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 16 \\ 36 \\ 32 \\ 25 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 15 \\ 14 \\ 22 \\ 21 \\ 18 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 15 \\ 19 \\ 20 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 16 \\ 15 \\ 21 \\ 22 \\ 21 \\ 21 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 15 \\ 16 \\ 23 \\ 22 \\ 21 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 15 \\ 16 \\ 25 \\ 22 \\ 22 \end{array} $	15 18 26 28 25	22 23 30 29 30	$28 \\ 26 \\ 41 \\ 37 \\ 36$	35 32 46 42 42
New Mexico Arizona. Utah. Nevada.	$37 \\ 45 \\ 35 \\ 55$	29 38 31 37	27 28 25 30	23 23 18 26	20 27 17 25	24 28 20 28	24 29 20 27	25 35 22 30	26 34 24 35	28 40 27 38	31 38 35 45	39 48 42 51
Idaho Washington Oregon California	$39 \\ 40 \\ 36 \\ 40$	$37 \\ 35 \\ 35 \\ 33 \\ 33 \\ 33 \\ 33 \\ 31 \\ 31$	32 30 27 25	20 20 20 19	19 20 20 20	21 22 22 23	22 23 23 25	$24 \\ 26 \\ 24 \\ 26$	$24 \\ 30 \\ 28 \\ 31$	30 32 31 35	36 42 37 46	44 47 45 49
United States	30.6	26.8	21.2	17.9	18.1	19.0	19.7	20.7	23.3	28.1	32.2	38.1
North Atlantie. South Atlantie. N. Central E. Miss, R. N. Central W. Miss, R. South Central. Far Western.	$\begin{array}{c} 39.\ 9\\ 29.\ 0\\ 31.\ 1\\ 27.\ 5\\ 25.\ 7\\ 39.\ 1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 32.5\\ 23.4\\ 27.2\\ 26.0\\ 22.2\\ 33.9 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 27.\ 4\\ 19.\ 5\\ 21.\ 4\\ 20.\ 1\\ 16.\ 5\\ 27.\ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 23.9\\ 17.9\\ 18.0\\ 16.5\\ 14.8\\ 19.5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 21.\ 7\\ 17.\ 7\\ 18.\ 5\\ 17.\ 4\\ 15.\ 5\\ 19.\ 8\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23.1 \\ 18.6 \\ 19.5 \\ 18.0 \\ 15.8 \\ 22.3 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 25.9\\ 19.4\\ 20.1\\ 18.0\\ 15.6\\ 23.6 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 28.3 \\ 20.3 \\ 21.6 \\ 18.2 \\ 16.2 \\ 25.2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 33.1\\ 23.9\\ 24.0\\ 19.4\\ 18.7\\ 28.8 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 38.2 \\ 27.4 \\ 27.9 \\ 25.2 \\ 23.5 \\ 32.5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 42.8\\ 30.2\\ 32.1\\ 29.1\\ 26.9\\ 41.4 \end{array}$	49.5 35.8 38.3 34.5 33.2 46.4

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TABLE 164 .- Eggs: Receipts at seven leading markets in the United States, 1891-1916.

[From Board of Trade, Chamber of Commerce, and Merchants' Exchange reports.]

Year.	Boston.	Chicago.	Cincin- nati.	Milwau- kee.	New York.	St. Louis.	San Fran- cisco.	Total.
Averages: 1891–1895 1896–1900 1901–1905 1906–1910	912, 807 1, 155, 340	Cases. 1, 879, 065 2, 196, 631 2, 990, 675 4, 467, 040	Cases. 288, 548 362, 262 418, 842 509, 017	Cases. 90, 943 113, 327 139, 718 180, 362	Cases. 2, 113, 946 2, 664, 074 3, 057, 298 4, 046, 360	Cases. 557, 320 852, 457 1, 000, 935 1, 304, 719	Cases. 166,059 194,087 304,933 334,766	Cases. 5, 818, 244 7, 295, 645 9, 067, 741 12, 360, 259
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	1,053,165 1,164,777 1,122,819	$\begin{array}{c} 2,783,709\\ 2,659,340\\ 3,279,248\\ 3,113,858\\ 3,117,221 \end{array}$	493, 218 464, 799 338, 327 377, 263 420, 604	166, 409	$\begin{array}{c} 2,909,194\\ 2,743,642\\ 2,940,091\\ 3,215,924\\ 3,477,638 \end{array}$	$1,022,646\\825,999\\959,648\\1,216,124\\980,257$	$\begin{array}{r} 277,500\\ 285,058\\ 335,228\\ 319,637\\ 307,243 \end{array}$	8,655,001 8,146,735 9,146,597 9,532,034 9,858,338
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	1, 594, 576 1, 436, 786 1, 417, 397	3, 583, 878 4, 780, 356 4, 569, 014 4, 557, 906 4, 814, 045	484, 208 588, 636 441, 072 519, 652 511, 519	176,826 207,558	4, 262, 153 3, 703, 990 3, 903, 867	$1,023,125 \\1,288,977 \\1,439,868 \\1,395,987 \\1,375,638$	379, 439 347, 436 340, 185	$\begin{array}{c} 11, 106, 390 \\ 13, 070, 963 \\ 12, 145, 724 \\ 12, 295, 412 \\ 13, 182, 811 \end{array}$
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	1, 580, 106 1, 589, 399 1, 531, 329 1, 766, 185	$\frac{4}{4},707,335$ $\frac{4}{4},556,643$ $\frac{4}{4},593,800$ $\frac{4}{4},083,163$ $\frac{4}{4},896,246$ $\frac{5}{4},452,737$	$\begin{array}{r} 605,131\\ 668,942\\ 594,954\\ 461,783\\ 806,834\\ \textbf{1,534,622} \end{array}$	$136, 621 \\187, 931 \\221, 345 \\199, 521$	$5,021,757 \\4,723,558 \\4,666,117 \\4,762,174 \\4,582,218 \\4,864,343$	$1, 391, 611 \\1, 397, 962 \\1, 470, 716 \\1, 452, 856$	638, 920 574, 222 619, 508 629, 571	14, 275, 271 13, 696, 401 13, 604, 385 13, 150, 018 14, 333, 431 15, 820, 207
1916. January	$\begin{array}{c} 73,414\\ 73,422\\ 179,855\\ 304,205\\ 206,241\\ 109,615\\ 132,195\\ 120,476\\ 94,509\\ 84,632\\ 49,573\\ 41,691 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 158, 955\\ 109, 848\\ 604, 538\\ 1, 144, 454\\ 1, 034, 105\\ 717, 803\\ 495, 437\\ 354, 444\\ 297, 417\\ 262, 791\\ 177, 343\\ 95, 602 \end{array}$	812, 371 8, 922 92, 332 166, 351 100, 003 83, 337 91, 841 52, 310 7, 363 37, 378 35, 266 47, 148	$\begin{array}{r} 4,280\\ 5,710\\ 12,414\\ 47,365\\ 47,365\\ 32,848\\ 16,295\\ 18,733\\ 12,670\\ 10,153\\ 7,350\\ 6,575\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 179, 639\\ 212, 250\\ 537, 975\\ 786, 620\\ 785, 132\\ 601, 601\\ 432, 170\\ 407, 619\\ 290, 902\\ 296, 315\\ 188, 686\\ 136, 434 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 64,476\\ 82,606\\ 289,879\\ 314,177\\ 216,134\\ 165,267\\ 110,304\\ 74,630\\ 66,236\\ 55,388\\ 45,448\\ 37,310\\ \end{array}$	31, 996 58, 400 85, 474 80, 870 70, 974 36, 836 39, 143 42, 373 36, 436 31, 297 27, 689 33 , 526	$\begin{matrix} 1, 325, 131\\ 551, 158\\ 1, 802, 467\\ 2, 844, 042\\ 2, 549, 954\\ 1, 837, 307\\ 1, 317, 385\\ 1, 070, 635\\ 814, 533\\ 777, 954\\ 531, 355\\ 308, 286 \end{matrix}$

BUTTER AND EGGS-Continued.

TABLE 165.-Eggs: Wholesale price per dozen, 1912-1916.

	Chic	eago.			St. L	ouis.	Milwa	ukee.	New	York.
Date.	Fre	esh.	Cinci	nnati.	Avera	ge best sh.	Fre	sh.	Averag	ge best sh.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	IIigh.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cents. 17 171	Cents. 40 271	Cents. 17 18	Cents. 40 36	Cents. 16 141	Cents, 39 27	Cents. 15 16	Cents. 38 30	Cents. 2012 23	Cents. 48 60
1913. JanJune July-Dec	$16\frac{1}{2}$ 16	$\frac{271}{37}$	15½ 185	$\begin{array}{c} 271\\ 42 \end{array}$	$141 \\ 12$	25 35	$\frac{14}{13}$	$\frac{25}{35}$	20 25	$ 40 \\ 65 $
1914. JanJune July-Dee	17 18	$\frac{321}{36}$	$16\frac{1}{2}$ $18\frac{1}{3}$	36 28 <u>1</u>	14 18	$\begin{array}{c} 31\\ 35\end{array}$	15 16	30 32	$\begin{array}{c} 20\\ 24 \end{array}$	50 62
1915. January February March April May June	$29 \\ 21 \\ 17 \\ 18\frac{1}{4} \\ 16\frac{1}{2} \\ 16$	$38 \\ 23 \\ 191 \\ 191 \\ 193 \\ 183 \\ 18$	$20 \\ 16 \\ 14 \\ 14\frac{1}{24} \\ 12\frac{1}{4} \\ 12\frac{1}{2} \\ $	$\begin{array}{r} 40\frac{1}{2}\\ 27\\ 20\\ 19\frac{1}{2}\\ 18\\ 18\frac{1}{2}\end{array}$	$28\frac{1}{20} \\ 17 \\ 17\frac{3}{16} \\ 15\frac{1}{1}$	$\begin{array}{c} 37\frac{1}{2}\\ 28\\ 18\frac{3}{4}\\ 19\\ 18\\ 16\frac{3}{4} \end{array}$	$25 \\ 20 \\ 16 \\ 16^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ 16 \\ 15^{\frac{1}{2}} $	$34 \\ 29 \\ 20\frac{1}{2} \\ 18\frac{1}{2} \\ 18 \\ 16\frac{1}{2} \\ 1$	30 33 181 191 191 18 181 181	$ \begin{array}{r} 44 \\ 40 \\ 203 \\ 22 \\ 211 \\ 21 \\ 21 \end{array} $
JanJune	16	38	$12\frac{1}{2}$	$40\frac{1}{2}$	151	371	$15\frac{1}{2}$	34	18	44
July August September October November December	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 16 \\ 21 \\ 23 \\ 27 \\ 26\frac{1}{2} \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 17\frac{1}{2} \\ 21\frac{1}{2} \\ 24 \\ 27\frac{1}{2} \\ 30\frac{1}{2} \\ 30\frac{1}{2} \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 11\\10\\17\\17\frac{1}{2}\\17\\19\end{array} $	19 24 27 30 36 34 ¹ / ₂	$\begin{array}{r} 14\frac{1}{2} \\ 15\frac{1}{2} \\ 20 \\ 21\frac{1}{2} \\ 26 \\ 24\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 15 \\ 20 \\ 22 \\ 25 \\ 30 \\ 29 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 15\frac{1}{2} \\ 15\frac{1}{2} \\ 19\frac{1}{2} \\ 20\frac{1}{2} \\ 24 \\ 26 \\ \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 16 \\ 21 \\ 22 \\ 26 \\ 30 \\ 32 \end{array} $	18 18 24 27 30 31	21 24 29 34 40 37
July-Dec	16	301	10	36	143	30	$15\frac{1}{2}$	32	18	40
1918. January February March April May June	$\begin{array}{c} 27\\ 20\%\\ 18\frac{1}{2}\\ 19\%\\ 20\%\\ 20\%\\ 20\%\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 321\\ 201\\ 22\\ 21\\ 213\\ 221\\ 221\\ 221\\ \end{array}$	18 181 181 171 171 171 171 18 18	341 235 23 23 21 211 211 221	$ \begin{array}{r} 24\frac{1}{2} \\ 19 \\ 17 \\ 18\frac{1}{2} \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19 \\ 19$	$\begin{array}{c} 31 \\ 30 \\ 20 \frac{1}{2} \\ 20 \\ 20 \frac{1}{2} \\ 20 \end{array}$	25 20] 17 17] 18] 19	31 28 21 19 20 20	$26 \\ 22 \\ 213 \\ 202 \\ 213 \\ 214 \\ 22$	35 301 281 221 231 231 231 241
JanJune	185	321	17	341	17	31	17	31	$20\frac{1}{2}$	35
July	21 / 23 25 / 30 31 / 37	23 26 30½ 32½ 39½ 41	$ \begin{array}{r} 17\frac{1}{2} \\ 18\frac{1}{2} \\ 21 \\ 25\frac{1}{2} \\ 28 \\ 31 \\ \end{array} $	24 30 311 351 43 47	$22 \\ 24 \\ 28 \\ 31 \\ 36$	26 28 31 39 38	19 19 21 22 27 33	22 25 27 30 38 38	$\begin{array}{c} 23\frac{3}{4} \\ 26\frac{1}{2} \\ 31 \\ 32\frac{1}{5} \\ 35\frac{1}{5} \\ 41\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	27 1 34 35 37 46 47
July-Dec	211	41	171	47	22	30	19	38	$23\frac{1}{2}$	47

CHEESE.

TABLE 166.—Cheese: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

[Cheese includes all cheese made from milk; "cottage cheese," of course, is included. See "General note," Table 10.]

EXPORTS.

[000 omitted.]

				,			
Country.			1915 (prelim.)	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (preli m.)
Bulgaria Canada. France. Germany. Italy. Netherlands. Netw Zealand.	Pounds. 1 4,030 148,849 31,405 1,603 72,321 145,337 68,506	Pounds. 138,265 26,576 66,004 149,574 96,743	Pounds. 160,660 16,242 65,781 190,107 91,533	Russia. Switzerland United States Other countries Total	Pounds. 8,373 78,739 2,654 13,903 575,720	Pounds. 3,827 77,573 3,797 12,206 574,565	Pounds. 74,77 63,22
			IMPO	ORTS.			<u></u>
Algeria. Argentina. Austria:Hungary. Belgium. Brazil. British South Africa Cuba. Denmark Egypt. France.	$11, 122 \\ 305 \\ 13, 200 \\ 35, 845 \\ 4, 196 \\ 5, 694 \\ 5, 200 \\ 300 \\ 5, 200 \\ 300 \\ 5, 200 $	6,719 8,453 230 3,288 5,300 4,229 5,953 45,521	4,614 7,306 2,300 4,012 2,839 5,785 46,743	Germany Italy Russia Spain Switzerland United Kingdom. United Kates Other countries Total	12,355	9,838 4,190 5,150 4,717 206,591 55,477 11,343 436,999	3, 47: 3, 71: 3, 20: 3, 41: 299, 92: 38, 91:

1 Data for 1912.

CHICKENS.

				(Chicker	ns, cen	ts per	pound.				
State and division.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Me	$13.5 \\ 15.1 \\ 15.0 \\ 16.7 \\ 17.5$	$14.8 \\ 14.8 \\ 14.3 \\ 17.0 \\ 16.0$	$\begin{array}{c} 14.6\\ 15.3\\ 14.2\\ 16.8\\ 15.5 \end{array}$	$14.5 \\ 13.5 \\ 15.4 \\ 16.6 \\ 18.3$	15.516.515.317.618.3	16.0 16.0 15.9 17.4 19.0	$15.6 \\ 18.0 \\ 14.8 \\ 20.1 \\ 18.5$	$17.0 \\ 19.7 \\ 16.6 \\ 21.0 \\ 23.5$	$17.2 \\ 17.8 \\ 15.7 \\ 18.2 \\ 23.0$	$16.4 \\ 17.0 \\ 16.5 \\ 19.5 \\ 23.0$	17. 2 17. 0 16. 3 18. 9 20. 0	16. 9 19. 4 17. 0 20. 9 20. 0
Conn N. Y N. J. Pa. Del	$18.6 \\ 15.2 \\ 17.3 \\ 13.7 \\ 14.0$	$16.5 \\ 15.5 \\ 18.2 \\ 14.2 \\ 14.0$	$17.2 \\ 15.7 \\ 17.3 \\ 14.5 \\ 13.5$	18.2 15.8 17.9 15.3	18.3 16.9 18.2 15.4 15.0	18.516.919.615.816.0	$18.6 \\ 17.1 \\ 18.9 \\ 15.8 \\ 18.0$	$\begin{array}{c} 20.0\\ 16.8\\ 18.3\\ 16.1\\ 18.0 \end{array}$	$19.2 \\ 17.4 \\ 18.9 \\ 16.4 \\ 19.0$	20.8 17.8 19.4 16.3	20. 2 17. 2 21. 0 16. 0	$\begin{array}{c} 21.0\\ 16.8\\ 21.0\\ 15.7\\ 17.0\end{array}$
Md Va W. Va. N. C S. C	$14.4 \\ 13.5 \\ 12.5 \\ 11.6 \\ 14.3$	$\begin{array}{c c} 14.7\\ 13.8\\ 12.8\\ 12.0\\ 13.0 \end{array}$	$15.9 \\ 14.5 \\ 12.9 \\ 12.1 \\ 12.6$	$\begin{array}{c} 16.1 \\ 14.8 \\ 13.1 \\ 12.2 \\ 13.3 \end{array}$	$17.0 \\ 15.0 \\ 13.5 \\ 13.1 \\ 14.0$	$18.7 \\ 16.4 \\ 14.0 \\ 13.6 \\ 14.9$	$19.0 \\ 16.7 \\ 13.7 \\ 14.2 \\ 14.6$	$19.6 \\ 16.6 \\ 14.9 \\ 13.7 \\ 14.2$	$17.5 \\ 16.2 \\ 14.8 \\ 13.6 \\ 13.8 \\ $	18.516.614.713.715.0	$17.4 \\ 16.2 \\ 14.7 \\ 14.2 \\ 14.7 \\ $	17.1 16.3 15.0 14.1 14.5
Ga Fla. Ohio Ind Ill	$13.2 \\ 17.1 \\ 11.6 \\ 11.0 \\ 11.1$	$ \begin{array}{c} 13.3\\15.6\\12.3\\11.6\\11.8\end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 13.0\\ 17.3\\ 13.2\\ 12.3\\ 11.8 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.3\\ 15.8\\ 13.6\\ 12.8\\ 12.6\end{array}$	$12, 6 \\ 16, 3 \\ 14, 5 \\ 13, 1 \\ 13, 3$	$13.3 \\ 17.3 \\ 14.3 \\ 14.0 \\ 13.5$	$13.9 \\ 15.5 \\ 14.4 \\ 14.0 \\ $	13.517.215.014.113.9	$14.0 \\ 17.1 \\ 14.9 \\ 14.2 \\ 14.0$	$\begin{array}{c} 14.4 \\ 16.6 \\ 15.8 \\ 14.5 \\ 14.5 \end{array}$	$14.9 \\ 16.8 \\ 14.8 \\ 14.4 \\ 14.6$	$14.7 \\ 19.8 \\ 14.0 \\ 14.0 \\ 14.2 \\ $
Mich. Wis. Minn Iowa Mo.	$ \begin{array}{c} 10.9 \\ 9.7 \\ 10.0 \end{array} $	$12.1 \\ 11.4 \\ 10.0 \\ 10.7 \\ 11.0$	$12.5 \\ 12.0 \\ 10.1 \\ 10.7 \\ 11.0$	$13.1 \\ 12.7 \\ 10.8 \\ 11.4 \\ 12.2$	$13.5 \\ 13.4 \\ 11.0 \\ 11.9 \\ 12.8$	$13.8 \\ 13.4 \\ 11.3 \\ 11.8 \\ 13.2$	$13.4 \\ 12.8 \\ 11.6 \\ 12.2 \\ 14.0$	$14.0 \\ 13.9 \\ 11.5 \\ 12.4 \\ 13.1$	$\begin{array}{c} 14. \ 4 \\ 13. \ 7 \\ 12. \ 3 \\ 13. \ 1 \\ 13. \ 0 \end{array}$	$14.2 \\ 13.1 \\ 12.1 \\ 13.7 \\ 13.9$	$14.1 \\ 13.7 \\ 12.1 \\ 13.6 \\ 13.8$	13.8 13.8 12.9 13.6 13.3
N. Dak. S. Dak. Nelt. Kans. Ky.	9.4 8.6 9.1 9.7 10.3	$10.3 \\ 9.4 \\ 10.2 \\ 10.2 \\ 11.1$	9.58.910.410.311.4	$\begin{array}{c} 9.8\\ 9.8\\ 10.8\\ 10.7\\ 11.9\end{array}$	$10.3 \\ 9.9 \\ 11.5 \\ 11.3 \\ 12.8$	$10.2 \\ 9.6 \\ 11.5 \\ 11.6 \\ 13.3$	$10.2 \\ 11.0 \\ 11.6 \\ 12.1 \\ 14.4$	$15.5 \\ 10.6 \\ 11.9 \\ 12.1 \\ 14.3$	$11.1 \\ 10.5 \\ 12.3 \\ 12.2 \\ 13.4$	$10.7 \\ 11.6 \\ 12.2 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.1$	$11.4 \\ 11.6 \\ 12.7 \\ 12.8 \\ 14.0$	11. 1 11. 1 12. 2 12. 4 13. (
Tenn Ala Miss La Tex.	11.0	$11.\ 2\\11.\ 6\\11.\ 6\\14.\ 5\\10.\ 0$	$11.5 \\ 11.5 \\ 11.7 \\ 13.9 \\ 10.6$	$\begin{array}{c} 12.0\\ 11.4\\ 11.8\\ 13.9\\ 10.8 \end{array}$	$12.8 \\ 11.9 \\ 12.8 \\ 14.3 \\ 10.8$	13.512.612.715.911.1	$13.7 \\ 13.2 \\ 12.9 \\ 14.8 \\ 11.4$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.2 \\ 12.7 \\ 12.4 \\ 15.4 \\ 11.3 \end{array}$	$13.1 \\ 12.8 \\ 12.5 \\ 15.2 \\ 11.4$	$12.9 \\13.4 \\13.5 \\16.0 \\12.3$	$13.4 \\ 13.7 \\ 13.7 \\ 18.1 \\ 12.2$	13. 13. 14. 16. 13.
Okla. Ark. Mont. Wyo. Colo	10,3 15,5	$10.1 \\ 10.2 \\ 13.5 \\ 13.0 \\ 11.5$	9.9 9.5 14.8 13.0 13.0	$10.5 \\ 10.0 \\ 14.8 \\ 11.9 \\ 12.3$	$11.3 \\ 11.7 \\ 13.7 \\ 13.3 \\ 13.2$	$11. \ 6 \\ 11. \ 9 \\ 15. \ 2 \\ 14. \ 4 \\ 13. \ 1$	$12.3 \\ 12.7 \\ 14.1 \\ 15.5 \\ 13.5$	$11. \ 6 \\ 11. \ 4 \\ 14. \ 9 \\ 15. \ 1 \\ 13. \ 7$	$11.6 \\ 11.9 \\ 15.2 \\ 15.7 \\ 13.3$	11. 8 11. 9 16. 0 16. 5 13. 7	$12.7 \\ 12.3 \\ 15.6 \\ 15.9 \\ 13.6$	12. 12. 14. 15. 13.
N. Mex Ariz Utah Nevada	18.5	14.0 17.6 12.9 19.3	14.4 16.7 12.5 18.7	12.0 17.7 13.0 21.3	12.6 17.6 12.2 21.1	13. 4 18. 1 13. 0 20. 4	12. 6 17. 9 13. 0 21. 2	14.0 17.8 13.9 20.0	13.3 19.3 14.2 24.0	13. 0 17.4 14.7 22.0	13.1 16.3 13.7 18.0	14. 19. 13. 21.
Idaho. Wash. Oreg. Cal.	12.2	$\begin{array}{c} 11.\ 2\\ 13.\ 0\\ 13.\ 1\\ 16.\ 2\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 10.\ 6\\ 12.\ 7\\ 12.\ 7\\ 15.\ 6\end{array}$	$10.6 \\ 13.0 \\ 13.0 \\ 13.4 \\ 15.4$	$12.1 \\ 15.0 \\ 12.7 \\ 16.9$	$\begin{array}{c} 12.0\\ 14.4\\ 13.8\\ 16.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 10,9\\ 14,4\\ 13,2\\ 15,9 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11.3 \\ 15.2 \\ 13.0 \\ 15.5 \end{array}$	11.9 15.0 13.0 15.9	$11.8 \\ 15.0 \\ 12.5 \\ 15.7$	$12.2 \\ 14.0 \\ 12.9 \\ 16.6$	11. 13. 13. 17.
U. S	11.4	11.9	12.2	12.6	13.2	13.5	13, 8	13.8	13.9	14.3	14.3	14.2
North Atlantic. South Atlantic N. Central E. Miss, R. N. Central W. Miss, R. South Central, Far Western.	$ \begin{array}{c} 13.4 \\ 11.2 \\ -9.8 \\ 10.5 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} 15, 2\\ 13, 3\\ 11, 9\\ 10, 5\\ 11, 0\\ 14, 3 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 16,0\\ 13,6\\ 12,4\\ 10,5\\ 11,1\\ 14,1\\ \end{array}$	15.8 13.8 13.0 11.2 11.4 14.0	$\begin{array}{c} 16.4\\ 14.1\\ 13.6\\ 11.7\\ 12.0\\ 14.9\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 16.7\\ 15.1\\ 13.8\\ 11.9\\ 12.5\\ 14.8 \end{array}$	$\begin{vmatrix} 16.9\\ 15.3\\ 13.8\\ 12.4\\ 12.9\\ 14.6 \end{vmatrix}$	$17.2 \\ 15.3 \\ 14.2 \\ 12.3 \\ 12.5 \\ 14.6$	$17.3 \\ 15.1 \\ 14.3 \\ 12.6 \\ 12.5 \\ 14.8 $	$17.5 \\ 15.4 \\ 14.6 \\ 13.1 \\ 13.0 \\ 14.7$	17. 315. 314. 413. 113. 414. 9	17.3 15.4 14.0 12.9 13.0 15.1

TABLE 167.—Chickens: Average price received by farmers on first of each month, by States,1916.

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TABLE 168.—Sheep: Number and value on farms in the United States, 1867-1917.

Note.—Figures in *italics* are census returns: figures in roman are estimates of the Department of Agriculture. Estimates of numbers are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available. It should also be observed that the census of 1910 giving numbers as of Apr. 15, is not strictly comparable with former censuses, which related to numbers June 1.

Year.	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.	Year.	Number.	Price per head Jan. 1.	Farm value Jan. 1.
1867. 1858. 1859. 1870. 1870. 1870. 1870. 1871. 1872. 1873. 1874. 1875. 1876. 1877. 1880. 1880. 1880. 1880. 1880. 1883. 1884. 1883. 1884. 1885. 1886. 1887. 1888. 1889. 1890. 1890. 1891.	$\begin{array}{c} 38, 992, 000\\ 40, 853, 600\\ 28, 477, 951\\ 31, 851, 600\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 33, 002, 000\\ 35, 002, 000\\ 35, 002, 000\\ 35, 002, 000\\ 35, 002, 000\\ 35, 002, 000\\ 35, 002, 000\\ 35, 002, 000\\ 35, 002, 000\\ 35, 002, 000\\ 35, 000\\ 35, 000\\ 40, 766, 000\\ 45, 000\\ 40, 766, 000\\ 45, 000\\ 40, 766, 000\\ 45, 000\\ 40, 766, 000\\ 45, 000\\ 40, 766, 000\\ 45, 000\\ 40, 765, 000\\ 45, 000\\ 40, 227, 000\\ 45, 222, 000\\ 44, 759, 000\\ 43, 545, 000\\ 43, 545, 000\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \$2.50\\ 1.82\\ 1.64\\ 1.96\\ 2.14\\ 2.61\\ 2.71\\ 2.43\\ 2.55\\ 2.37\\ 2.13\\ 2.21\\ 2.07\\ 2.21\\ 2.07\\ 2.21\\ 2.37\\ 2.53\\ 2.37\\ 2.53\\ 2.37\\ 2.14\\ 1.91\\ 2.01\\ 2.05\\ 2.13\\ 2.27\\ 2.50\\ \end{array}$	\$98, 644, 000 71, 053, 000 62, 037, 000 79, 876, 000 89, 27, 000 89, 227, 000 89, 227, 000 80, 228, 000 80, 228, 000 80, 228, 000 80, 231, 000 78, 965, 000 90, 231, 000 104, 071, 000 105, 596, 000 107, 963, 000 107, 963, 000 107, 660, 000 100, 660, 000	$\begin{array}{c} 1892.\\ 1893.\\ 1894.\\ 1895.\\ 1896.\\ 1897.\\ 1898.\\ 1899.\\ 1990.\\ 1990.\\ 1900.\\ ccnsus,\\ June 1.\\ 1901.\\ 1901.\\ 1902.\\ 1903.\\ 1904.\\ 1905.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1906.\\ 1907.\\ 1910.\\ 1910.\\ 1910.\\ 1911.\\ 1911.\\ 1911.\\ 1914.\\ 1915.\\ 1916.\\ 1917.\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 44, 938, 000\\ 47, 274, 000\\ 47, 274, 000\\ 45, 048, 000\\ 38, 299, 000\\ 38, 299, 000\\ 37, 657, 000\\ 39, 114, 000\\ 41, 883, 000\\ 41, 883, 000\\ 41, 883, 000\\ 62, 029, 000\\ 59, 757, 000\\ 62, 029, 000\\ 59, 757, 000\\ 62, 029, 000\\ 50, 632, 000\\ 51, 632, 000\\ 53, 240, 000\\ 53, 240, 000\\ 53, 240, 000\\ 53, 240, 000\\ 53, 240, 000\\ 53, 633, 000\\ 55, 363, 000\\ 52, 362, 000\\ 52, 362, 000\\ 52, 362, 000\\ 52, 362, 000\\ 52, 362, 000\\ 52, 362, 000\\ 52, 362, 000\\ 52, 362, 000\\ 52, 362, 000\\ 51, 482, 000\\ 49, 956, 000\\ 48, 625, 000\\ 48, 625, 000\\ 48, 483, 000\\ \end{array}$	\$2, 58 2, 66 1, 98 1, 58 1, 70 1, 82 2, 46 2, 75 2, 93 2, 63 2, 63 2, 63 2, 63 2, 59 2, 82 3, 54 3, 84 3, 84 3, 84 3, 94 4, 02 4, 50 4, 50 5, 17 7, 14	\$116, 121, 000 125, 909,000 89, 186,000 65, 188,000 65, 168,000 107, 698,000 122, 666,000 122, 666,000 178,072,000 164, 346,000 185, 316,000 204, 210,000 201, 756,000 192, 632,000 202, 759,000 202, 779,000 202, 750,000 202, 779,000 202, 750,000 202, 750,0000 202, 750,0000 202, 750,0000 202, 750,00000 202, 750,0000000000000000000000000000000000

¹ Estimates of numbers revised based on census data.

SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 169 .- Sheep: Number and value on farms Jan. 1, 1916 and 1917, by States.

State.	Number (th Jan.	iousands) 1—	Average price Jan.	e per head, 1	Farm value (of dollars)	
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
Maine New Hampshire Vermont Masaciusetts Rho le Island	$157 \\ 35 \\ 100 \\ 25 \\ 5$	$160 \\ 35 \\ 100 \\ 26 \\ 6$	$\begin{array}{r} \$ 6.30 \\ 6.70 \\ 7.30 \\ 6.70 \\ 7.20 \end{array}$	\$4.80 5.50 5.90 5.50 5.90 5.90	\$989 234 730 168 36	\$768 192 590 143 35
Connectieut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware	18 840 29 835 8	$ \begin{array}{r} 18 \\ 849 \\ 29 \\ 835 \\ 8 \end{array} $	$7.60 \\ 8.40 \\ 7.20 \\ 7.10 \\ 5.90$	5.80 6.20 6.40 5.60 5.30	$137 \\ 7,056 \\ 209 \\ 5,928 \\ 47$	$104 \\ 5,264 \\ 186 \\ 4,676 \\ 42$
Maryland Virginia. West Virginia North Carolina. South Carolina.	$223 \\ 686 \\ 715 \\ 140 \\ 30$	$223 \\ 700 \\ 720 \\ 155 \\ 30$	6,60 6,50 6,60 3,90 3,20	5.40 4.90 5.10 3.20 2.70	${}^{1,472}_{4,459}_{4,719}_{546}_{546}_{96}$	$1,204 \\3,430 \\3,672 \\496 \\81$
Georgia Florida Ohio Indiana Illinois	$150 \\ 119 \\ 2,944 \\ 1,005 \\ 898$	$161 \\ 119 \\ 3,067 \\ 1,005 \\ 907$	2.80 2.70 7.20 8.20 8.20 8.20	$\begin{array}{c} 2.40 \\ 2.30 \\ 5.40 \\ 6.10 \\ 5.90 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 420\\321\\21,197\\8,241\\7,364\end{array}$	$386 \\ 274 \\ 16,562 \\ 6,130 \\ 5,351$
Michigan Wiseousin Minnesota Iowa Mi-souri	1,8346455411,2401,370	$1,931 \\ 664 \\ 536 \\ 1,240 \\ 1,416$	7.80 7.50 7.60 8.80 7.70	5.70 5.30 4.80 6.30 5.80	14,3054,8384,11210,91210,549	11,007 3,519 2,573 7,812 8,213
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky.	250 658 381 348 1,155	$240 \\ 604 \\ 374 \\ 311 \\ 1,155$	7.407.407.507.607.10	5.10 5.20 5.40 5.60 4.90	1,850 4,869 2,858 2,645 8,200	$\begin{array}{c} 1,224\\ 3,141\\ 2,020\\ 1,910\\ 5,660\end{array}$
Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana. Texas.	$\begin{array}{c} 650\\ 121\\ 193\\ 240\\ \cdot \ 2,328 \end{array}$	650 119 208 185 2,156	$5.80 \\ 3.20 \\ 3.00 \\ 2.90 \\ 4.40$	$\begin{array}{c} 4.10 \\ 2.60 \\ 2.50 \\ 2.30 \\ 3.70 \end{array}$	3,770 387 579 696 10,243	2,665 309 520 426 7,977
Oklahoma Arkansas Montana Wyoming Colorado	$104 \\ 124 \\ 3,744 \\ 4,381 \\ 1,950$	$\begin{array}{r} 95 \\ 124 \\ 3,941 \\ 4,338 \\ 1,839 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.30 \\ 3.90 \\ 7.10 \\ 7.60 \\ 7.50 \end{array}$	5.00 2.90 5.10 5.60 5.20	$\begin{array}{r} 655\\ 484\\ 26,582\\ 33,296\\ 14,625\end{array}$	475 360 20,099 24,293 9,563
New Mexico Arizona Utah Nova.ta	3,300 1,632 2,089 1,455	3,440 1,700 2,089 1,532	$5.80 \\ 6.30 \\ 7.90 \\ 8.20$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.30 \\ 4.70 \\ 5.40 \\ 5.80 \end{array}$	$19,140 \\10,282 \\16,503 \\11,931$	$14,792 \\7,990 \\11,281 \\8,836$
Idaho	$3,195 \\ 585 \\ 2,484 \\ 2,524$	3,102 568 2,435 2,450	$\begin{array}{c} 8.20 \\ 7.10 \\ 8.10 \\ 6.70 \end{array}$	$5.60 \\ 5.30 \\ 5.20 \\ 5.00$	$26,199 \\ 4,154 \\ 20,120 \\ 16,911$	$17,371 \\ 3,010 \\ 12,662 \\ 12,250$
United States	48,483	48,625	7.14	5.17	346,064	251, 594

SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 170.-Sheep: Imports, exports, and prices, 1893-1916.

		Imports.			Exports.	
Year ending June 30—	Number.	Value.	Average import price.	Number.	Value.	Average export price.
1803 1894 1895 1896 1897	459, 484 242, 568 291, 461 322, 692 405, 633	\$1,682,977 788,181 682,618 853,530 1,019,668	\$3.66 3.25 2.34 2.65 2.51	37, 260 132, 370 405, 748 491, 565 244, 120	\$126,391 832,763 2,630,686 3,076,384 1,531,645	\$3. 39 6. 29 6. 48 6. 26 6. 27
1898 1899 1900 1901 1902	392, 314 345, 911 381, 792 331, 488 266, 953	$1,106,322 \\1,200,081 \\1,365,026 \\1,236,277 \\956,710$	2.82 3.47 3.58 3.73 3.58	$199,690 \\ 143,286 \\ 125,772 \\ 297,925 \\ 358,720$	$1,213,886\\853,555\\733,477\\1,933,000\\1,940,060$	6, 08 5, 96 5, 83 6, 49 5, 41
1903. 1904. 1905. 1906. 1906.		$1,036,934 \\815,289 \\704,721 \\1,020,359 \\1,120,425$	$\begin{array}{c} 3.44\\ 3.42\\ 3.77\\ 4.24\\ 4.98\end{array}$	$176,961 \\ 301,313 \\ 268,365 \\ 142,690 \\ 135,344$	$1,067,860 \\ 1,954,604 \\ 1,687,321 \\ 804,090 \\ 750,242$	6. 03 6. 49 6. 29 5. 64 5. 54
1903 1809 1910 1911 1912	$224,765 \\102,663 \\126,152 \\53,455 \\23,588$	$1,082,606 \\ 502,640 \\ 696,879 \\ 377,625 \\ 157,257$	4, 82 4, 90 5, 52 7, 06 6, 67	$101,000 \\ 67,656 \\ 44,517 \\ 121,491 \\ 157,263$	589,285 365,155 209,000 636,272 626,985	5, 83 5, 40 4, 69 5, 24 3, 99
1013	$\begin{array}{r} 15,428\\223,719\\153,317\\235,659\end{array}$	90, 021 532, 404 533, 967 917, 502	5.83 2.38 3.48 3.89	187,132 152,600 47,213 52,278	605,725 534,543 182,278 231,535	3. 24 3. 50 3. 86 4. 43

SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 171.—Sheep: Wholesale price per 100 pounds, 1912-1916.

	Chic	ago.	Cincin	nnati.	St. L	ouis.	Kansa:	s City.	Om	aha.
Date.	Nat	ive.	Good to	o extra.		o choice ves.	Nati	ivθ.1	West	tern.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	\$2.50 2.00	\$7.50 5.65	\$3.00 2.85	\$5.50 4.00	\$4.00 3.75	\$7.00 5.00	\$3.30 3.35	\$8.00 7.35		
1913. JanJune. July-Dec	2.50 2.00	7. 90 6. 00	3: 60 3. 25	7.00 4.50	4.75 4.00	7.25 5.00	$2.75 \\ 2.00$	7.50 7.00	\$3.75 2.75	\$8. 15 6. 75
1914. JanJune. July-Dec	$\begin{array}{c} 2.\ 00 \\ 2.\ 00 \end{array}$	7.00 6.50	4.10 4.00	$\substack{6.15\\5.35}$	$5.00 \\ 4.50$	$6.50 \\ 5.75$	2.50 2.25	7.25 7.50	5.00 4.80	7.50 8.00
1915. January February. March April. May June	$\begin{array}{c} 3.\ 00\\ 3.\ 75\\ 4.\ 00\\ 4.\ 00\\ 3.\ 50\\ 2.\ 50 \end{array}$	8.00 8.65 9.25 8.50 10.65 9.25	$\begin{array}{r} 4.10\\ 4.50\\ 5.50\\ 6.10\\ 5.00\\ 4.25\end{array}$	5.00 5.75 8.75 7.00 8.75 5.50	5.50 6.50 7.40 7.75 7.00 5.25	6.00 6.50 7.90 8.50 7.50 5.50	$\begin{array}{r} 4.50 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.50 \\ 6.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 4.50 \end{array}$	7.80 8.00 8.75 10.00 9.75 9.00	$\begin{array}{r} 4.75 \\ 4.75 \\ 7.00 \\ 7.00 \\ 6.75 \\ 4.00 \end{array}$	4.75 4.75 7.00 7.00 6.75 4.00
JanJune	2.50	10,65	4.10	8.75	5.25	8.50	4.50	10.00	4.00	7.00
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{c} 2.\ 00\\ 2.\ 50\\ 2.\ 00\\ 3.\ 00\\ 2.\ 75\\ 3.\ 00 \end{array}$	8.75 7.75 7.50 7.65 7.75 8.50	$\begin{array}{r} 4.50 \\ 4.75 \\ 4.60 \\ 4.75 \\ 4.75 \\ 4.75 \\ 4.75 \end{array}$	5.758.755.508.156.006.25	$5.25 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.25 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.25 \\ 5.25 \\ 5.75 $	$5.50 \\ 5.75 \\ 5.25 \\ 5.85 \\ 5.50 \\ 6.00$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.50 \\ 4.00 \\ 4.00 \\ 4.00 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.00 \end{array}$	8,00 8,00 8,00 8,00 7,25 8,25	$\begin{array}{r} 4.25 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.50 \\ 4.00 \end{array}$	4.25 4.50 4.50 4.50 4.50 4.00
July-Dec	2.00	8.75	4.50	8.75	5.25	6.00	4.00	8, 25	4.00	4.50
1916. January February March A pril May Juno.	3.00 4.00 4.00 3.50 2.50 2.50	8. 25 8. 75 9. 00 9. 25 10. 00 9. 00	$5.50 \\ 5.75 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.00 $	6. 85 7. 75 8. 00 8. 00 8. 50 7. 25	$\begin{array}{c} 6.50 \\ 7.50 \\ 8.00 \\ 8.50 \\ 8.35 \\ 7.25 \end{array}$	7.50 8.00 8.50 8.85 8.75 7.75	5.00 6.50 6.50 7.00 7.00 6.35	$9.50 \\10.00 \\10.90 \\11.00 \\11.50 \\10.50$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.25 \\ 7.00 \\ 7.50 \\ 8.00 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.75 \end{array}$	9. 15 9. 85 10. 50 10. 25 11. 00 8. 75
JanJune	2.50	10.00	3.75	8.75	7.25	8.85	5.00	11.50	6.25	11.00
July. August. September. October. November. December.	3.00 2.50 3.00 3.00 3.25 3.50	$\begin{array}{r} 8.50 \\ 8.25 \\ 8.50 \\ 8.50 \\ 9.00 \\ 10.25 \end{array}$	$5.50 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.00 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 5.50 \\ 6.00$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.00 \\ 7.00 \\ 6.75 \\ 6.75 \\ 7.00 \\ 8.50 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.25 \\ 7.25 \\ 7.00 \\ 7.00 \\ 5.50 \\ 6.75 \end{array}$	7.25 7.25 7.25 7.25 9.00 9.25	$\begin{array}{c} 6.75 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.00 \\ 6.00 \\ 6.00 \\ 7.25 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 10.00\\ 10.35\\ 8.75\\ 8.75\\ 9.75\\ 11.75 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 6.50\\ 6.25\\ 6.25\\ 6.50\\ 6.25\\ 6.75\end{array}$	8.25 8.25 8.50 8.50 10.00 11.75
July-Dec	2.50	10.25	5.00	8.50	5.50	9.25	6.00	11.75	6.25	11.75

¹ Not including lambs for 1912 and 1914.

SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 172.-Wool: Product, by States, 1915 and 1916.

[Estimate of U.S. Department of Agriculture.]

States.	Fle (000 on	eces nitted).	Weight I	per fleece.	Wool pr (000 on	oduction nitted).	Price pe (mor mea	
	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915
Maine New Hampshire Vermont. Massachusetts. Rhode Island	Number. 130 28 78 18 5	Number. 135 29 83 18 5	Pounds. 6.5 6.6 7.4 6.9 5.0	Pounds. 6.3 6.4 7.1 6.4 5.0	Pounds. 850 185 580 125 25	Pounds. 850 185 590 115 25	Cents. 35.0 31.5 33.9 29.0 32.3	Cents. 28.1 25.5 27.3 25.0 25.8
Connecticut New York New Jersey Pennsylvania	$ \begin{array}{r} 14 \\ 530 \\ 16 \\ 650 \end{array} $	$15 \\ 535 \\ 17 \\ 650$	$5.4 \\ 6.7 \\ 5.0 \\ 6.5$	$5.3 \\ 6.5 \\ 5.6 \\ 6.2$	$75 \\ {f 8}, 550 \\ 80 \\ 4, 225 \end{cases}$		31.0 33.1 31.7 32.0	24. 3 27. 3 25. 0 25. 6
Delaware	$5 \\ 129 \\ 550 \\ 625$	$5 \\ 127 \\ 550 \\ 650$	$6.0 \\ 5.8 \\ 5.0 \\ 5.0$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.0 \\ 5.9 \\ 5.0 \\ 4.9 \end{array}$	30 750 2,750 3,125	30 750 2,750 3,185	31.5 33.2 32.9 32.3	$24.0 \\ 25.5 \\ 27.2 \\ 25.7 \\$
Ohio Michigan Indiana Illinois	${ \begin{smallmatrix} 1,950\\ 1,165\\ 650\\ 515 \end{smallmatrix} }$	$2,000 \\ 1,170 \\ 690 \\ 530$	7.0 7.1 6.8 7.5	6.8 6.9 6.8 7.5	$13,650 \\ 8,275 \\ 4,420 \\ 3,855$	$13,600 \\ 8,075 \\ 4,690 \\ 3,975$	32.5 33.4 32.8 30.1	27.1 27.5 26.4 25.0
Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Missouri	335 385 650 680	350 380 700 730	7.5 7.0 7.5 6.8	7.2 7.0 7.6 6.7	2,510 2,695 4,875 4,625	2,520 2,660 5,325 4,890	30.4 27.5 29.1 29.9	25.4 21.8 23.8 24.6
Total	9,108	9, 369	6.73	6.61	61, 255	61,900	31.7	25.6
Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina. Georgia. Florida.	$378 \\ 135 \\ 24 \\ 165 \\ 111$	390 140 25 175 107	$5.0 \\ 4.2 \\ 4.0 \\ 3.0 \\ 3.1$	$ \begin{array}{r} 4.7 \\ 3.9 \\ 4.0 \\ 2.6 \\ 3.1 \end{array} $	1,900 570 95 495 345	$1,835 \\ 545 \\ 100 \\ 460 \\ 330$	$\begin{array}{c} 32.6 \\ 27.9 \\ 24.5 \\ 26.5 \\ 28.2 \end{array}$	25.8 22.6 19.4 22.0 23.9
Alabama. Mississippi. Louisiana Arkansas. Tennessee	$100 \\ 150 \\ 170 \\ 85 \\ 425$	$100 \\ 150 \\ 145 \\ 85 \\ 425$	3.5 3.6 3.5 4.1 4.4	3.8 3.5 3.7 4.5 4.4	350 540 590 350 1,870	380 520 536 385 1,870	21.622.319.422.827.7	19.0 18.4 15.4 19.4 21.4
Total	1,743	1,742	4.08	4.00	7,105	6,961	25.4	20.7
Kansas. Nebraska South Dakota. North Dakota. Montana.	185 230 475 180 3,150	$175 \\ 225 \\ 450 \\ 175 \\ 3,500$	7.2 8.0 7.5 7.5 7.8	7.1 7.4 7.0 7.2 7.7	1,330 1,830 3,560 1,350 24,570	$1,240 \\ 1,665 \\ 3,150 \\ 1,260 \\ 26,950$	$\begin{array}{r} 25.0 \\ 27.2 \\ 27.0 \\ 25.7 \\ 29.4 \end{array}$	20.022.921.419.425.2
Wyoming. Idaho. Washington. Oregon.	3,675 1,980 555 1,760	$3,650 \\ 1,935 \\ 525 \\ 1,850$	8.4 7.6 8.6 7.5	8.0 7.9 8.7 8.0	31,000 15,000 4,750 13,200	$\begin{array}{c} 29,200 \\ 15,285 \\ 4,560 \\ 14,820 \end{array}$	$26. 0 \\ 27. 7 \\ 25. 9 \\ 27. 2$	$\begin{array}{c} 22.6\\ 22.8\\ 19.4\\ 22.8\end{array}$
California. Nevada. Utah. Colorado.	1,850 1,340 2,080 1,400	$\begin{array}{c} 1,900 \\ 1,210 \\ 2,000 \\ 1,300 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 6.3 \\ 7.5 \\ 7.2 \\ 6.0 \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 6.1 \\ 7.9 \\ 7.5 \\ 6.0 \end{array}$	$11,600 \\ 10,000 \\ 15,000 \\ 8,400$	$11,590 \\ 9,500 \\ 15,000 \\ 7,800$	$22.\ 0\\21.\ 7\\24.\ 8\\25.\ 2$	$18.6 \\ 20.0 \\ 20.8 \\ 21.2$
Arizona New Mexico Toxas Oklahoma	$915 \\ 3,200 \\ 1,800 \\ 71$	950 3,325 1,800 70	6.5 5.7 5.7 6.8	$\begin{array}{c} 6.3 \\ 5.6 \\ 5.4 \\ 7.0 \end{array}$	$5,950 \\18,240 \\10,250 \\500$	5,985 18,620 9,750 490	$\begin{array}{c} 26.2 \\ 22.8 \\ 23.0 \\ 23.7 \end{array}$	20.0 18.5 17.1 19.7
Total	21, 849	25,040	7.10	7.06	176, 530	176, 865	25.3	20.7
United States	35, 700	36, 151	6.86	6.80	244, 890	215, 726	27.6	22.8
Pulled wool Total product				• • • • • • • • • • •	43, 600 288, 490	40,000 285,726		

SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 173 .- Wool: Wholesale price per pound in Boston, 1912-1916.

Date.		fine, shed.	qua blo	ucky, arter ood, shed.		XX, hed.	com	o half bod bing, hed.	Del	hio aine, hed.	fine	nigan , un- hed.1
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	Пigh.
1912. January-June. July-December	Cts. 21 22	Cts. 23 25	$Cts. 22\frac{1}{2} 27\frac{1}{2}$	Cts. 29 33	Cts. 28 30	Cts. 30 33	Cts. 26 28½	Cts. 30 31	Cts. 30 33	Cts. 35 35	Cts. 19 21	Cts. 22 23
1913. January-June. July-December	20 20	24 21	$\frac{24}{23\frac{1}{2}}$	32 26	27 25	$32 \\ 30$	23 23	29 25	27 26	34 28	19 19	23 20
1914. January-June July-December	20 23	25 25	$23\frac{1}{2}$ 26	27 29	$25\frac{1}{2}$ 27	29 31½	23 27	28 30	26 28	$32 \\ 32$	19 22	23 23
1915. January. February. March April May. June.	$23 \\ 25 \\ 28 \\ 26 \\ 26 \\ 26 \\ 26$	25 29 29 29 29 29 27 27 27	29 33 37 31 36 36	32 37 38 38 38 37 39	29 30 33 32 32 32 32	31 33 34 33 32 32	29 31 35 34 33 34	32 30 38 38 38 36 35	$30 \\ 32 \\ 35\frac{1}{2} \\ 34 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32$	32 36 37 36 35 34	22 23 26 22 22 22 22	23 26 26 26 23 23
January-June	23	29	29	39	29	34	29	38	30	37	22	26
July August September October November December	26 26 25 25 25 25 26	$\begin{array}{c} 271 \\ 273 \\ 273 \\ 277 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \\ 27 \end{array}$	38 38 <u>1</u> 37 36 36 36 38	39 <u>5</u> 39 <u>5</u> 39 39 39 39 39 39 39 39 39 39 39 39 39	$32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\$	$\begin{array}{c} 32\\ 32\\ 32\\ 32_{32_{32_{32_{32_{32_{32_{32_{32_{32_{$	35 35 321 321 321 321 34	$ \begin{array}{r} 36 \\ 36 \\ 36 \\ 34 \\ 34 \\ 35 \\ \end{array} $	33½ 34 34 34 34 34 35	35 35 35 35 35 35 36	23 23 23 23 23 23 23 25	23 24 27 21 24 24 25
July-December	25	$27\frac{1}{2}$	36	39 <u>1</u>	32	$32\frac{1}{2}$	32^{1}_{2}	36	331	36	23	271
1916. January February Mareh April. May. June	23 28 20 30 30 30	29 30 31 31 31 31 31	38 39 39 39 39 39 39	$ \begin{array}{r} 39 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 41 \end{array} $	$32\frac{1}{33}$ 33 34 34 34 34	33 33 33 35 35 35	$32 \\ 34 \\ 36 \\ 36 \\ 36 \\ 36 \\ 36 \\ 36 \\ 36$	35 36 37 37 37 38	35 <u>3</u> 36 36 37 37 37	36 36 40 40 38 38	25 26 26 27 27 27	263 27 28 28 28 28 28
January-June	26	31	33	41	$32\frac{1}{2}$	35	32	38	351	40	25	28
July Aurust. September October November December	30 30 30 31 34 35	31 31 31 34 35 38	41 43 43 43 44 45	$ \begin{array}{r} 44 \\ 44 \\ 44 \\ 44 \\ 44 \\ 46 \\ 50 \\ \end{array} $	35 35 36 36 37 40	36 37 37 36 40 47	$37 \\ 39 \\ 39 \\ 39^1 \\ 42 \\ 43$	$39 \\ 39 \\ 40 \\ 42 \\ 44 \\ 46$	38 39 39 40 40 45	$ \begin{array}{r} 40 \\ 40 \\ 41 \\ 42 \\ 45 \\ 52 \end{array} $	27 27 27 29 31 32	28 28 28 31 33 37
July-December	30	38	41	50	35	47	37	46	38	52	27	37

¹ Indiana quarter blood unwashed, 1912 and 1913.

SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 173 .- Wool: Wholesale price per pound in Boston, 1912-1916-Continued.

Date.	tory,	Terri- staple ired.	um '	medi- Ferri- cloth- oured.	12 m	xas, onths, red.	Te	fall, xas ired.	su	ed, A per, ured.	SU	ed, B per, ured.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	Cts. 60 63	Cts. 65 67	Cts. 48 53	Cts. 55 59	Cts. 52 54	Cts. 56 63	Cts. 42 43	Cts. 45 48	Cts. 45 52	Cts. 53 58	Cts. 41 48	Cts. 54 54
1913. JanJune. July-Dec.	55 51	67 56	49 46	59 50	52 50	65 53	45 41	50 46	48 42	58 52	43 36	54 45
1914. JanJune. July-Dec.	$\begin{array}{c} 51 \\ 60 \end{array}$	63 65	46 55	55 57	50 55	$\begin{array}{c} 62 \\ 62 \end{array}$	41 42	50 50	43 50	53 55	36 40	43 56
1915. January February March April. May. June.	62 67 72 70 68 68	66 75 75 73 70 70	55 60 65 65 63 63 63	59 68 68 68 68 68 68	$56 \\ 64 \\ 71 \\ 70 \\ 65 \\ 65 \\ 65$	60 73 75 73 70 68	42 53 58 58 58 54 54	52 58 60 60 60 55	$56 \\ 57 \\ 60 \\ 61 \\ 60 \\ 63$	59 62 68 65 63 63 65	57 58 65 58 57 60	63 72 74 65 63 63
JanJune	62	75	55	68	56	75	42	60	56	68	57	74
July August. September October November December	70 71 72 70 70 73	73 74 74 73 73 73 75		65 65 65 65 65 65 68	$ \begin{array}{c} 66 \\ 68 \\ 66 \\ 65 \\ 65 \\ 65 \end{array} $	70 70 70 68 67 70	$54 \\ 55 \\ 55 \\ 55 \\ 55 \\ 54$	57 57 57 57 57 57 57 56	63 63 60 60 60 62		60 60 58 55 55 55 59	
July-Dec	70	75	63	68	65	70	54	57	60	66	55	65
1916. January February. March April. May June.	73 77 80 80 80 80 82	77 80 80 80 82 82 85	65 70 70 70 72 73	69 71 71 71 75 75	67 68 72 72 72 72 72	70 75 75 75 75 75 77	$53 \\ 53 \\ 54 \\ 54 \\ 54 \\ 54 \\ 54 \\ 51$	55 55 55 55 55 55 55	63 65 65 65 65 65	66 68 68 68 68 68 68	59 60 60 60 60 60	65 65 65 65 65 66
JanJune	73	85	65	75	67	77	53	55	63	68	59	66
July August. September October November December	82 82 85 88 95 100	88 88 92 95 105 112	75 75 75 75 75 77 85	77 77 78 80 87 87	77 80 80 80 80 85 87	83 83 85 85 90 100		58 58 58 58 58 65 78	$ \begin{array}{r} 65 \\ 66 \\ 66 \\ 66 \\ 66 \\ 72 \\ 72 \end{array} $	72 72 72 72 72 72 73 85	60 63 63 63 60 70	68 68 68 71 73 80
July-Dec	82	112	75	87	77	100	55	78	65	85	60	80

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SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 174 .- Wool: Wholesale price per pound, 1912-1916.

	Bos	ton.	Philad	elphia.	St. I	ouis.
Date.		XX, hed.	Ohio wash	XX, ned. 1		tub, hed.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. January-June. July-December.	Cents. 28 30	Cents. 30 33	Cents. 25 28	Cents. 30 31	Cents. 27 35	Cents. 35 38
1913. January-June. July-December	27 25	32 30	$\frac{24}{22}$	31 25	28 28	37 35
1914. January-June. July-December.	25 <u>3</u> 27	$\begin{array}{c} 29\\ 31\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	$\frac{22}{25}$	28 29	28 31	33 33
1915. February. March April May. June	29 30 33 32 32 32 32	31 33 34 33 32 32	29 30 33 31 31 31	$\begin{array}{c} 31 \\ 33 \\ 34 \\ 33\frac{1}{2} \\ 32 \\ 32\frac{1}{2} \\ 32\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	31 33 40 37 38 40	34 40 40 40 41 41
January-June	29	34	29	34	31	41
JulyAugust. September. October. November. December.	$32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\ 32 \\$	$\begin{array}{c} 32\\ 32\\ 32\\ 32\\ 32\\ 32\\ 32\\ 32\\ 2\\ 32\\ 2\\ 32\\ 1\\ 2\end{array}$	$28 \\ 29 \\ 31 \\ 31 \\ 31\frac{1}{2} \\ 32$	321 32 32 32 32 321 331	40 40 40 40 40 40 40	42 42 42 42 42 42 42 44
July-December	32	32^{1}_{2}	28	331	40	44
1916. January	$32\frac{1}{2}$ 33 33 34 34 34 34 34	33 33 33 35 35 35	$32\frac{1}{32}$ $32\frac{1}{32}$ $32\frac{1}{32}$ 34 34 34	33½ 33 33 35 37 35	$\begin{array}{r} 42 \\ 42 \\ 43 \\ 43 \\ 43 \\ 43 \\ 46 \end{array}$	44 44 44 44 47 48
January-June.	$32\frac{1}{2}$	35	321/2	37	42	48
JulyAugust. September. October. November. December.	35 35 36 36 34 40	36 37 37 36 35 47	34 35 35 35 35 39	36 39 37 36 40 44	47 47 47 47 47 48 48 48	48 48 48 49 49 49
July-December	34	47	34	44	47	49

¹ One-fourth to three-eighths unwashed, 1912-1914.

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SHEEP AND WOOL-Continued.

TABLE 175.—Wool: International trade, calendar years 1913-1915.

["Wool" in this table includes: Washed, unwashed, scoured, and pulled wool; slipe, sheep's wool on skins (total weight of wool and skins taken); and all other animal fibers included in United States classification of wool. The following items have been considered as not within this classification: Corded, combed, and dyed wool; flocks, goatskins with hair on, mill waste, noils, and tops. See "General note," Table 10.] EXPORTS.

				nitted.]			
Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)	Country.	1913	1914 (prelim.)	1915 (prelim.)
Algeria. Argentina. Australia. Beitish India. British India. British South Africa Chile. China. France. Germany. Netherlands.	28,418	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		New Zealand Peru Russia Spain United Kingdom Uruguay Other countries Total	9,770 38,200 31,937 29,079 150,883 33,343	Pounds. 227, 148 9, 447 10, 665 16, 482 27, 810 38, 848 98, 298 26, 622 1, 492, 686	Pounds. 200, 102 2, 347 12, 658 32, 151
			IMPO	DRTS.			
Austria-Hungary Belgium British India Canada France Germany Japan Netherlands	58,650 329,074 29,116 8,587 593,781 481,571 11,741 38,419		39, 286 16, 611 144, 625 52, 771 15, 805	Russia Sweden Switzerland United Kingdom. United States Other countries Total.	$\begin{array}{r} 6,022\\ 10,444\\ 582,618\\ 130,183\\ 64,843\end{array}$	97,763 4,669 9,152 502,927 260,193 42,016 1,436,158	8,631 17,414 889,133 412,721

SWINE.

TABLE 176 .- Swine: Number and value on farms in the United States, 1867-1917.

NOTE.—Figures in *italics* are census returns; figures in roman are estimates of the department of Agriculture. Estimates of numbers are obtained by applying estimated percentages of increase or decrease to the published numbers of the preceding year, except that a revised base is used for applying percentage estimates whenever new census data are available. It should also be observed that the census of 1910, giving numbers as of Apr. 15, is not strictly comparable with former censuss, which related to numbers June 1.

Jan. 1—	Number.	Price per head.	Farm value.	Jan. 1—	Number.	Price per head.	Farm value.
1867	24,694,000	\$4.03	\$99,637,000	1891	50,625,000	\$4.15	\$210, 194, 000
1868	24, 317, 000	3.29	79,976,000	1892	52, 398, 000	4.60	241,031,000
1869	23, 316, 000	4.65	108, 431, 000	1893	46,095,000	6.41	295, 426, 000
1870	26,751,000	5.80	155, 108, 000	1864	45,206,000	5.98	270, 385, 000
1870, census,			,	1895	44, 166, 000	4.97	219, 501, 000
June 1	25, 134, 569			1896	42,843,000	4.35	186, 530, 000
1871	29,458,000	5,61	165, 312, 000	1897	40,600,000	4.10	166, 273, 000
1872	31, 796, 000	4.01	127, 453, 000	1898	39,760,000	4.39	174, 351, 000
1873	32, 632, 000	3.67	119,632,000	1899	38,652,000	4.40	170, 110, 000
1874	30, 861, 000	3.98	122, 695, 000	1900	37,079,000	5.00	185, 472, 000
1875	28,062,000	4.80	134, 581, 000	1900, census,	, .,		
1876	25, 727, 000	6.00	154, 251, 000	June 1	62,868,041		
1877	28,077,000	5.66	158, 873, 000	1901 1	56,982,000	6.20	353, 012, 000
1878	32, 262, 000	4.85	156, 577, 000	1902	48,699,000	7.03	342, 121, 000
1879	34, 765, 000	3.18	110, 508, 000	1903	46, 923, 000	7.78	364, 974, 000
1880	34, 034, 000	4.28	145, 782, 000	1904	47,009,000	6.15	289, 225, 000
1880, census,	. , . ,			1905	47, 321, 000	5.99	283, 255, 000
June 1	47,681,700			1906	52, 103, 000	6.18	321, 803, 000
1881	36, 248, 000	4.70	170, 535, 000	1907	54, 794, 000	7.62	417, 791, 600
1882	44, 122, 000	5.97	263, 543, 000	1908	56,084,000	6.05	339, 030, 000
1883	43, 270, 000	6.75	291, 951, 000	1909	54, 147, 000	6.55	354, 794, 000
1884	44, 201, 000	5.57	246, 301, 000	1910	47, 782, 000		
1885	45, 143, 000	5.02	226, 402, 000	1910, census,	, ,		
1886	46,092,000	4.26	196, 570, 000	A pr. 15	58, 185, 676	9.17	533, 309, 000
1887	44,613,000	4.48	200, 043, 000	1911	65, 620, 000	9.37	615, 170, 000
1888	44, 347, 000	4.98	220, 811, 000	1912	65, 410, 000	8.00	523, 328, 000
1889	50, 302, 000	5.79	291, 307, 000	1913	61, 178, 000	9.86	603, 109, 000
1890	51,603,000	4.72	243, 418, 000	1914	58,933,000	10.40	612, 951, 000
1890, census,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,			1915	64, 618, 000	9.87	637, 479, 000
June 1	57,409,583			1916	67,766,000	8.40	569, 573, 000
	,, ,			1917	67,453,000	11.73	791,242,000

1 Estimates of numbers revised, based on census data.

SWINE-Continued.

TABLE 177.-Swine: Number and value on farms Jan. 1, 1916 and 1917, by States.

State.	Number (th Jan. 1		Average pric Jan.	e per head	Farm value (of dollars)	
	1917	1916	1917	1916	1917	1916
Maine. New Hampsbire Vermont Massachusetts. Rhote Island	$ 100 \\ 53 \\ 113 \\ 112 \\ 14 $	102 55 113 112 15	\$16.60 15.60 13.00 15.60 14.50	\$12.00 12.50 10.30 13.20 11.00	\$1,660 827 1,469 1,680 203	\$1,224 688 1,164 1,478 165
Connecticut. New York. New Jersey. Pennsylvania Delaware.	58 759 163 1,174 60	59 799 161 1,210 61	$17.50 \\ 14.70 \\ 17.00 \\ 13.90 \\ 11.60$	$\begin{array}{c} 13.\ 60\\ 11.\ 80\\ 12.\ 80\\ 10.\ 40\\ 9.\ 00 \end{array}$	$1,015 \\11,157 \\2,771 \\16,319 \\696$	802 9,428 2,061 12,584 549
Maryland Virginia. West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina.	359 1,023 380 1,550 920	359 1,022 378 1,550 870	$ \begin{array}{r} 11.50 \\ 9.20 \\ 10.00 \\ 9.70 \\ 9.50 \\ \end{array} $	8.50 7.00 9.00 7.80 8.50	$\begin{array}{r} 4,128\\9,412\\3,500\\15,035\\8,740\end{array}$	3,052 7,161 3,402 12,090 7,395
Georgia Florida Ohio Indiana Illinois	2,585 1,100 3,527 3,970 4,444	2,348 996 3,713 4,010 4,489	9.00 6.50 12.20 11.50 13.70	7.70 6.00 9.00 8.50 9.00	$\begin{array}{r} 23,265\\7,150\\43,029\\45,655\\60,883\end{array}$	18,080 5,976 33,417 34,085 40,401
Michigan Wisconsin Minnesota Iowa Missouri	1,345 2,060 1,733 9,370 4,289	$1,462 \\ 2,142 \\ 1,716 \\ 9,069 \\ 4,505$	$12.40 \\ 14.30 \\ 14.50 \\ 14.70 \\ 10.00$	9.00 9.00 9.50 9.30 7.10	$16,678 \\ 29,458 \\ 25,128 \\ 137,739 \\ 42,800$	13, 158 19, 278 16, 302 84, 342 31, 986
North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Kentucky	650 1,432 4,309 2,535 1,589	706 1,314 4,266 2,815 1,709	$13.00 \\ 15.50 \\ 14.00 \\ 12.30 \\ 8.90$	$\begin{array}{r} 9.00\\ 10.10\\ 9.40\\ 9.10\\ . & 6.50\end{array}$	8,450 22,196 60,326 31,180 14,142	6,354 13,271 40,100 25,616 11,108
Tennessec. Alabama. Mississippi Louisiana. Texas.	1,485 1,850 1,698 1,584 3,229	$1,531 \\ 1,715 \\ 1,617 \\ 1,553 \\ 3,197$	8.40 8.50 7.50 9.20 9.50	6. 80 7. 60 6. 20 7. 30 7. 70	$12,474 \\15,725 \\12,735 \\14,573 \\30,676$	10, 411 13, 034 10, 025 11, 337 24, 617
Oklahoma Arkansas Montana Wyoming. Colorado	$1,372 \\ 1,575 \\ 269 \\ 69 \\ 352$	1,491 1,589 298 70 320	$10.20 \\ 8.20 \\ 12.00 \\ 11.20 \\ 12.00$	7.20 5.40 9.00 9.40 8.20	$13,994 \\ 12,915 \\ 3,228 \\ 773 \\ 4,224$	10, 735 8, 581 2, 682 658 2, 624
New Mexico. Arizona Utah Nevada	101 80 101 37	91 40 112 40	10.50 13.00 10.50 11.00	9.00 11.00 7.80 9.00	$1,060 \\ 1,040 \\ 1,060 \\ 407$	819 440 874 360
Idaho. Washington. Oregon. California	292 283 315 994	344 314 370 947	10.40 11.10 10.00 10.10	$\begin{array}{c} 7.\ 00\\ 8.\ 50\\ 7.\ 10\\ 8.\ 40\end{array}$	3,037 3,141 3,150 10,039	2,408 2,669 2,627 7,955
United States	67,453	67,766	11.73	8.40	791, 242	569, 573

SWINE-Continued.

TABLE 178.-Hogs (live): Wholesale price per 100 pounds, 1912-1916.

	Cinci	nnati.	St. 1	Louis.	Ch	icago.				
Date.		ng, fair ood.	Mixed	packers.		d and kers.	Kansa	s City.	Om	aba.
	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.	Low.	High.
1912. JanJune July-Dec	\$6.10 7.10	\$8.25 9.35	\$5.75 7.15	\$8.05 9.25	\$5.55 6.80	\$8.17 <u>1</u> 9.40	\$5.65 6.90	\$8.05 9.05		
1913. JanJune July-Dec	$7.35 \\ 7.40$	10.00 9.60	7.20 7.25	9.50 9.50		9.70 9.65		9. 25 9. 25	\$7.02 7.34	\$9.05 9.15
1914. JanJune July-Dec	8.00 6.40	9.15 9.90	7, 65 6, 80	$9.00 \\ 10.00$	$7.60 \\ 6.00$	9.00 10.20	$7.55 \\ 6.65$	8.80 9.75	$7.50 \\ 6.50$	8.72 9.35
1915. January February March April May June	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 65\\ 6.\ 70\\ 6.\ 50\\ 7.\ 25\\ 7.\ 55\\ 7.\ 45 \end{array}$	7.357.157.508.007.957.95	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 65\\ 6.\ 55\\ 6.\ 65\\ 6.\ 90\\ 7.\ 40\\ 7.\ 40\end{array}$	$7.357.157.257.807.957.97\frac{1}{2}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 15 \\ 6.\ 30 \\ 6.\ 35 \\ 6.\ 60 \\ 7.\ 10 \\ 7.\ 05 \end{array}$	$7.407.257.057.857.957.92\frac{1}{2}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.50 \\ 6.35 \\ 6.50 \\ 6.60 \\ 7.20 \\ 7.20 \end{array}$	7.407.0217.057.657.907.85	$\begin{array}{c} 6.00\\ 6.25\\ 6.35\\ 6.40\\ 7.00\\ 6.75\end{array}$	7. 05 6. 95 6. 82 7. 50 7. 60 7. 0
JanJune	6.50	8.00	6.55	7.971	6.15	7.95	6.35	7.90	6.00	7.95
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{c} 7.35 \\ 7.10 \\ 7.35 \\ 7.00 \\ 6.35 \\ 6.25 \end{array}$	8.00 7.75 8.45 8.70 7.70 7.25	$\begin{array}{c} 6.75 \\ 6.50 \\ 7.50 \\ 6.85 \\ 6.40 \\ 6.15 \end{array}$	8.10 7.85 8.30 8.75 7.10 6.85	$\begin{array}{c} 6.15\\ 5.90\\ 6.15\\ 6.25\\ 5.80\\ 5.80\end{array}$	8, 10 8, 00 8, 45 8, 95 7, 75 7, 05	$\begin{array}{c} 7.00 \\ 6.30 \\ 7.10 \\ 6.90 \\ 6.20 \\ 6.00 \end{array}$	7.807.708.258.657.506.75	$5.90 \\ 5.90 \\ 6.00 \\ 6.75 \\ 6.00 \\ 4.00 $	7,65 7,60 8,95 8,90 7,35 8,00
June-Dec	6.25	8.40	6.15	8.75	5.80	8.95	6.00	8.65	4.00	8.95
1916. January February March May June	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 75\\ 8.\ 00\\ 8.\ 70\\ 9.\ 45\\ 9.\ 15\\ 9.\ 00 \end{array}$	8. 10 8. 95 10. 20 9. 95 10. 15 9. 80	$\begin{array}{c} 6.\ 00\\ 7.\ 50\\ 7.\ 90\\ 9.\ 15\\ 9.\ 00\\ 9.\ 00\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 8.\ 25\\ 8.\ 92^1_2\\ 10.\ 10\\ 10.\ 00\\ 10.\ 25\\ 10.\ 10\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.50 \\ 7.50 \\ 8.65 \\ 9.10 \\ 9.30 \\ 8.70 \end{array}$	8. 10 8. 90 10. 10 10. 10 10. 30 10. 15	$\begin{array}{c} 6.25 \\ 7.40 \\ 8.40 \\ 9.05 \\ 9.15 \\ 8.90 \end{array}$	8,00 8,50 9,80 9,90 10,05 10,00	6.00 7.20 8.00 8.90 9.00 8.80	7.80 8.55 9.65 9.85 9.90 9.80
JanJune	6.75	10.20	6.00	10.25	6.50	10.30	6.25	10.05	6.00	9.90
July August September October November December	$\begin{array}{c} 9.55\\ 9.85\\ 10.15\\ 9.00\\ 9.25\\ 9.50\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 9.95 \\ 11.30 \\ 11.50 \\ 10.35 \\ 10.05 \\ 10.75 \end{array}$	9.35 9.25 9.50 8.90 9.35 9.35	$\begin{array}{c} 10.\ 25\\ 11.\ 50\\ 11.\ 50\\ 10.\ 50\\ 10.\ 95\\ 10.\ 80\\ \end{array}$	9.00 8.85 9.25 8.50 8.75 8.90	$\begin{array}{c} 10,25\\11,55\\11,60\\10,55\\10,25\\10,80\\\end{array}$	$9.10 \\ 9.30 \\ 7.75 \\ 8.75 \\ 9.00 \\ 9.35$	10.10 11.00 10.50 10.40 10.15 10.60	9.00 8.50 9.25 8.50 9.00 9.00	10.00 10.85 11.10 10.15 10.15 10.35
June-Dec	9.00	11.50	8.90	11.50	8.50	11.60	7.75	11 00	8.50	11.10

THE FEDERAL MEAT INSPECTION.

Some of the principal facts connected with the Federal meat inspection as administered by the Bureau of Animal Industry are shown in the following tables. The figures cover the annual totals for the fiscal years 1907 to 1914, inclusive, the former being the first year of operations under the meat-inspection law now in force. The data given comprise the number of establishments at which inspection is conducted; the number of animals of each species inspected at slaughter; the number of each species condemued, both wholly and in part, and the percentage condemued of each species and of all animals; the quantity of meat products prepared or processed under Federal supervision, and the quantity and percentage of the latter condemued.

Further details of the Federal meat inspection are published each year in the Annual Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry.

FEDERAL MEAT INSPECTION-Continued.

 TABLE 179.—Number of establishments and total number of animals inspected at slaughter under Federal inspection annually, 1907 to 1916.

Fiscal year.	Estab- lish- ments.	Cattle.	Calves.	Swine.	Sheep.	Goats.	All animals.
907 909 909 910 911 911 912 913 914 914 915 915	708 787 876 919 936 940 910 893 896 875	$\begin{array}{c} 7,621,717\\ 7,116,275\\ 7,325,337\\ 7,962,189\\ 7,781,030\\ 7,532,005\\ 7,155,816\\ 6,724,117\\ 6,961,402\\ 7,346,709 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,763,574\\ 1,995,487\\ 2,046,711\\ 2,295,099\\ 2,219,908\\ 2,242,929\\ 2,098,484\\ 1,814,904\\ 1,735,902\\ 2,041,341 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 31,815,900\\ 35,113,077\\ 35,427,931\\ 27,656,021\\ 29,916,363\\ 34,966,378\\ 32,287,538\\ 33,289,705\\ 36,247,958\\ 40,287,692 \end{array}$	9, 681, 876 9, 702, 545 10, 802, 903 11, 149, 937 13, 005, 502 14, 208, 724 14, 724, 465 14, 958, 834 12, 909, 089 11, 970, 869	$\begin{array}{c} 52, 149\\ 45, 953\\ 69, 193\\ 115, 811\\ 54, 145\\ 63, 983\\ 56, 556\\ 121, 827\\ 165, 523\\ 179, 693 \end{array}$	50, 935, 21 53, 973, 33 55, 672, 07 49, 179, 05 52, 976, 94 59, 014, 01 56, 322, 85 56, 909, 38 58, 022, 88 61, 826, 300

TABLE 180.—Condemnations of animals at slaughter, 1907-1916.

		Cattle.		1	Calves.			Swine.	
Fiscal year.	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1
907. 908. 909. 909. 909. 909. 909. 901. 901. 903. 903. 904. 905. 905. 905. 905. 905. 905. 905. 905. 905. 907.	$\begin{array}{c} 27,933\\ 33,216\\ 35,103\\ 42,426\\ 39,402\\ 50,363\\ 50,775\\ 48,356\\ 52,496\\ 57,579 \end{array}$	93, 174 67, 482 99, 739 122, 167 123, 969 134, 783 130, 139 138, 085 178, 409 188, 915	$\begin{array}{c} 1.58\\ 1.41\\ 1.84\\ 2.07\\ 2.10\\ 2.46\\ 2.53\\ 2.77\\ 3.32\\ 3.35 \end{array}$	6, 414 5, 854 8, 213 7, 524 7, 654 8, 927 9, 216 6, 696 5, 941 6, 681	245 396 409 500 781 1,212 1,377 1,234 1,750 1,988	$\begin{array}{c} 0.38\\ .31\\ .42\\ .35\\ .38\\ .45\\ .50\\ .44\\ .44\\ .42\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 105,879\\ 127,933\\ 86,912\\ 52,439\\ 59,477\\ 129,002\\ 173,937\\ 204,942\\ 213,905\\ 195,107 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 436, 161\\ 636, 589\\ 799, 300\\ 726, 829\\ 877, 528\\ 323, 992\\ 373, 993\\ 422, 275\\ 464, 217\\ 546, 290\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,7\\ 2,1\\ 2,5\\ 2,8\\ 3,1\\ 1,3\\ 1,3\\ 1,7\\ 1,8\\ 1,8\\ 1,8\\ 1,8 \end{array}$
	Sheep.			Goats.			All animals.		
Fiscal year.	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1	Whole.	Part.	Per cent.1
007. 008. 009. 010. 011. 012. 013. 013. 014. 015. 016. 017.	$\begin{array}{c} 9,521\\ 8,090\\ 10,747\\ 11,127\\ 10,789\\ 15,402\\ 16,657\\ 20,563\\ 17,611\\ 15,057\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 296\\ 198\\ 179\\ 24,714\\ 7,394\\ 3,871\\ 939\\ 1,564\\ 298\\ 1,007\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.\ 10\\ .\ 09\\ .\ 10\\ .\ 32\\ .\ 14\\ .\ 13\\ .\ 12\\ .\ 14\\ .\ 13 \end{array}$	42 33 82 226 61 84 76 748 653 663	1 1 1 1 8 14 161	$\begin{array}{c} 0.\ 08\\ .\ 07\\ .\ 12\\ .\ 19\\ .\ 11\\ .\ 13\\ .\ 14\\ .\ 62\\ .\ 40\\ .\ 46\end{array}$	$149,792 \\175,126 \\141,057 \\113,742 \\117,383 \\203,778 \\250,661 \\281,303 \\290,606 \\275,087 \\$	529, 876704, 666899, 628874, 2111,009, 672463, 859506, 449563, 166644, 688738, 361	$1.3 \\ 1.6 \\ 1.8 \\ 2.0 \\ 2.1 \\ 1.1 \\ 1.3 \\ 1.4 \\ 1.6 $

¹ Includes both whole and parts. It should be understood that the parts here recorded are primal parts; a much larger number of less important parts, especially in swine, are condemned in addition.

TABLE 181Quantity of m.	eat and meat foo	d products prepared	, and quanti	ty and per-
centage condemned,	under Federal si	upervision annually,	, 1907 to 191	6.

Fiscal year.	Prepared or processed.	Con- demned.	Per- centage con- demned.	Fiscal year.	Prepared or processed.	Con- demned.	Per- centage con- demned.
•						· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
1907 1903 1909 1910 1911	Pounds. 4,464,213,208 5,958,208,361 6,791,437,032 6,223,964,593 6,934,233,214	Pounds. 14, 874, 587 43, 314, 206 24, 679, 754 19, 031, 808 21, 073, 577	$0.33 \\ .73 \\ .36 \\ .31 \\ .31$	1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	Pounds. 7, 279, 558, 956 7, 094, 809, 809 7, 033, 295, 975 7, 533, 070, 002 7, 474, 242, 192	Pounds. 18,096,587 18,851,930 19,135,469 18,780,122 17,897,367	0.25 .27 .27 .25 .24

694

The principal items in the above table, in the order of magnitude, are: Cured pork, lard, lard substitute, sausage, and oleo products. The list includes a large number of less important items.

It should be understood that the above products are entirely separate and additional to the carcass inspection at time of slaughter. They are, in fact, reinspections of such portions of the carcass as have subsequently undergone some process of manufacture.

 TABLE 182.—Quantity of meat and meat food products imported, and quantity and percentage condemned or refused entry, 1914 to 1916.

Fiscal year.	Total imported.	Con- demned.	Refused entry.	Percentage condemned or refused entry.
1914 (9 months) 1915 1916	Pounds. 197, 389, 348 245, 023, 437 110, 514, 476	Pounds. 551,859 2,020,291 298,276	Pounds. 70,454 113,907	Per cent. 0.23 .85 .37

MISCELLANEOUS DATA.

TABLE 183.-Estimated value of farm products, 1879-1916.

[Based on prices at the farm.]

	×	Crops		Animals and animal products.		
Year.	Total, gross. Value.		Percent- age of total.	Value.	Percent- age of total.	
1879 (census). 1889 (census). 1889 (census). 1898 1899 (census). 1900 1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909 1909 1909 1909 1909 1909 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915, proliminary		$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{$2,511,082,592} \\ \textbf{$2,759,569,547} \\ \textbf{$2,998,704,412} \\ \textbf{$3,191,941,763} \\ \textbf{$3,385,179,114} \\ \textbf{$3,385,179,114} \\ \textbf{$3,771,653,816} \\ \textbf{$3,771,653,816} \\ \textbf{$3,981,675,866} \\ \textbf{$4,012,652,758} \\ \textbf{$4,263,134,353} \\ \textbf{$4,761,111,839} \\ \textbf{$5,098,292,549} \\ \textbf{$5,084,223,549} \\ \textbf{$5,620,551,50} \\ \textbf{$5,562,058,150} \\ $	$\begin{array}{c} 63.6\\ 63.6\\ 63.7\\ 63.8\\ 64.0\\ 64.0\\ 64.0\\ 63.6\\ 64.0\\ 63.6\\ 64.6\\$	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{$1,441,739,093}\\ \textbf{$1,579,376,282}\\ \textbf{$1,718,365,581}\\ \textbf{$1,817,653,243}\\ \textbf{$1,916,910,925}\\ \textbf{$2,016,228,607}\\ \textbf{$2,115,516,288}\\ \textbf{$2,140,102,135}\\ \textbf{$2,01,344,604}\\ \textbf{$501,076,070}\\ \textbf{$2,792,332,973}\\ \textbf{$2,792,332,973}\\ \textbf{$3,677,600,000}\\ \textbf{$3,551,017,194}\\ \textbf{$2,551,107,194}\\ \textbf{$3,501,569,700}\\ \textbf{$3,560,569,700}\\ \textbf{$3,716,753,549}\\ \textbf{$3,783,276,511}\\ \textbf{$3,868,303,677}\\ \textbf{$3,384,18,859} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 36.4\\ 36.3\\ 36.4\\ 36.3\\ 36.2\\ 36.0\\ 35.9\\ 35.0\\ 35.9\\ 35.0\\ 37.0\\ 36.4\\ 35.4\\ 35.4\\ 35.4\\ 35.4\\ 35.3\\ 36.5\\ 37.7\\ 38.2\\ 37.5\\ 37.7\\ 38.2\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\ 32.3\\ 35.9\\$	

	Yea	r ending June 3	30
Product.	1913.	1914	1915
FARM PRODUCTS. Animal matter: Animals, livo.	Short tons. 15,042,000	Short tons. 14,811,000	Short tons. 15,021,432
Packing-house products— Dressed meats Hides (including leather) Other packing-house products	2,407,000 1,121,000 2,345,000	2,283,000 1,081,000 2,375,000	2,503,317 1,149,930 2,540,376
Total packing-house products	5,873,000	5,739,000	6, 193, 623
Poultry (including game and fish) Wool. Other animal matter.	847,000 398,000 4,286,000	$915,000 \\ 409,000 \\ 5,264,000$	861, 670 370, 426 4, 212, 584
Total animal matter	26, 446, 000	27, 138, 000	26,659,735
Vegetable matter: Cetton. Fruit and vegetables.	3,942,000 16,099,000	4,141,000 16,795,000	5,012,705 17,898,288
Grain and grain products— Grain Grain products— Flour. Other grain products.	9, 523, 000	46,015,000 9,697,000 7,824,000	53, 446, 686 9, 596, 763 8, 036, 745
Total grain and grain products	68,298,000	63, 536, 000	71,080,194
Hay Sugar Tobaceo Other vegetable matter	7,145,000 3,599,000 1,091,000 9,493,000	7,319,000 3,926,000 1,071,000 9,338,000	7,649,093 3,727,194 1,051,648 10,347,913
Total vegetable matter	109, 667, 000	106, 126, 000	116, 767, 035
Total farm products	136, 113, 090	133, 264, 000	143, 426, 770
OTHER FREIGHT.			
Products of mines Products of forests. Manufactures. All other (including all freight in less than carload lots)	112,079,000 161,933,000	626,076,000 110,878,000 145,257,000 78,649,000	$\begin{array}{c} 556, 581, 950\\ 93, 971, 282\\ 132, 410, 447\\ 76, 013, 494 \end{array}$
Total tonnoge	1,144,840,000	1,094,124,000	1,002,403,943

TABLE 184.-Tonnage carried on railways in the United States, 1913-1915.1

¹ Compiled from reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Original shipments only, excluding freight received by each railway from connecting railways and other carriers. Figures exclude the relatively small tonnage originating on railroads of Class III (roads having operating revenues of less than \$100,000 a year).

Miscellaneous Data.

	R	ural populat	ion.	Population dependent upon agriculture.		
Country.	Year	Number.	Per cent of total popula- tion.	Year.	Number.	Per cent of total popula- tion.
United States	1910	49, 348, 883	53.7			
Austria-Hungary: Austria. Hungary.				1900 1900	$\frac{13,447,362}{13,061,118}$	51.4 67.8
Total Austria-Hungary				1900	26, 508, 480	58.4
Belgium British India.		1,654,277	22.3	1901	191, 691, 731	65.1
Bulgaria Denmark	1911	1,647,350	59.7	1905 1911	3,089,301 1,023,962	76.6 37.1
Finland France Germany	1906	22, 715, 011	57.9	1900 1891 1907	1,555,357 17,435,888 17,089,496	57.3 45.7 27.7
Norway Portugal Roumania	1890	$3,458,996 \\4,836,904$	$68.5 \\ 81.2$	1900 1900	854, 787 3, 367, 199	38.5 62.1
Russia: Caucasus. Central Asia. Poland. Russia proper. Siberia.				1897 1897 1897 1897 1897	$\begin{array}{c} 7,266,428\\ 6,361,466\\ 5,302,850\\ 69,470,360\\ 4,418,456\end{array}$	78. 2 82. 1 56. 4 74. 3 77. 2
Total Russia				1897	92, 849, 560	73.9
Serbia. Sweden. Switzerland United Winederre	1900	1, 047, 795	31.6	1900 1900 1900	2,097,988 2,344,612 1,067,905	84.2 45.6 32.2
United Kingdom: England and Wales	1911	7,907,556	21.9			

TABLE 185.—Rural and agricultural population in various countries.

TABLE 186.—Number of persons engaged in agriculture in various countries.

Country.		Male	θS.	Fema	ales.	Total persons en- gaged in agricul- ture.	
	Year.	Number.	Per cent of males in all occupa- tions.	Number.	Per cent of females in all occupa- tions.	Number.	Per cent of persons in all occupa- tions.
United States	1881 1895 1895 1901 1900 1900 1900 1900 1901 1900 1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1907 1907 1907 1907 1907 1901 1901 1901 1901 1901 1901 1901 1901 1901	$\begin{array}{c} 10, 582, 039\\ 636, 078\\ 318, 149\\ 377, 626\\ 8, 185, 250\\ 533, 665\\ \hline \\ 63, 026, 365\\ \hline \\ 707, 997\\ 745, 074\\ 448, 546\\ 364, 821\\ 33, 611\\ 336, 016\\ 2, 258, 005\\ 115, 027\\ 321, 538\\ 763, 456\\ 6, 370, 277\\ \hline \\ 10, 235\\ 72, 493\\ 400, 694\\ 103, 644\\ \hline \\ 1, 163, 777\\ 196, 833\\ 106, 694\\ \hline \\ 1, 163, 777\\ 196, 833\\ 106, 694\\ \hline \\ 1, 163, 777\\ 196, 833\\ 106, 694\\ \hline \\ 1, 163, 777\\ 196, 833\\ 106, 694\\ \hline \\ 1, 163, 777\\ 196, 833\\ 106, 837$	tions. 355.2 74.8 23.0 29.5 58.5 23.6 67.3 73.3 45.4 65.0 50.3 50.3 50.2 84.5 73.3 45.4 65.0 50.3 50.2 84.5 73.8 45.7 67.2 28.2 27.4 27.5 27.4 27.5 27.	$\begin{array}{c} 1, 806, 584\\ 91, 602\\ 67, 174\\ 39, 029\\ 5, 935, 805\\ 163, 707\\ 27, 867, 210\\ \hline \\ 83, 940\\ 318, 551\\ 21, 877\\ 3, 110\\ 2, 757\\ 110, 169\\ 57, 144\\ 102, 003\\ 263, 664\\ 3, 324, 661\\ 4, 585, 749\\ 6, 972\\ 7, 722\\ 3, 196, 063\\ \hline \\ 3, 613\\ 5, 989\\ 79, 584\\ 7, 472\\ \hline \\ 90, 286\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 22.4\\ 53.7\\ 13.4\\ 11.1\\ 70.3\\ 17.6\\ 66.5\\ \hline \\ 94.9\\ 3.7\\ 65.4\\ 6.2\\ 4.2\\ 20.8\\ 28.5\\ 33.3\\ 82.7\\ 39.6\\ 82.4\\ 43.2\\ 48.3\\ 12.2\\ 49.7\\ 60.5\\ \hline \\ 15.8\\ 38.0\\ 18.4\\ 8.3\\ 3.9\\ 52.0\\ \hline \end{array}$		$\begin{array}{c} 32.5\\ 71.3\\ 225.6\\ 63.0\\ 225.6\\ 63.0\\ 21.9\\ 43.5\\ 64.2\\ 82.4\\ 39.9\\ 65.1\\ 37.7\\ 47.6\\ 54.5\\ 48.0\\ 35.5\\ 48.0\\ 35.5\\ 48.0\\ 48.6\\ 63.5\\ 54.5\\ 48.0\\ 48.6\\ 63.5\\ 55.8\\ 88.6\\ 6.1\\ 13.9\\ 9\\ 55.0\\ \end{array}$
Russia: In Europe In Asia	1897 1897	13, 808, 505 2, 092, 965	$59.6 \\ 69.2$	1, 974, 164 105, 137	38. 0 30. 5	15, 782, 669 2, 198, 102	55. 6 65. 3
Total	1897	15, 901, 470	60.7	2,079,301	37.5	17, 980, 771	56.7
St. Lucia. Serbia Slerra Leone. Spain. Sweden Switzerland. Trinidad and Tobago Union of South Africa. United Kingdom.	1901 1900 1901 1900 1900 1900 1900 1901 1904 1901	311, 700 8, 705 3, 741, 730 761, 016 392, 971 51, 744 863, 223 2, 109, 812	65.5 28.7 58.1 52.4 37.1 54.7 56.3 16.3	13, 524 4, 544 775, 270 333, 264 80, 326 25, 765 847, 057 152, 642	50. 5 21. 7 51: 8 53. 8 16. 1 39. 3 77. 5 2. 9	$\begin{array}{r} 15,796\\ 325,224\\ 13,249\\ 4,517,000\\ 1,094,280\\ 473,297\\ 77,509\\ 1,710,280\\ 2,262,454 \end{array}$	54. 1 64. 7 25. 9 56. 9 52. 8 30. 4 48. 4 65. 1 12. 4

Miscellaneous Data.

TABLE 187.—Total area and agricultural land in various countries.

[As classified and reported by the International Institute of Agriculture.]

			Productive	eland.1	Cultivated	l land. ²
Country.	Year.	Total area.	Amount.	Per cent of total area.	Amount.	Per cent of total area.
NORTH AMERICA. United States	1910	Acres. 1,903,269,000	Acres. 878,789,000	Per cent. 46.2	Acres. 293,794,000	Per cent. 15.4
Canada Costa Rica Cuba	1901 1909–10 1899	2,397,082,000 13,343,000 28,299,000	63,420,000 3,090,060 8,717,000	2.6 23.2 30.8	19,830,060 442,000 778,000	.8 3.3 2.7
SOUTH AMERICA.						
Argentina. Chile ³ . Uruguay	$1909-10 \\ 1910-11 \\ 1908$	729,575,000 187,145,000 46,189,000	537,805,000 15,144,000 40,875,000	$73.7 \\ 8.1 \\ 88.5$	$\begin{array}{r} 44,446,000\\ 2,557,000\\ 1,962,000 \end{array}$	6.1 1.4 4.2
EUROPE.						
Austria-Hungary: Austria. Hungary	1911 1910	74,132,000 80,272,000	69, 939, 000 77, 225, 000	94.3 96.2	26,272,000 35,178,000	35.4 43.8
Total Austria-Hungary		154, 404, 000	147, 164, 000	95.3	61, 450, 000	39.8
Belgium Bulgaria Denmark Finland France. Germany Italy. Luxemburg. Netherlands. Norway. Portugal Roumania Russia, European. Serbia. Spain. Sweden. Switzerland 4.	1895 1910 1907 1901 1910 1910 1911 1911 1911	$\begin{array}{c} 7,278,000\\ 23,807,000\\ 9,629,000\\ 82,113,000\\ 133,854,000\\ 133,594,000\\ 70,839,000\\ 8,057,000\\ 79,810,000\\ 22,018,000\\ 32,167,000\\ 12,278,203,000\\ 11,935,000\\ 124,666,000\\ 110,667,000\\ 10,211,000\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6,443,000\\ 18,959,000\\ 9,078,000\\ \hline 123,642,000\\ 126,401,000\\ 65,164,000\\ 7,258,000\\ 22,942,000\\ 17,281,000\\ 24,645,000\\ 17,281,000\\ 12,665,000\\ 12,665,000\\ 12,665,000\\ 7,635,000\\ \end{array}$	88.5 79.6 91.3 94.5 92 96.4 90.1 28.7 78.5 76.6 54.7 52.3 90.4 90.4 58.9 74.8	$\begin{array}{c} 3,582,000\\ 8,574,000\\ 6,376,000\\ 3,875,000\\ 59,124,000\\ 33,815,000\\ 33,815,000\\ 2,210,000\\ 1,830,000\\ 1,830,000\\ 5,777,000\\ 14,829,000\\ 245,755,000\\ 245,755,000\\ 245,755,000\\ 41,264,000\\ 9,144,000\\ 605,000\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 49,2\\ 366,4\\ 66,2\\ 4,7\\ 45,2\\ 47,7\\ 45,2\\ 47,7\\ 45,9\\ 27,4\\ 4,7,7\\ 46,9\\ 2,3\\ 26,2\\ 46,1\\ 19,2\\ 21,2\\ 33,1\\ 33,5,9\\ 5,9\end{array}$
United Kingdom: Great Britain Ireland	1911 1911	56,802,000 20,350,000	47,737,000 18,789,000	84 92.3	$14,587,000 \\ 3,275,009$	25. 7 16. 1
Total United Kingdom		77, 152, 000	66,526,000	86.2	17,862,000	23. 2
ASIA. British India. Formosa. Japan Russia, Asiatic	1910–11 1911 1911 1911 1911	615, 695, 000 8, 858, 000 94, 495, 000 4, 028, 001, 000	465, 706, 000 1, 972, 000 74, 180, 000 715, 838, 000	75.6 22.3 78.5 17.8	264, 858, 000 1, 884, 000 17, 639, 000 33, 860, 000	43.0 21.3 18.7 .8
AFRICA. Algeria. Egypt. Tunis. Union of South Africa	1910 1912 1912 1909-10	$124,976,000\\222,390,000\\30,888,000\\302,827,000$	50, 846, 000 5, 486, 000 22, 239, 000 3, 569, 000	40.7 2.5 72.0 1.2	11, 434, 000 5, 457, 000 6, 919, 000 3, 385, 000	9. 1 2. 5 22. 4 1. 1
OCEANIA. Australia New Zealand	1910-11 1910	$1,903,664,000 \\ 66,469,000$	119,942,000 57,310,000	6.3 86.2	$14,987,000 \\ 6,955,000$. 8 10. 5
Total, 36 countries		15,071,209,000		30.5	1,313,832,000	8.7

Includes besides cultivated land, also natural meadows and pastures, forests, woodlots, and lands devoted to cultivated trees and shrubs.
Includes fallow hands; also artificial grass lands.
The figure for "productive land" in Chile excludes marshes, heaths, and productive but uncared-for lands.

lands. ⁴ The figure for "cultivated land" in Switzerland excludes artificial meadows and pastures,

NATIONAL FORESTS.

 TABLE 188.—National forests: Timber disposed of, quantity, price, and number of users, revenue under specified heads, and details of grazing privileges, years ended June 30,
 1911 to 1916.

[Reported by the Forest Service.]

			Year ended	l June 30—		
Item.	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
Free timber given:						
Number of users	$\begin{array}{r} 40,660\\ 123,488\\ 196,930\end{array}$	38, 749 123,233 196,335	$38,264 \\ 121,750 \\ 191,825$	39,466 120,575 183,223	40, 040 123, 259 206, 597	42,055 119,483 184,715
Number. Quantity	5,653 830,304	5,772 799,417	6, 182 2, 137, 311	8,303 1,540,084	10,905 1,093,589	10, 840 906, 906
feet (average)dolls	2.56	2.00	2.01	2.30	2.44	1.98
Grazing: Number of permits	25,604	26, 501	27,466	28,945	30, 610	33, 328
Kinds of stock— CattleNo GoatsNo HogsNo HorsesNo SheepNo	1,351,92277,6684,50091,5167,371,747	$1,403,025\\83,849\\4,330\\95,343\\7,467,890$	1,455,92276,8983,27797,9197,790,953	1, 508, 639 58, 616 3, 381 108, 241 7, 560, 186	$1,627,321- 51,409 \\ 2,792 \\ 96,933 \\ 7,232,276$	1,758,76443,2682,96898,9037,843,205
TotalNo	8,897,353	9,054,437	9, 424, 969	9,239,063	9,010,731	9,747,108
Special use and water-power permitsNo	5, 145	4,967	5, 245	5,089	5,657	5, 251
Revenue:						
From— Timber salesdolls Timber settlements. ¹	935, 128	994,314	1, 282, 647	1,243,195	1,211,985	1,307,111
dollars. Penalties for timber	22,035	33,287	36,105	39,927	3,181	2,299
trespassdolls Turpentine sales, ²	43,236	40, 291	17,558	12,981	7,284	37,712
dollars Fire trespassdolls Special uses ³ dolls Grazing feesdolls Grazing trespass,	$14,371 \\76,640 \\930,966$	$21,810 \\ 48,249 \\ 962,175$	$5,028 \\ 67,278 \\ 1,001,156$	15,3727,95068,773997,583	8,915 661 78,691 1,130,175	$14,402 \\ 5,471 \\ 85,235 \\ 1,202,405$
dollars. Water powerdolls	4,521	6,667 50,563	6,583 51,235	$4,765 \\ 47,164$	5,818 89,104	7,810 101,096
Total revenue. dolls	2,026,906	2, 157, 356	2,467,590	2,437,710	42,535,814	2, 823, 541

Includes timber taken in the exercise of permits for rights of way, development of power, etc.
 Prior to 1914 receipts from sale of turpentine were included with timber sales.
 Included under "Special use" prior to 1912.
 Refunds during year, \$54,575.

Miscellaneous Data.

NATIONAL FORESTS-Continued.

TABLE 189.—Area of national forest lands, June 30, 1916.

[Reported by Forest Service.]

State and forest.	Net area.	State and forest.	Net area.
Alaska:	Acres.	Idaho:	Acres.
Chugach	5, 430, 018	Boise	1.054.302
Tongass.	5,430,018 15,454,110	Cache 1	514.317
		Caribou 1	1,054,302 514,317 686,349
Total	20, 884, 128	Challis	
		Clearwater Coeur d'Alene	1,200,000 785,179 650,330 1,193,513 199,190 1007,741
Arizona:		Coeur d'Alene	650,336
Apache	1,184,582	Juano	1, 193, 513
Chiricahua 1	348,160	Kaniksu ¹	199, 190
Coconino	$1,599,677 \\959,961 \\867,102 \\17,680 \\100$	Lemhi	
Coronado	959,961	Minidoka ¹	510,003 1,703,168 297,020
Crook.	807,102	Nez Perce.	1,703,108
Dixie ¹ . Kaibab	1 072 170	Palisade 1.	832,109
Manzano ¹	1,072,170	Payette Pend Orcille	678 05
Prescott	1 434 122	St. Joe.	577 13
Sitgreaves	27,708 1,434,122 667,168 1,996,280	Salmon	678,05 577,131 1,621,477 1,203,555
Tonto.	1.996.280	Sawtooth.	1,203,55
Tusayan	1,605,823	Selway	1,694,17
	1,000,010	Targhee 1.	694.372
Total	11, 780, 433	Targhee ¹	694, 372 562, 743
rkansas:		Total	17, 785, 333
Arkansas	622,003 294,916	Michigan:	
Ozark	291,910	Michigan.	89,466
Total	916, 919	Minnosota	
California:		Minnesota: Minnesota	107 536
	\$95 916	Superior.	197, 532 557, 330
Angeles. California	822 361		001,000
Cleveland	885, 216 822, 364 591, 750	Total	1,055,165
Crater 1	46, 980		1,000,100
Eldorado ¹	46,980 549,950 1,268,604 1,470,848	Montana:	
Inyo ¹	1.268.604	Absaroka	843, 443
Klamath ¹	1,470,848	Beartooth	662, 855
Lassen	992, 804	Beaverhead	1.338 197
Modoc	$\begin{array}{c} 1,470,343\\ 992,804\\ 1,182,298\\ 801,485\\ 401,492\\ 1,146,645\\ 1,75\end{array}$	Bitterroot	1,047,805 873,414 831,494
Mono ¹	801,485	Blackfeet	873,414
Monterey	401,492	Cabinet	831,49
Plumas.	1,146,645	Custer	430, 142
Santa Barbara		Deerlodge	834,709 1,812,019 565,573 688,346
Sequoia	2,196,199	Flathead.	1,812,01
Shasta Sierra	2,196,199 828,367 1,493,474	Gallatin	- 200, 27
Sierra.	1,495,474	Helena	1 040 01
Siskiyou 1	349,650	Jefferson	1,012,913 1,227,003
Stanislaus. Tahoe ¹	809,679 546,326 1,428,168	Kootenai. Lewis and Clark.	1,337,99
Trinity.	1 428 168	Lolo.	811,72 850,50
	1,120,100	Madison.	960,120
Total	19, 507, 474	Missoula.	1,028,12
		Sicux ¹	98, 803
olorado:			,
Arapahoe	636, 899	Total	16,058,18
Battlement	651 227		
Cocnetopa	907, 532 494, 656 614, 275 908, 109	Nebraska:	
Colorado.	491,656	Nebraska	206,07
Durango	614,275	No	
Gunnison	908,109	Nevada:	000 54
Hayden 1.	$\begin{array}{r} 503,105\\ 66,718\\ 576,915\\ 27,414\\ 935,229\\ 700,571\\ 127,659\end{array}$	Dixiel.	282,543
Holy Cross.	070,910	Eldorado ¹	601 75
La Šal ¹ . Leadville	035 220	Humboldt Inyo	691, 758 72, 817
Montezuma	700 571	Mono ¹	465,01
Pike		Nevada	1.237.94
Rio Grande	1, 137, 067	Ruby.	1,237,943 343,183 270,075
	1,137,067847,882598,912	Ruby	270,07:
San Isabel.	598,912	Tahoe ¹	14,687
San Juan	618 075	Toiyabe	1,907,043
Sopris	596,852		
Uncompangre	596, 852 790, 589 848, 337	Total	5,286,060
White River		New Mexico:	
Total	13,094,978	Alamo.	610, 529
Total			
		Carson	851,502
florida: Florida.	309, 546	Carson Chiricahua ¹ . Datil.	854, 562 126, 478 2, 671, 925

¹ For total area, see "National Forests extending into two States."

NATIONAL FORESTS-Continued.

TABLE 189.—Area of national forest lands, June 30, 1916-Continued.

State and forest.	Net area.	State and forest.	Net area.	
New Mexico-Continued.	Acres.	Utah-Continued	Acres.	
Lincoln	551,760	Fillmore	700,626	
Manzano ¹	755, 894	Fishlake	661, 699	
Santa Fe	1,355,034	La Sal ¹ Manti.	519,644 781,800	
Total	8, 363, 329	Minidoka ¹	69,402	
North Dakota:		Powell	689,685 729,614	
Dakota	6,054	Uinta	1,005,252	
		Wasatch	607,732	
Oklahoma: Wichita.	61,480	Total	7,447,797	
Oregon:		NTF 1.1.		
Cascade	1,016,569	Washington:	077 000	
Crater 1.	787, 454	Chelan	677, 389	
Deschutes	1,287,486	Columbia.	776, 480	
Fremont	888.887	Colville.	756, 395	
Klamath ¹	3,998	Kaniksu ¹	258,776	
Malheur	1,057,682	Okanogan	1, 487, 136	
Minam	393,086	Olympic	1,534,680	
Cchoco	716, 482	Rainier.	1, 316, 057	
Oregon	1,031,902	Snoqualmie	695, 332	
Santiam	606,776	Washington	1,454,356	
Siskiyou ¹	997, 139	Wenaha ¹	313, 434	
Siuslaw	541,280	Wenatchee	657,644	
Umatilla	486,183	Total	0 007 070	
Umpqua	1,011,417	10600	9,927,679	
Wallowa	993, 181	Wyoming:		
Wenaha ¹	425, 504	Ashley 1	5,987	
Whitman	877,564	Bighorn.	1,123,430	
		Black Hills ¹	1,123,430	
Total	13, 127, 590	Bonneville	607, 013	
		Bridger.	572,083	
Porto Rico:		Caribou ¹	6,707	
Luquillo			322, 222	
		Hayden ¹ Medicine Bow	469, 786	
South Dakota:		Palisade ¹	254, 964	
Black Hills ¹	483,782	Shoshone	1, 576, 349	
Harney	556, 220	Targhee ¹	84.970	
Sicux ¹	75,844	Teton	1,908,074	
		Washakie	387, 447	
Total	1,115,846	Wyoming.	\$99, 980	
Utah:				
Ashley ¹	982, 493	Total	8,363,771	
Cache ¹	267,066			
Dixie ¹	432,784	Grand total, National Forests	155, 420, 280	

¹ For total area, see "National Forests extending into two States."

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NATIONAL FORESTS EXTENDING INTO TWO STATES.

Forest.	- States.	Net area.
Chiricahua Dixie Manzuno Crater Eldorado Invo. Klamath Mouo Siskiyou Tahoe Hayden La Sal Cache Caribou Kaniksu Minidoka Palisade Targhee Sioux Wenaha Black Hills Ashley	Arizona-New Mexico Arizona-New Mexico Arizona-Nevada-Utah Arizona-Nevada-Utah Arizona-New Mexico California-Oregon California-Nevada California-Oregon California-Oregon California-Oregon California-Oregon California-Oregon Colorado-Wyoming Colorado-Utah Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Idaho-Wyoming Montana-South Dakota. Oregon-Washington South Dakota-Wyoming.	A cres. 474,633 733,007 783,602 834,434 550,350 1,341,421 1,474,846 1,266,497 1,346,788 561,013 388,940 547,088 781,383 603,056 557,405 551,984 779,342 174,687 738,988 602,541 938,988 602,541 938,988

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Miscellaneous Data.

NATIONAL FORESTS-Continued.

TABLE 190.—Grazing allowances for national forests, 1916.

Forest. District 1: Absaroka. Beartooth. Beavorhead. Bitterroot. Blackfeet. Cabinet. Clearwater. Coeur d'Alene. Custer.	Cattle and horses. + 6,835 + 4,500 - 24,500 + 3,800 + 3,000	Swine.	Sheep and goats. 102,000 - 48,800	Cattle.	Horses.	Swine.	Sheep and goat:
Absaroka. Beartooth. Beartooth. Bitterroot. Blackfeet. Cabinet. Clearwater. Coeur d'Alene.	+ 4,500 - 24,500 + 3,800 2,000		102,000				
Beartooth Beaverhead Bitterroot Blackfeet Cabinet Clearwater Coeur d'Alene	+ 4,500 - 24,500 + 3,800 2,000		102,000				
Beaverhead Bitterroot Blackfeet Cabinet Clearwater Coeur d'Alene	-24,500 + 3,800 2,000			54	67		13.
Bitterroot Blackfeet Cabinet Clearwater Coeur d'Alene	+ 3,800 2,000		114 000	54	67	32	13.
Blackfeet Cabinet Clearwater Coeur d'Alene	2,000		- 114,000 + 40,000	$54 \\ 54$	67 67		13. 13.
Cabinet. Clearwater. Coeur d'Alene	2,000		10,000	48	60		13.
Clearwater Coeur d'Alene	+ 3,000		22, 250	54	67		13.
Coeur d'Alene	-2,350		- 52,900	48	60		12
Clister	500		$\begin{array}{r} 22,250 \\ - 52,900 \\ 25,000 \\ - 6,250 \end{array}$	54	67		13
Delecte	+ 19,250 - 380		- 6,250	54	67		13
Dakota	-15,200		- 60,000	54 54	67 67		13
Deerlodge Flathead	- 3,150		5,000	48		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Gallatin	+ 8,500		+ 63 (00)	54		1	13
Helena. Jefferson	+ 18,900		- 98,500	54	67		13
Jefferson	+17,600		+ 129,000	54	67		
Kaniksu	1,000		11,500	48	, 60		
Kootenai Lewis and Clark. Lolo.	+ 2,100 7,900		- 43,500 40,000	48		j · · · · · · · · · · · ·	12
Lewis and Clark	- 1,000		-20,000	54 54	67		13
Madison 1	+ 27,000		135 000	60	75		18
Missoula.	7, 800		$\begin{array}{r} - & 135,000 \\ - & 14,500 \\ 50,000 \\ - & 33,500 \\ + & 10,000 \end{array}$	54	67		13
Nezperce	10,000		50,000	54	67		13
Pend Oreille	+ 1,100		- 33,500	48	60		12
Selway	- 5,250		+ 10,000	48	60		12
Sioux. St. Joe	- 6,500 1,000		- 3,000 78,000	54 48			13
		300					
statist 0.	+201,115	300	-1,215,700				
istrict 2: Arapaho	+ 12,600		- 21,000	54	67		13
Battlement ¹	+43,700		21,000	54	67		10
Righorn	+36,450		- 106,500	60	75		15
Black Hills ² . Bridger ¹³ . Cochetopa. Colorado.	+18,000	2,500		54	67	32	
Bridger 13	+16,600		- 62,800	54	67		13
Colorado	+ 18,000 - 9,000		- 62,000	51 51	67 67		13
Durango.	-11,760		+ 93,850	54	67		13
Cunnison	+31,000		+ 10,000	54	67		13
Harney. Hayden. Holy Cross ⁴ . Leadville. Medicine Bow.	- 9,765			54	67		
Hayden	+7,400		120,000	54	67		13
Holy Cross 4	+11,000		- 31,500	51	67		13
Leadville	12,200		+ 80,000	54			1:
Michigan	+ 9,800 + 900		+ 62,000 + 900	54 54	67	• • • • • • • • • • •	13
Minnesota	2,000		1 500	54	67		1.
Montezuma	- 28,850		+ 45,700	54	67		13
Nebraska ¹	13,000			72	90		
Pike.	-15,900		- 16,500	54	67		1:
Rio Grande Routi	+ 23, 400 - 32, 500 13, 700		+ 266,000	54 54	67 67	• • • • • • • • • • • •	13
San Isabel	13, 700		15 500	51	67		1:
San Juan ⁴	+ 12.585		$\begin{array}{rrrr} - & 91,400 \\ & 15,500 \\ + & 97,250 \\ + & 71,300 \end{array}$	54	67		1
Shoshone ¹	+ 12,300		+ 71,300	54	67		13
Sopris	-15,250		61,000	54	67		13
Uncompangre	-28,440		+ 5/. (44	54 54	67		13
Washakie ¹⁶ . White River	+ 12,350 - 40,000		+ 44,100 + 22,000	54	67 67		13
-	-498,450	2, 500	+1,439,044	•••••			
strict 3:						·	
Alamo.	+ 14,250	75	- 11,000	48	60	29	12
A pache. Carson.	J, 500	+ 50	+ 62,000	48 48	60 60	29 29	12
Chiricahua	+ 14,250 31,500 + 8,100 12,000	+ 50 300	+ 161,300 2,000	48	60 60	29	12
Coconino ¹ ,	44,000	+ 250	$\begin{array}{rrrr} - & 11,000 \\ + & 62,000 \\ + & 161,300 \\ - & 92,000 \\ - & 92,000 \end{array}$	48	60	29	12
Coronado. Crook	23,200 + 18,300	100	- 17,000 - 1,350	48 48	60	29	12

Term applications authorized.
 Includes Sundance Forest.
 Sheep increased by adding part of Washakie; total shows decrease in sheep for 1916.
 Term applications previously approved effective till expiration of period.
 Increased by adding Bonneville.

NATIONAL FORESTS-Continued.

TABLE 190.—Grazing allowances for national forests, 1916—Continued.

	Number	of stock au	ith or i	ized.	Yearlong rates (cents).				
Forest.	Cattle and horses.	Swine. Sheep and goats.		Cattle.	Horses.	Swine.	Sheep and goats		
District 3-Continued.									
Datil	+43,700	+ 800	- 1	125,300	48	60	29	12	
Gila. Lincoln.	+ 43,700 + 41,500 - 9,400	350	-	125,300 17,800 13,000	48	60	29	12	
Manzano	9,400	500		95,000	48 48		29	12 12	
Prescott	+ 53,550	50	_	71,000	48	60	29	12	
Santa Fe	17,100	+ 550	3	100,900	48	60	29	12	
Santa Fe Sitgreaves Tonto	10, 800	650		77,000	48 48	60	29	12 12	
Tusayan	-68,000 -22,200	50	+	72,400	48	60 60	29	12	
	+426,900	+3,825	+ 9	919,150					
District 4:									
Ashley	+10,100			97,000	60	75		15	
Boise ¹ Cache	4,000 + 31,700	100		140,000 143,400	54 54	67 67	32	13. 13.	
Caribou	+ 14,400			143,400 288,000 91,000	54	67		13.	
Caribou Challis ¹	+ 14,400 + 7,700		+	91,000	54	67		13.	
Dixie	- 9,050	400		1,000	48	60	29	12	
Fillmore	+ 20,000 + 18,900	+ 500	_	47,500 70,000	60 60	75 76	36	15 15	
Fishlake Humboldt	+ 28,600		- :	295,000	54	67		13.	
Idahol	- 2 400		-	100,000	54	67		13.	
Kaibab ² La Sal Lemhi	- 9,700			5,000	48	60	32	12	
La Sal	27,000 + 10,000	100		35,500 77,500 150,400	54 54	67 67	32	13. 13.	
Manti.	+ 27,300			150,400	60	75		15	
Minidoka	+ 20,000		+	75,750	54	67		13.	
Nevada ²	- 6,000			58,600	54	67		13.	
Palitale Payette ² . Powell Ruby Salmon	+ 6,900 + 7,300			97,000	54 54	- 67 67		13. 13.	
Powell.	+ 7,300 + 13,500			91,500 72,000 35,500 110,000	51	67		13.	
Ruby	+ 16,400 14,700 14,500		+	35, 500	54	67		13.	
Salmon	14,700		+	110,000	54	67		13.	
Santa Rosa Sawtooth ¹	14,000			50,000 310,000	54 54	67 67		13.	
Sevier	+ 11,400	- 50		115,000	54	67	32	13. 13. 13.	
Targhee ¹ Teton	+ 10,300			129,000	54	67		13.	
Teton	+ 14,000				54	67			
Toiyabe Uinta ¹³	+ 18,000 + 31,700			22,000 199,300	51 60	67 75		. 13. 15	
Wasatch.	$\begin{array}{r} + 31,700 \\ - 12,700 \\ + 11,700 \end{array}$			61,100	60	75		15	
Weiser	+ 11,700	+ 600	-	73,000	51	67	32	13.	
Wyoming	11,000			216, 500	54	57		. 13.	
	+454,200	+1,750	-3,	256,950					
District 5:	4 100	1							
Angeles ² California	4,100 + 6,700	1,000		58,000	60 60	75	36	15	
Cleveland	-2,000	1,000	_	1,500	60	75 75		15	
Eldorado 1.	+ 10.100	50	+	19,000	72	90	43	18	
Inyo ⁴ Klamath ² Lassen	5,700			30,500	72	90		. 18	
Klamath 4	+ 8,350 + 12,750	+ 500	+	5,600 36,250	56 64	70 80	34	14	
Modoc	.1 41.300	- 000	+	63,000	60	75		1	
Mono	+ 4,650		-	$63,000 \\ 67,700 \\ 2,000$	72	90		. 18	
Monterey	.1 2,250	900		2,000	61	S0 85	38	16	
Plumas ² Santa Barbara ² .	$\begin{vmatrix} - & 13,100 \\ - & 7,650 \end{vmatrix}$	300	· + +	76,000 3,200	68 64	85 80	38	. 17	
Santa Barbara ² Sequoia ² Shasta. Sierra ⁴	+ 30,550	-2,300		9,900	72	90	43	18	
Shasta	+ 9,900	500		24,700	60	75	36	15	
Sierra 4	. 15,000	500		21,000	72	90	43	18	
Stanislaus ² Tahoe	18, 500	300		15,350 59,500	72 72	90 90	43	18	
Trinity	+ 12,900	+ 415		20,000	56	70	34	14	
	and the second s								

Term applications authorized.
 Term applications previously approved effective till expiration of period.
 Sheep increased by adding part of Washakie; total shows decrease in sheep for 1916.

Miscellaneous Data.

NATIONAL FORESTS-Continued.

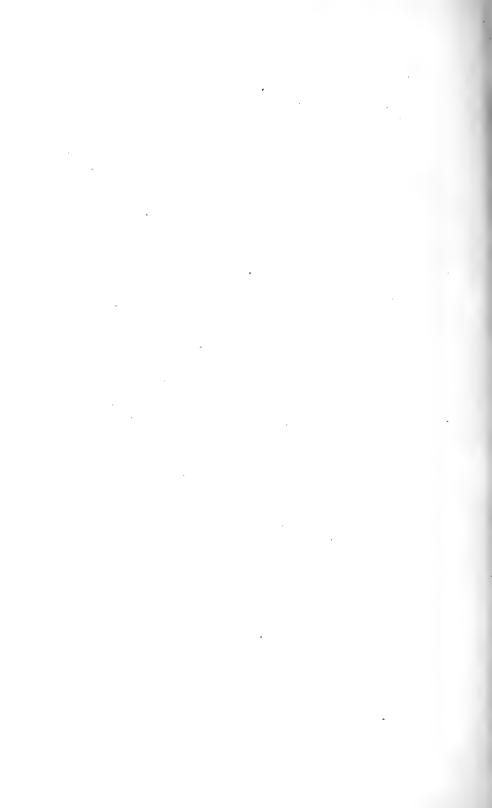
TABLE 190 -Grazing allowances for national forests, 1916-Continued.

Forest. District 6: Cascade ¹ Chelan. Columbia. Columbia. Colville. CraterDeschutes Fremont. Malheur. Minam Ochoco Okanogan Olympic	Cattle and horses. + 1,000 500 + 1,300	Swine.	Sheep and goats.	Cattle.	Horses.	Swine.	Sheep and goats
Cascade 1 Chelan Columbia Colville Crater Deschutes Fremont Malheur Minam Ochoco Okanogan Olympic	500					1	Outoba
Cascade 1 Chelan Columbia Colville Crater Deschutes Fremont Malheur Minam Ochoco Okanogan Olympic	500					*	
Chelan. Columbia. Colville. Crater. Deschutes. Fremont. Minam. Ochoco Okanogan. Olympic.	500		- 27,600	64	80		16
Colville Crater Deschutes Fremont Malheur Minam Ochoco Okanogan Olympic	+ 1,300		- 27,600 + 31,600	60	75		13
Crater Deschutes Fremont Malheur Minam Ochoco Okanogan Olympic			+ 29,000	64	80		10
Deschutes. Fremont Malheur. Minam Ochoco. Okanogan. Olympic	6,000		60,000	60	75		1
Fremont. Malheur Minam. Ochoco. Okanogan. Olympic.	7,800	500	8,700	60	75	36	1
Malheur Minam. Ochoco. Okanogan. Olympic.	+ 5,000		+ 52,000	60	75		1
Minam. Ochoco. Okanogan. Olympic.	+15,000		- 100,000	60	75		1
Ochoco Okanogan Olympic	+ 30,000 + 11,900	50	128,000 + 64,500	60	75 75	36	1
Okanogan Olympic	+ 11,500 + 13,700		+ 64,500 - 86,000	60 60	75		1
Olympic	+10,000		+ 90,000	60	- 75		1
	2,500		1. 00,000	60	75	•••••	1
Oregon	+ 3,500 + 3,500		- 29,800	64	80		1
Rainier	+ 6,400		- 47 000	64	80		i
Santiam	+ 320		- 19.700	64	80		î
Siskiyou	+ 4,100	+1,000	+-4,200	56	70	34	1
Siuslaw	1,200		4,000	56	- 70		1
Snoqualmie			6,000				1
Umatilla	10,300		- 59,400	60	75		1
Umpqua	1,200	100	12,000	64	80		1
Wallowa Washington	- 19,000	100	- 105,000	60	75	36	1
Wenaha	+ 250 + 11,650		- 102,000	64 60	80 75		1
Wenatchee	700		- 59,300	64	80		1
Whitman.	+ 9,700	10	-110,300	60	75	36	1
	+173,020	+1,660	-1,241,100				
		+1,000					
District 7:	15 000	00.000	0.000	10			1
Arkansas Florida	15,000	22,000	2,000 7,000	48	60	29	1
Ozark.	- 6,000 - 8,500	3,000 -12,800	- 1,400	48 48	60 60	29 29	1
Wichita	4,630	-12,000	- 1,400	1.00	1.25	29	1 1
		07 000		1.00	1.20		
	- 34,130	-37, 800	- 10,400				
urchase areas: Cherokee	1,500	400	200	1.50	2.00	90	4
Georgia	860	430	500	85	1.10	50	2
Massanutten	+ 300		100	1.50			4
Mount Mitchell	600	100	50	1.50	2.00	90	4
Nantahala	+ 500	2,100	150	1.50	2.00	90	4
Natural Bridge	+ 400			1.50	2.00		
Potomac Savannah (N)	-240 -150		490	1.50	2.00		4
Savannah (S)	+ 160	+ 200 + 160	+ 200	1.50 1.50	2.00	90	4
Shenandoah	2,000	+ 100	+ 50	1.50	2.00	90	4
Unaka	500	150	75	1.50	2.00	90	4
White Mountain	100			1.50	2.00	00	1
White Top	- 250	- 150	150	1.50	2.00	90	4
	+ 7,560	- 3,690	- 2,145				
Totals, 1913	1 959 000	50 525	9 591 900			Terret and a	
Totals, 1914	1,852,999 1,891,119	59,535 65,645	8, 521, 308 8, 867, 906				
Totals, 1915.	1, 983, 775	64,040	8,747,025	•••••			
Totals, 1916	2,008,675	58,990	8, 597, 689				
Increase or decrease in 1916 over 1915.	+ 24,900	-5,030	- 149,336			* * * * * * * * * * *	

¹ Term applications previously approved effective till expiration of period.

Nore.—The symbols (+) or (-) indicate respectively that there was an increase or decrease in 1916 compared with 1915. The figures themselves refer to actual numbers of stock authorized in 1916.

54159°-YBK 1916-45



IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.¹

TABLE 191.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916.

[Compiled from reports of the foreign commerce and navigation of the United States, U. S. Department of Commerce.]

			Year endir	ig June 30—		
Article imported.	18	914	19	915	1916 (pre	liminary).
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
ANIMAL MATTER.						
Animals, live: Cattle- For breeding purposes, number	718,352 150,016	\$16, 328, 819 2, 367, 899	538,167	\$17, 513, 175	439, 185	\$1 5, 1 87, 593
Total cattledo	868,368	18,696,718	538, 167	17, 513, 175	439, 185	15, 187, 593
Horses- For breeding purposes, number	4,406 28,613	1,476,905 1,128,124	1,849 10,803	473, 138 504, 242	1,536 14,020	659, 022 959, 223
- Total horsesdo	33,019	2,605,029	12,652			1,618,245
Sheep-						
For breeding purposes, numberdo	221,836 1,883	$516,912 \\ 15,492$	153,317	533,967	235,659	917, 502
Total sheepdo	223,719	532,404	153, 317	533,967	235,659	917, 502
Swinedo All other, including fowls	(2)	(2) 2,877,960	(2)	(2) 3,254,559	4,626	42,615 883,124
Total live animals		24, 712, 111		22, 279, 081		18,649,079
Beeswax pounds	1,412,200	476, 364	1,564,506	439, 541	1	
Dairy products: Butterdo Cheesedo Creamgallons Milk.	7,842,022 63,784,313 1,773,152	1,753,46111,010,6931,549,5491,089,440	3,828,227 50,138,520 2,077,384	977,262 9,370,018 1,800,180 2,556,787	712,998 30,087,999 1,193,745	$\begin{array}{r} 212,370\\ 7,058,420\\ 1,042,775\\ 1,515,354 \end{array}$
Total dairy products		15,403,143		14,704,277	1	9,828,919
Eggsdozens Egg yolks or frozen eggs,	6,014,955	1,089,164	3,046,631	438,760	732, 566	110,638
Feathers and downs, crude: Ostrich	3, 420, 412	504,619 3,944,928 926,735	8,571,758	798, 129 2, 183, 171 319, 452		2,195,497 525,654
Fibers, animal: Silk- Cocoons	1,413	1,118	51,495	35,114	197,073	142,743
Raw, or as reeled from the cocoonpounds Wastedo	$28,594,672 \\ 5,949,744$	97,828,243 3,100,664	$26,030,925 \\ 4,970,254$	80,531,785 2,563,658	$33,070,902 \\ 8,657,322$	$119,484,223\\4,706,689$
Total silkdo	34, 545, 829	100,930,025	31,052,674	83, 130, 557	41,925,297	124, 333, 655
 Wool, and hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, and like animals— Class 1, clothingpounds Class 2, combingdo Class 3, carpetdo Hair of the Angora goat, alpaca, etcpounds 	18,839,698 102,003,313	30, 681, 759 4, 905, 967 17, 029, 611 572, 430	222,017,420 15,054,694 65,709,752 5,301,563	52,008,509 3,735,158 10,865,475 1,633,426	403,121,585 13,292,160 109,268,999 9,145,278	112, 145, 657 3, 916, 703 23, 955, 236 2, 403, 133
Total wooldo	247,618,869	53, 190, 767	308,083,429	68,242,568	534, 828, 022	142, 420, 734
Total animal fibers,			33 9, 13 6, 103	151, 373, 125	576, 753, 319	266, 754, 389

¹ Forest products come within the scope of the Department of Agriculture and are therefore included in alphabetical order in these tables. ²Included in "All other, including fowls."

TABLE 191.—Agricultural	imports	of the.	United	States	during	the 3	years	ending
v	June 30,	, 1916-	-Contin	nued.	-			

			Year ending	g June 30—		
Article imported.	191	14	19	15	1916 (preli	minary).
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
ANIMAL MATTER-continued.						
Gelatinpcunds Gluedo Honeygallons	$2,441,317 \\22,714,877 \\75,079$	$ $738,731 \\ 1,805,543 \\ 38,665 $	2,714,229 8,705,147 303,965	\$816,521 824,136 124,843	1,000,235 3,008,485	\$501,509 217,033
Packing-house products: Bladders, other than fish Blood, dried Bones, cleaned Bones, hoofs, and horns		52,336391,8165,0231,061,466		227,193 69 911,473		867,242
Bristles— Crude, unsortedpounds	28,359	25, 495	45, 466	3, 336	86, 374	14,990
Sorted, bunched, or pre- paredpounds	3,408,796 3,437,155	3,170,974 3,196,469	4,016,594	3,609,748 3,613,084	3,850,087	3,612,052 3,627,042
Total bristlesdo			4,002,000	1,146,721		490,470
Gut Hair—		1,028,595 122,733				•••••
Horsepounds Other animaldo Hide cuttings and other glue	3,738,836 10,507,680	1,663,448 1,051,698	3,541,903 8,148,570	1,500,666 744,187	6,198,938 9,692,037	2,071,429 988,342
stock Hides and skins, other than		2,158,514		1,510,608		972,106
furs- Buffalo hides, dry						
Calfskins-	14, 492, 943	3,073,717	12, 422, 803	2, 325, 243	13,003,888	2,463,270
Drydo Green or pickleddo	27,767,882 54,635,708	11,582.807 11,799,146	$\begin{array}{c} 15,678,046\\ 30,288,655 \end{array}$	4,166,617 6,552,157	26,913,217 37,222,276	7,835,605 9,071,349
Cattle hides	71,485,650 208,477,838	18,083,314 34,098,628	93,001,127 241,340,290	21, 424, 552 39, 753, 213	$\frac{153, 339, 079}{280, 838, 692}$	37, 453, 897 50, 596, 221
Goatskins	$\begin{array}{c} 63,374,054\\ 21,385,374 \end{array}$	19,037,307 3,153,956	50,713,062 15,834,101	13,925,565 2,263,984	85,505,514 15,151,507	25,198,246 2,207,658
Horse and ass skins— Drydo Green or pickleddo Kangaroodo Sheepskins— 1	7,619,625 4,645,213 1,328,668	1,619,178 514,833 898,087	5, 425, 173 3, 800, 451 769, 125	1,253,001 399,682 427,127	6,779,725 11,346,910 1,219,129	$1,236,440 \\ 1,079,284 \\ 722,300$
Drydo Green or pickleddo Otherdo	29, 338, 146 40, 738, 679 15, 780, 906	$\begin{array}{c} 6,165,947\\ 6,427,270\\ {f 3},835,591 \end{array}$	20,886,018 37,833,520 10,225,362	3,963,438 6,021,432 1,701,095	54, 599, 884 46, 859, 397 10, 890, 642	$\begin{array}{r} 11,330,341 \\ 7,509,009 \\ 2,157,756 \end{array}$
Total hides and skins,	561,070,686		538, 217, 733	104, 177, 106	743,669,860	158,861,376
Ment- Cured-						
Bacon and hams, pounds	2,008,960	383,609	7, 542, 446	1,161,090	667,667	111,486
preserved		1,676,300		1,193,268		325, 381
Fresh-	730, 326	186,821	209, 484	53,660	47,287	12, 322
Beef and vealpounds Mutton and lamb.do Porkdo Other, including meat	$180, 137, 183 \\12, 710, 905 \\4, 624, 799$	$15,423,911 \\ 1,114,730 \\ 540,801$	$\begin{array}{c} 184,490,759\\ 15,528,855\\ 16,250,514 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 16,942,661\\ 1,474,422\\ 2,011,065 \end{array}$	71, 101, 756 20, 257, 999 2, 169, 084	7,107,949 1,784,310 234,873
Other, including meat extracts		1,075,819		2,561,906		1,486,395
Total meat		20, 402, 144		25,398,072		11,062,716
Oleo stearinpounds Rennets Sausage casingspounds	5, 213, 553	459,989 129,720 2,955,657	2,424,009	209,515101,0172,944,501	910, 478	81,280 3,865,877
Total packing - house products		154,969,389		142, 484, 247		182,887,880
Total animal matter	***** * *	358,730,184		336, 785, 283		481,670,598

¹ Except sheepskins with the wool on.

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TABLE 191.—Agricultural	imports of the	United States	during	the 3	years ending
	June 30, 1916-	-Continued.			0

	1		Yea r endi i	ng June 30—		
Article imported.	1	914	1	915	1916 (pre	liminary).
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
VEGETABLE MATTER.						
Argols, or wine lesspounds Breadstuffs. (See Grain and grain products.) Broom cornlong tons	29, 793, 011 1, 272	\$3, 228, 674 141, 730	28, 624, 554 129	\$3,094,380	34, 721, 043 158	\$5, 306, 246 24, 643
Cocca and chocolate: Cocca— Crude, and leaves and shells ofpounds Chocolatedo	176, 267, 646 3, 096, 445	20, 797, 790 706, 193	$192, 306, 634 \\ 2, 427, 561$	22, 893, 241 584, 915	243, 231, 939 2, 347, 162	35, 143, 865 660, 377
Total cocca and choco- latepounds	179, 364, 091	21, 503, 983	194, 734, 195	23, 478, 156	245, 579, 101	35, 804, 242
Coffeedo	1,001,528,317	110, 725, 392	1,118,690,524	106, 765, 644	1,201,104,485	115, 495, 970
Coffee substitutes: Chicory root— Roasted, ground, or other- wise prepared, pounds	2, 292, 430 188, 446	47,882 21,498	755,680	17,389		
Total coffee substitutes, pounds	2, 480, 876	69, 380	755, 680	17, 389		
Curry and curry powder		11,861				
Fibers, vogetable: Cottonpounds Flaxlong tons. Hempdo Istle, or Tampicofiber. do Jute and jute buttsdo Kapocdo. Manilado Now Zealand flaxdo Sisal grassdo Otherdo.	$123, 346, 899 \\9, 885 \\8, 822 \\10, 660 \\106, 033 \\1, 827 \\49, 683 \\6, 171 \\215, 547 \\9, 799 \\$	$\begin{array}{c} 19,456,588\\ 2,870,274\\ 1,564,483\\ 1,036,431\\ 11,174,028\\ 441,109\\ 9,779,539\\ 716,953\\ 25,860,729\\ 906,449 \end{array}$	$185, 204, 579 \\ 4, 694 \\ 5, 310 \\ 12, 300 \\ 83, 140 \\ 3, 860 \\ 51, 081 \\ 2, 944 \\ 185, 764 \\ 6, 697 \\ $	$\begin{array}{c} 23,208,060\\ 1,875,701\\ 1,156,129\\ 1,216,466\\ 4,677,334\\ 767,509\\ 9,200,793\\ 319,936\\ 20,572,347\\ 633,802 \end{array}$	232, 801, 062 6, 939 6, 506 30, 812 108, 322 5, 642 78, 892 7, 180 228, 610 9, 313	$\begin{array}{c} 40,150,342\\ 3,508,295\\ 1,642,418\\ 2,905,404\\ 7,914,782\\ 1,139,648\\ 14,066,823\\ 1,130,995\\ 25,803,433\\ 1,348,159\\ \end{array}$
Total vegetable fibers		73,806,583		63, 628, 977		99,610,404
Flowers, natural		24,540				
Forest products: Charcoal Cinchona barkpounds Cork wood or cork bark	3,648,868	60, 634 464, 412 3, 851, 794	3,944,549	561, 106 2, 762, 895	3,947,320	777, 637 3, 134, 884
Dyewoods, and extracts of- Dyewoods- Logwoodlong tons Otherdo	30, 062 7, 663	378,064 108,928	55,059 13,361	742, 234 197, 122	134, 629 24, 592	3, 437, 698 468, 669
Total dyewcods.do	37, 725	486,992	68,420	939, 356	159, 221	3,906,367
Extracts and decoctions ofpounds.	8, 810, 040	306, 934	6, 191, 232	202, 675	5, 471, 251	382, 880
Total dyewoods, and extracts of		793, 926		1, 142, 031		4, 289, 247
Gums- Crudepounds Refineddo Chielodo Copal, kauri, and damar, pounds Gambiar, or forme joponics.	3, 476, 908 566, 106 8, 010, 891 32, 693, 412	929, 715 182, 790 3, 012, 458 3, 354, 679	3, 729, 207 1, 170, 666 6, 499, 664 27, 450, 545	1,003,261 417,861 2,459,810 2,821,346	4, 574, 430 1, 866, 154 7, 346, 969 44, 523, 856	1, 236, 172 619, 320 2, 828, 184 3, 587, 020
Gambier, or terra japonica, pounds	14, 936, 129	571,067	14, 169, 490	542,200	12, 819, 859	928, 924

			Year endin	g June 30—		
Article imported.	19	14	19	015	1916 (prel	iminary).
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
VEGETABLE MATTER-contd. Forest products-Continued. Gums-Continued. India rubber, gutta						
percha, etc.— Balatapounds Guayule gumdo	1,533,024 1,475,804	\$793,126 607,076	2, 472, 224 5, 111, 849	\$963,384 1,441,367	2,544,405 2,816,068	\$996, 102 880, 813
Gutta-joolatong, or East Indian gumpounds Gutta-perchado India rubberdo	24,926,571 1,846,109 131,995,742	$1,155,402 \\323,567 \\71,219,851$	$14,851,264\\1,618,214\\172,068,428$	731, 995 230, 750 83, 030, 269	27,858,335 3,188,449 267,775,557	$1, 322, 262 \\ 342, 226 \\ 155, 044, 790$
Total India rubber, etcpounds	161, 777, 250	74, 099, 022	196, 121, 979	86, 397, 765	304, 182, 814	158, 586, 193
Shellacdo	16, 719, 756	2,689,269 2,001,631	24, 153, 363	3,016,472 1,581,704	25, 817, 509	3,302,825 2,324,092
Total gums		86, 840, 631		98, 240, 419		173,412,730
Ivory, vegetable pounds	27, 135, 406	881,354	21,059,746	510, 677	32,942,115	840, 464
Naval stores: Tar and pitch (of wood), barrels. Turpentine, spirits of, gal-	561	7,946				
lons	68,966	28, 818	13,750	5,102		
Total naval stores		36, 764	13,750	5,102		
Palm leaf, natural		14,014				
Tanning materials: Mangrove bark.long tons Quebracho, extract of,	7,689	196, 891	8,096	218, 952	21,185	582, 929
pounds. Quebracho woodl.tons Sumac, groundpounds Other.	93, 329, 087 73, 956 10, 770, 400	2, 543, 302 900, 880 258, 738 468, 230	120, 450, 283 54, 955 13, 165, 182	3,676,749 753,981 323,448 370,133	81,501,952 106,864 21,542,390	5, 432, 468 1, 598, 465 555, 276 668, 159
Total tanning mate- rials		4,368,041		5,343,263		8,837,297
Wood, not elsewhere speci- fied- Brier root or brierwood						
and ivy or laurel root Chair cane or reed		241, 493 451, 099		334, 552 169, 181		457, 537 263, 305
Cabinet woods, un- sawed- CedarM feet	17,285 70,470	982, 152	15, 875	947, 313 2, 640, 705	14,369 39,855	740, 488
Mahoganydo Other	70, 470	$\begin{array}{r} 982,152 \\ 4,925,126 \\ 1,217,410 \end{array}$	15,875 42,325	2, 640, 705 683, 757	39, 855	740, 488 2, 781, 372 489, 247
Total cabinet woods		7, 124, 688		4, 271, 775		4,011,107
Logs and round timber, M feet	148, 938	1,657,605	131, 544	1,263,641	150,401	1, 417, 859
Lumber— Boards, deals, planks, and oth er sawed lumber	931, 408 564, 778 895, 058	17, 817, 550 1, 613, 586 2, 190, 170 815, 279	940, 687 672, 023 1, 487, 116	$17,865,582\\1,916,214\\3,104,698\\621,097$	1, 218, 068 771, 823 1, 769, 333	$23, 113, 664 \\ 2, 207, 223 \\ 3, 593, 696 \\ 709, 696$
Total lumber	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	22, 436, 585		23, 507, 591		29, 624, 279
Pulp wood— Peciedcords. Rosseddo Roughdo Rattan and reeds All other.	630, 863 255, 814 186, 316	4,062,835 2,118,910 1,063,721 1,210,390 559,036	551, 239 187, 017 247, 400	3, 516, 460 1, 597, 750 1, 458, 629 771, 628 511, 682	627, 290 164, 714 187, 306	3, 959, 732 1, 282, 658 1, 131, 359 1, 720, 816 793, 692
Total wood, n. e. s		40, 926, 362		37,402,889		44,664,344

TABLE 191.—Agricultural	imports of the	United States	during	the 3	years ending	9
U	June 30, 1916	-Continued.				-

TABLE 191.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916—Continued.

	Year ending June 30-								
Article imported.	19	14	1	915	1916 (pre	iminary).			
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.			
VEGETABLE MATTER—contid. Forest products—Continued. Wood, not elswhere speci- fied—Continued. Wood pulp— Chemical—									
Bleachedpounds Unbleacheddo Mechanicaldo	$\begin{array}{c} 177,833,052\\605,926,470\\354,967,673\end{array}$	\$4,153,036 10,136,707 2,733,595	¹ 100,555 1300,114 1187,253	\$5,256,724 11,483,268 3,141,119	155,757 1264,882 1186,406	\$3,025,941 10,693,730 3,148,173			
Totalwood pulpdo	1,138,727,195	17,023,338	1587,922	19,881,111	1 507, 045	16, 867, 850			
Totalforest products		155, 261, 300		165, 849, 493		252, 824, 453			
Fruits: Fresh or dried— Bananasbunches Currantspounds. Datesdo Figsdo. Grapescubic feet. Lemonspounds. Oivesgallons. Orangespounds. Pineapples. Raisinspounds. Other.	$\begin{array}{c} 48,683,592\\ 32,033,177\\ 34,073,608\\ 19,284,868\\ 1,334,163\\ (2)\\ 5,316,364\\ (2)\\ 4,554,549\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{matrix} 16, 397, 884 \\ 1, 233, 228 \\ 679, 527 \\ 941, 207 \\ 1, 599, 969 \\ 5, 981, 635 \\ 2, 292, 837 \\ 93, 472 \\ 1, 287, 862 \\ 309, 511 \\ 1, 710, 009 \end{matrix}$	41,091,585 30,350,527 24,949,374 20,779,730 1,323,928 3,622,275 	$\begin{matrix} 13,512,900\\ 1,209,273\\ 420,203\\ 1,024,495\\ 1,523,547\\ 3,730,075\\ 1,607,903\\ 50,022\\ 1,309,750\\ 238,958\\ 1,431,242 \end{matrix}$	36,754,704 25,373,029 31,075,424 7,153,250 023,856 5,938,446 	$12, 106, 158 \\1, 382, 839 \\547, 433 \\315, 831 \\703, 274 \\2, 062, 030 \\2, 433, 304 \\89, 464 \\961, 623 \\143, 750 \\1, 582, 692 \\1, 582, $			
Total fresh or dried		32, 527, 141		26,058,428		22, 331, 398			
Prepared or preserved		1, 111, 193		1,022,971		954, 418			
Total fruits		33,638,334		27,081,399		23, 285, 816			
Ginger, preserved or pickled, pounds	478,058	36,434							
Grain and grain products: Grain— Cornbushels	12, 367, 369	7,917,243	9, 897, 939	6,083,385	5,208,497	2,865,003			
Oatsdo Wheatdo	$\substack{12, 367, 369\\22, 273, 624\\1, 978, 937}$	7,917,243 7,885,837 1,761,995	9, 897, 939 630, 722 426, 469	$6,083,385 \\ 290,180 \\ 469,847$		302,547 5,789,321			
Totalgraindo	36, 619, 930	17, 565, 075	10, 955, 130	6,843,412	11, 576, 889	8,956,871			
Grain products— Bread and biscuit		415,318		266,079		213, 400			
Macaroni, vermicelli, etc., poundsbushels Maltbushels	126, 128, 621 13, 472	5,698,783 16,367	56, 54 2, 4 80	3,061,337	21,789,602	1,525,695			
Wheat flourbarrels Other	89, 911	363,855 3,382,879	64,200	309,742 2,037,786	329, 905	1,689,418 3,251,976			
		9, 877, 202		5,674,944		6, 680, 489			
Total grain and grain products		27, 442, 277		12, 518, 356		15, 637, 360			
	$\begin{array}{r} 170,786\\ 5,382,025\\ 8,125,211\\ 115,636,131 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,634,390\\ 2,790,516\\ 1,093,226\\ 2,047,192 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 20,187\\ 11,651,332\\ 7,975,709\\ 65,958,501 \end{array}$	228,906 2,778,735 1,596,978 1,252,989	$\begin{array}{r} 43,184\\675,704\\6,599,583\\41,003,295\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 679,412\\ 144,627\\ 8,235,670\\ 1,609,571 \end{array}$			
Liquors, alcoholie: Distilled spirits— Brandyproof galls	602, 563	1,617,483	400,203	1,035,562	536,342	1,576,481			
Brandy,, proof galls Cordials, liqueurs, etc., proof galls. Ginproof galls. Whiskydo	$515,575 \\1,055,885 \\1,571,870 \\414,950$	$1,063,267\\1,017,569\\3,186,627\\378,902$	408,090 742,439 1,327,759 411,236	858, 599 717, 131 2, 641, 617 317, 413	330, 452 805, 749 1, 742, 197 538, 759	794, 553 749, 775 3, 677, 662 433, 098			
Total distilled spirits, proof galls	4, 160, 843	7,263,848	8,289,727	5,570,322	3,953,499	7,231,569			

1 Long tons (2,240 pounds).

2 Not stated.

			Year endin	g June 30—		
Article imported.	19	14	19	15	1916 (prel	i m inary).
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
VEGETABLE MATTER-contd.						
Liquors, alcholic—Continued. Malt liquors— Bottledgallons Unbottleddo	1,213,320 5,963,913	\$1,152,598 1,814,431	799,946 2,551,158	\$768,893 \$18,505	872,402 1,740,333	\$850,913 605,980
Total malt liquors.do	7, 177, 233	2,967,029	3,351,104	1,587,398	2,612,735	1, 456, 893
Wines— Champagne and other sparklingdoz. quarts	270,002	4, 418, 958	114,630	2,004,680	206,210	3, 532, 022
Still wines— Bottleddoz. quarts Unbottledgallons	728,303 5,220,380	2, 940 , 277 2, 757, 434	626, 865 3, 860, 273	2,273,916 1,968,587	547,119 3,455,756	2, 197, 311 2, 267, 561
Total still wines		5,697,711		4,242,503		4,464,872
Total wines		10, 116, 669		6,247,183		7,996,894
Total alcoholic liquors.		20, 347, 546		13,404,903		16,685,356
Malt, barley. (See Grain and grain products.) Malt extract, fluid and solid		16,566				
Malt liquors. (See Liquors, alcoholic.) Nursery stock: Plants, trees, shrubs, and vines-						
Bulbs, bulbous roots or corns, cultivated for their flowers or foliage M	216, 138	2,092,139 1,514,669	255,700	2,375,316 1,376,234	231,733	2, 180, 687 1, 505, 661
Total nursery stock		3,606,808		3,751,550		3,686,348
Nuts: Almonds— Shelled	13,307,631 5,730,774	4,040,785 638,504 2,133,416	12,208,551 4,902,713	3,100,428 499,151 1,593,517	13,667,766 2,929,155	3,700,298 272,815 1,876,966
Not shredded, desiccated,	45, 437, 155	2,395,013	90, 548, 715	3,397,657	110,077,844	4,551,427
Shredded, desiccated, or preparedpounds Cream and Brazilpounds	10,297,554 20,423,497	807, 198 1, 075, 907	5,936,212 16,172,581	432, 993 878, 272	8,490,069 14,798,912	693,765 917,613
Filberts— Shelledpounds Unshelleddo Peaputs—	1, 643, 507 10, 992, 972	261,785 834,078	1,973,192 11,717,370	275,026 949,099	1, 133, 915 9, 785, 545	230, 854 819, 508
Shelled	27,077,158 17,472,631	1,239,227 660,010	9, 643, 691 14, 540, 982	333,980 490,779	19,392,832 9,020,848	722, 939 328, 099
Shelled do	8,928,029 28,267,699	2,042,680 2,296,801 1,463,197	11, 107, 490 22, 338, 348	2,322,754 1,661,473 895,803	14,228,714 22,630,220	3, 157, 933 1, 899, 012 1, 989, 262
Total nuts		19, 888, 001		16, 830, 932		21, 160, 491
Oil cake	11, 656, 803	120,078	21, 188, 658	219,635		
Oils, vegetable: Fixed or expressed— Cocca butter or butterine,	2 828 761	703 451	150 378	42 185	400.371	129,654
Coconut oil pounds Cottonseeddo Flaxseed or linseed	2,835,701 74,386,213 17,293,201	793,451 6,703,942 1,044,834	$\begin{array}{r} 150,378\\63,135,428\\15,162,361\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 42,185\\5,430,581\\728,961\end{array}$	400,371 66,007,560 17,180,542	129,654 6,047,183 915,972
	192,282	91, 555	535,291	248,403	50,148	33,295

TABLE 191.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916—Continued.

 TABLE 191.—Agricultural imports of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916—Continued.

			Year endin	g June 30—		
Article imported.	19	14	10		1916 (prel	iminary).
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
VEGETABLE MATTER-contd.						
Oils, vegetable—Continued. Fixed or expressed—Contd. Nut oil, or oil of nuts. n.e.s						
Chinese nutgallons Peanutdo Olive for mechanical pur-	4,932,444 1,337,136	\$1,962,389 918,614	4,940, 33 0 852,905	\$1,733,264 581,150	4,968,262 1,475,123	\$1,977.823 818,283
poses	$\begin{array}{r} 763,924\\ 6,217,560\\ 58,040,202\\ 34,327,600\\ 1,464,265\\ 16,360,452\\ \end{array}$	477, 210 7, 916, 980 3, 858, 001 3, 087, 343 704, 655 830, 790 439, 009	653,064 6,710,967 31,485,661 4,905,852 1,498,642 19,206,521	$\begin{array}{r} 450,001\\ 8,225,485\\ 2,025,060\\ 446,703\\ 786,485\\ 899,819\\ 212,116\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 884,944\\ 7,224,431\\ 40,496,731\\ 6,760,928\\ 2,561,244\\ 98,119,695\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 684,896\\9,746,672\\2,885,595\\512,666\\1,426,659\\5,128,200\\502,613\end{array}$
Total fixed or expressed.		28,828,773		21,810,273		30,809,511
Volatile or essential Birch and cajeput Lemonpounds Other	385,959	(1) 858,220 2,633,789	577, 595	(1) 600,642 2,370,364	543,857	22,175 441,910 2,645,571
Total volatile or essential		3, 492, 009		2,971,006		3,109,656
Total vegetable oils		32, 320, 782		24, 781, 279		33, 919, 167
Opium, crudepounds Rice, rice meal, etc.:	455,200	1,810,429	484,027	2,445,005	146,658	879,699
Rice- Cleanedpounds	95, 503, 998	3,017,108	112, 118, 326	2,655,739	121, 023, 906	2,867,453
Uncleaned, including pad- dypounds.	54, 784, 051	1,917,658	90,241,834	2,340,968	87,671,332	2,215,273
Rice flour, rice meal, and broken ricepounds	139, 906, 868	2,538,941	74,831,312	1,307,509	55,628,767	1,010,885
Total rice, etcdo	290, 194, 917	7, 473, 707	277, 191, 472	6,304,216	264, 324, 005	6,093,611
Sago, tapioca, etc		1,641,540		1,434,219		2,226,697
Seeds: Castor beans or seeds bushels Clover	1,030,543	1,139,311	924,604	993,577	1,071,963	1,555,899
Redpounds. Otherdo Flaxseed or linseed. bushels. Grass seed, n. e. s. pounds. Sugar beetdo. Other.	6,764,218 23,343,431 8,653,235 31,937,701 10,293,898	$\begin{array}{c} 835,691\\ 2,047,941\\ 10,571,410\\ 1,634,627\\ 799,525\\ 3,055,679\end{array}$	8,749,757 15,406,954 10,666,215 34,690,259 15,882,661	1,072,468 1,162,810 13,374,536 1,384,372 1,409,973 3,657,084	33,476,401 8,363,360 14,679,233 8,790,920 9,042,490	$\begin{array}{r} 4,918,171\\822,572\\20,220,921\\698,630\\1,030,788\\4,324,716\end{array}$
Total seeds		20,084,184		23,054,820		33, 571, 697
Spices: Unground— Cassia, or cassia vera,	6,771,901	40.1 952	5 598 201	257 071	0 507 082	002 170
ginger roct, not preserved, pounds.		404,853	5,786,324	357,071	9,707,982	623,478
Pepper, black or white, pounds	3,771,086 24,173,621	171,250	3,127,722	150, 515	7,322,399	540,007
Otherpounds	2,806,823	2,427,927 309,184	30,267,384 6,438	3,086,782 387	37,777,324	4,505,380
Total unground, pounds	37, 613, 431	3,313,214	39,187,868	3,594,755	51,807,705	5, 668, 865
Groundpounds	18,961.065	2,282,295	20,902,214	2,332,604	28,072,632	3,277,757
Total spicesdo	56, 574, 499	5,595,509	60,090,082	5,927,359	82, 880, 337	8,946,622
Spirits, distilled. (See Liquors, alcoholic.) Starchpounds Straw and grasslong tons	15, 518, 434 6, 060	408,922 33,499	13,233,383	343,805	2,467.038	123, 838

	Year ending June 30—								
Article imported.	19	14	19)15	1916 (prel	limi n ary).			
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.			
VEGETABLE MATTER-contd.									
Sugar and molasses: Molassesgallons	51,410,271	\$1,744,719	70,839,623	\$1,963,505	85, 716, 673	\$3, 775, 894			
Sugar Raw Beetpounds Canedo Maple sugar and sirup,		70, 829 101, 365, 561	877,623 5,418,630,482		2,050 5,631,272,766				
pounds	2,095,983	163,047	1,473,762	125, 571	1,886,933	196,335			
Total rawpounds	5,006,028,312	101, 599, 437	5,420,981,867	173, 992, 603	5,633,161,749	208, 769, 399			
Refineddo	793, 561	49,938							
Total sugardo	5,066,821,873	101,649,375	5,420,981,867	173, 992, 603	5,633,161,749	203, 769, 399			
Total sugar and mo- lasses		103, 394, 094		175, 956, 108		212, 545, 293			
Teapounds	91,130,815	16,735,302	96, 987, 942	17, 512, 619	109,865,935	20, 599, 857			
Tea, waste, etc., for manufac- turingpounds. Teazels.	5,874,308	194,293 24,310	4,230,456						
Tebacco: Leaf- Wrapperpounds Filler and other leaf.do Stemsdo	6,092,787 54,047,430 1,034,528	7, 785, 337 27, 247, 259 5, 874	7,241,178 38,568,035	9, 267, 044 17, 893, 526	5,070,308 42,943,027	7, 246, 94 2 17, 372, 126			
Total tobaccodo	61,174,751	35,038,520	45,809,213	27,160,570	48,013,335	24,619,063			
Vanilla beansdo	893,100	2,277,675	888, 569	1,863,515	914,386	1,697,543			
Vegetables: Fresh and dried— Beansbushels Onionsdo Peas, drieddo Potatoesdo Other	1.114.811	2, 955, 663 909, 204 1, 849, 274 1, 763, 782 1, 630, 113	905, 647829, 177546, 903270, 942	$1, 4\tilde{6}1, 917657, 3741, 305, 633274, 9151, 350, 101$	659, 259 815, 872 943, 821 209, 542	1, 288, 034 749, 150 2, 868, 683 331, 814 1, 907, 879			
Total fresh and dried		9,108,036		5,049,940	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	7,145,560			
Prepared or preserved— Mushroomspounds Pickles and sauces Other	9,188,177	1,306,818 1,246,249 3,472,432	6, 195, 819		4,313,095	985, 408 515, 048 2, 165, 377			
Total prepared or pre- served		6,025,499	1	4,279,792		3,665,833			
Total vegetables					1	10,811,393			
Vinegargallons		94, 597	249,645			10,011,000			
Wafers, unmedicated Wax, vegetablepounds Wines. (See Liquors, alco- holic.)		32,797 1,049,126	5, 634, 809		9,727,312	1, 580, 530			
Total vegetable matter, including forest prod- ucts. Total vegetable matter, excluding forest prod- ucts.		720, 778, 232 565, 516, 93 2		739,850,499		957,795,624 704,971,171			
Total agricultural im- ports, including forest products		1,079,508,416		1,076,635,782		1,439,466,222			
ports, excluding forest products.		924, 247, 116		910, 786, 289		1,186,641,769			

TABLE 191.—Agricultural			the 3 years ending
0	June 30, 1916-Cor	tinued.	0

TABLE 192.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 3, 1916.

	Year ending June 30-							
Article exported.	19	14	1915		1916 (prel	imi n ary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
ANIMAL MATTER.			[1				
Animals, live: Cattlenumber Horsesdo. Mulesdo. Sheepdo. Swinedo. Others (including fowls)	$18,376 \\ 22,776 \\ 4,883 \\ 152,600 \\ 10,122$		5,484 289,340 65,788 47,213 7,799	\$702, 847 64, 046, 534 12, 726, 143 182, 278 93, 067 202, 817	$\begin{array}{r} 21,666\\ 357,553\\ 111,915\\ 52,278\\ 22,048\end{array}$	\$2, 383, 765 73, 531, 146 22, 946, 312 231, 535 238, 718 331, 337		
Total live animals		5,803,659		77,953,686		99, 662, 813		
Beeswaxpounds	96, 215	27, 292	181,328	57,971				
Dairy products: Butterdo Cheesedo	3,693,597 2,427,577	877,453 414,124	9,850,704 55,362,917	2,392,480 8,463,174	$13,503,279\\44,394,251$	3, 592, 415 7, 430, 089		
Milk— Condenseddo Other, including cream	16, 209, 082	$1,341,140 \\ 333,217$	37, 235, 627	3,066,642 343,583	155, 734, 322	12, 404, 384 835, 106		
Total dairy products, pounds		2,965,934		14, 265, 879		24, 261, 994		
Eggsdozens Egg yolks Feathers	16, 148, 849	$3,734,087 \\ 47,968 \\ 640,020$	20, 784, 424	5,003,764 88,865 281,806	26, 396, 206	6, 134, 44 1 312, 113		
Fibers, animal: Silk wastepounds Wooldo	27, 597 335, 348	8,17 8 124,127	32, 285 8, 158, 300	8,403 2,216,187				
Total animal fibers	362, 945	132, 305	8, 190, 585	2, 224, 590				
Gluepounds	2 , 351, 773	258,611 135,669	2, 874, 225	298,136 114,038	4,946,298	531,329		
Packing-house products: Beef— Cannedpounds Cured or pickleddo Freshdodo Oils—oleo oildo Oleomargarinedo Tallowdodo	$\begin{array}{c} 3,464,733\\ 23,265,074\\ 6,394,404\\ 97,017,065\\ 2,532,821\\ 15,812,831 \end{array}$	461, 901 2, 289, 516 788, 793 10, 156, 665 26; 453 1, 002, 011	75, 243, 261 31, 874, 743 170, 440, 934 80, 481, 946 5, 252, 183 20, 239, 988	$11,973,530 \\3,382,670 \\21,731,633 \\9,341,188 \\617,035 \\1,386,445$	50, 416, 690 38, 000, 682 231, 215, 075 102, 645, 914 5, 426, 221 16, 288, 743	9, 353 , 450 4, 034 , 195 28, 856 , 115 12, 519 , 115 640, $4501, 326, 472$		
Total beefdo			383, 533, 055	48, 432, 501	444,053,325			
Bones, and manufactures of. Grease, grease scraps, and all soap stock—		47,651		34, 796		•••••		
all soap stock— Lubricating. Soap stock. Hair.		2, 394, 918 5, 046, 959 1, 085, 038		2,384,395 4,266,097 1,402,189		3, 994, 436 3, 156, 568 2, 038, 838		
Hides and skins, other than furs— Calfskinspounds Cattle hidesdo Horsedo Otherdo	$\begin{array}{r} 323,417\\12,524,901\\5,742,855\\1,275,962\end{array}$	69,515 1,933,705 610,456 193,577	1,074,529 21,135,730 605,054 2,117,867	248,5474,013,17267,798356,207	1,574,3693,284,190266,7431,996,717	469, 637 2, 938, 925 34, 481 432, 208		
Totaldo	19, 867, 135	2, 807, 253	24,933,180	4,685,724	7, 122, 019			
Hoofs, horns, and horn tips, strips, and waste Lard compoundspounds Meat, canned, n. e. s. Muttonpounds. Oils, animal, n. e. s.gallons	58, 303, 564 4, 685, 496 891, 035	61, 180 5, 489, 139 1, 350, 218 523, 023 609, 294	69, 980, 614 3, 877, 413 559, 197	16, 182 6, 045, 752 2, 192, 464 448, 221 405, 635	52, 843, 311 5, 552, 918 655, 587	37, 55 8 5, 147, 434 2, 855, 005 696, 882 492, 964		
Pork- Cannedpounds	3,074,303	492, 822	4,644,418	745, 928	9,610,732	1, 815, 586		

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	Year ending June 30—							
Article exported.	19	14	19	1915		i m inary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
ANIMAL MATTER—continued. Packing-house products—Con, Pork—Continued. Cured—								
Bacon pounds., Hams and shoulders,	193,964,252	\$25, 879, 056	346, 718, 227	\$47, 326, 129	579, 808, 786	\$78,615,61		
pounds	165, 881, 791	23,767,447	203, 701, 114	29, 049, 931	282, 208, 611	40, 803, 02		
pounds	45, 543, 085	4,896,574	45,655,574	4,911,307	63,460,713	6,752,35		
Total cured. pounds.	405, 389, 128	54, 543, 077	596, 074 , 91 5	81, 287, 367	925, 478, 110	126, 170, 99		
Freshdo Larddo Lard, neutraldo Oils—lard oilgullons	2,668,020 481,457,792 29,323,786 111,199	$\begin{array}{r} 359,181\\ 54,402,911\\ 3,270,236\\ 87,364\end{array}$	3,908,193 475,531,908 26,021,054 184,019	$\begin{array}{r} 473,801\\52,440,133\\3,022,321\\111,637\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 63,005,524\\ 427,011,338\\ 34,426,590\\ 419,969\end{array}$	7,523,40347,634,3774,050,39 $308,643$		
Total pork		113,155,591		138,081,187		187, 503, 40		
Sausage and sausage meats— Cannedpounds. Otherdo. Sausage casingsdo. Stearindo. All other.	1,446,582 4,562,983 30,092,206 2,724,181	202,120 755,794 4,077,882 234,121 1,685,351	1,821,958 5,183,525 30,818,551 11,457,907	$\begin{array}{r} 307,726\\ 845,661\\ 4,859,815\\ 1,083,665\\ 2,412,842 \end{array}$	6, 823, 085 8, 590, 236 14, 708, 893 13, 062, 247	1,269,860 1,732,23 2,867,68 1,461,66 5,268,86		
Total packing-house products		154, 487, 871		217, 904, 852		279,138,46		
Poultry and game Silk waste. (See Fibers, ani- mal.) Wool. (See Fibers, animal.)		913,632		1, 187, 771		1,561,39		
Total animal matter		169, 147, 048		319,381,358		411,602,55		
VEGETABLE MATTER.			` <u></u>					
Breadstuffs. (See Grain and grain products.) Broom cornlong tons Cocca, ground or prepared, and chocolate	2,959	327, 426 336, 940	3,764	368,051 1,934,166	3,698	454, 74 1, 668, 65		
Coffee: Green or rawpounds Roasted or prepareddo	52,649,233 1,815,835	8,550,642 427,009	49,177,146 2,421,664	6,841,575 461,030	35,421,530 1,851,100	5, 369, 75 378, 26		
Total coffeedo		8,977,651	51, 598, 810	7,302,605	37, 272, 630	5,748,02		
Cotton:								
Sea island	19,1867,420,4559,146,1144,753,520,083	} 1,619,847 {608,\55,454	$\begin{smallmatrix} & 6,158 \\ 2,437,602 \\ 8.201,189 \\ 4,288,295,926 \end{smallmatrix}$	} 484,465 }372,068,490	$\begin{vmatrix} 4,247 \\ 1,731,796 \\ 5,698,960 \\ 2,956,810,277 \end{vmatrix}$	} 483,18 }364,710,37		
Linters	10 (1)	(1)	218,950 112,844,971	3,665 017	252,627 125,528,052	8,992,68		
Total cottondo		610, 475, 301		376,217,972	3,084,070,125	374, 186, 24		
Flavering extracts and fruit juices. Flowers, cut. Forest products:		106, 892 121, 287		136,742 56,698				
Bark, and extract of, for tan- ning- Barklong tons Bark, extracts of	1,212	26,939 639,941	825	21,424 2,226,457		5,902,79		
Total bark, etc		666,880		2,247,881		5,902,79		
Charcoal. Moss.		81,997 51,006		$\frac{105,009}{36,738}$				

TABLE 192.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916—Continued.

 TABLE 192.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916—Continued.

	Year ending June 30—								
Article exported.	19	914	1	1915		1916 (preliminary).			
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.			
VEGETABLE MATTER—contd. Forest products—Continued. Naval stores—									
Rosinbarrels.	2,417,950	\$11, 217, 316	1,372,316	\$6,220,321	1,571,279	\$8,874,313			
Tar, turpentine, and pitchbarrels	351,353	568,891	239,661	430, 612	67,616	291,939			
Turpentine, spirits of, gallons	18,900,704	8,095,958	9, 464, 120	4,476,306	9,309,968	4,337,358			
Total naval stores		19,882,165		11, 127, 239		13, 503, 607			
Wood Logs HickoryMfeet Oakdo Walnutdo Otherdo	8,425 1,872 6,951 120,819	297,613 63,850 382,059 2,512,501	2,020 226 1,090 41,175	73,786 10,563 78,338 720,836	2,302 2,019 1,114 38,921	75,888 53,668 88,965 755,527			
Totaldo	138,067	3.256,023	44,511	883,523	44,356	974,048			
Lumber— Boards, deals, and planks— Cyprus	14,098 680,380 70,714 231,308	420,982 8,709,140 2,164,017 10,644,310	10,078 368,886 24,588 97,397	319,065 4,251,620 715,756 4,870,864	10, 521 268, 455 32, 155 98, 990	366,510 2,964,948 969,338 4,665,527			
Pine- Whitedo	43, 878	1,606,864	18,398	662,786	34,206	1,139,537			
Yellow- Pitch pinedo	911,223	19,521,719	403,254	7,565,272	504,952	9,150,115			
Short-leaf pine, M feet	22,453	634,103	5,261	160,219	2,185	79,147			
Other pine, Miet. Poplar. Mieet. Redwooddo Sprucedo Otherdo	127,289 30,860 67,155 18,105 187,833	3,001,399 1,448,622 1,917,315 557,838 6,948,239	49,716 19,891 36,419 15,610 79,707	1,123,212962,2481,102,532462,0872,925,984	47,236 23,356 38,739 37,332 78,638	$1, 156, 090 \\1, 044, 883 \\1, 169, 975 \\1, 611, 892 \\3, 594, 338$			
Totaldo	2,405,296	57, 574, 548	1,129,205	25, 121, 645	1,176,765	27,912,300			
Joists and scantling, M feet Railroad tiesnumber ShinglesM	12,143 5,123,004 46,964	$206,919 \\ 2,564,543 \\ 112,463$	6,007 3,874,298 11,291	$103,456 \\ 2,036,200 \\ 30,578$	4,086,721 20,590	2,435,094 55,604			
Shooks- Boxnumber Otherdo	11,149,532 867,805	1,270,477 1,542,272	11,682,495 620,043	1,303,127 1,024,093	583,724	1,908,643 1,024,348			
Total shooksdo	12,017,337	2,812,749	12,302,538	2,327,220		2,932,991			
Staves and heading— Heading Stavesnumber	77, 150, 535	332,662 5,852,230	39, 297,268	258,670 2,481,592	57,820,610	288,587 3,533,181			
Total staves and heading		6, 184, 892		2,740,262		3,821,768			
Other		3,028,642		1,650,760		3, 497, 217			
Total lumber		72, 484, 756		34,010,121		40,654,974			
Timber- Hewn	29,859	788, 327	6,118	163,106	9,628	252,576			
Sawed— Pitch pinedo Otherdo	390,149 21,158	7,821,364 562,720	$159,064 \\ 8,607$	2,785,379 229,491	175,763 15,814	3,473,686 340,345			
Total timberdo	441, 166	9, 172, 411	173,789	3, 177, 976	201,205	4,066,607			
All other, including fire- wood		201,089		156,234		164,532			
Total wood		85, 114, 279		38, 227, 854		45,860,161			

	Year ending June 30							
Article exported.	19	014	1915		1916 (prel	imi n ary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
VEGETABLE MATTER-contd.								
Forest products—Continued. Wood alcoholgallons Wood pulppounds	1,598,776 26,961,254	\$652,486 529,741	944,374 18,838,400	\$438, 846 369, 969	1,472,258 135,994	\$857,161 1,703,374		
Total forest products		106,978,554		52, 553, 536		67,827,102		
Fruits: Fresh or dried— Apples, driedpounds Apples, freshbarrels Apricots, driedpounds. Berries Lemonsboxes. Orangesdo Peaches, driedpounds Pears, freshpounds Raisinsdo Other	33,566,160 1,506,569 17,401,692 70,075 1,558,921 6,712,296 69,813,711 14,766,416	$\begin{array}{c} 2,628,445\\ 6,089,701\\ 1,937,771\\ 717,079\\ 308,707\\ 3,824,889\\ 4.49,549\\ 1,402,924\\ 4,662,546\\ 997,575\\ 2,922,740 \end{array}$	42,589,169 2,351,501 23,764,342 1,22,914 1,759,405 14,464,655 43,478,892 24,845,414	3,270,658 8,087,466 2,241,061 535,479 372,781 3,851,013 834,813 992,497 3,774,197 1,718,547 2,717,449	16,219,174 1,466,321 23,939,790 1,575,042 13,739,342 57,422,827 75,014,753	$\begin{array}{c} 1, 304, 224\\ 5, 516, 772\\ 2, 168, 800\\ 639, 501\\ 494, 011\\ 3, 690, 083\\ 899, 583\\ 691, 733\\ 3, 975, 390\\ 5, 407, 211\\ 5, 261, 105\end{array}$		
Total fresh or dried		25,941,926		27,895,961		28,044,447		
Preserved— Canned Other		4,863,946		6,064,765 269,180		7,050,036		
Total preserved		5,088,787		6,333,945		8,028,60		
Total fruits		31,030,713		34,229,906		36,073,051		
Ginsengpounds	224,605	1,832,686	103, 184	919,931	256,082	1,597,508		
Glucose and grape sugar: Glucosepounds Grape sugardo	162,680,378 36,850,496	3,766,284 799,635	125, 434, 878 33, 027, 630	3,103,561 781,672	148,523,098 37,863,084	3,772,860 962,101		
Grain and grain products: Grain — Barleybushels. Buckwheatdo Corndo Oatsdo Ryedo Wheatdo	6,644,747 580 9,380,855	4, 253, 129 695 7,008,023 757,527 1,555,012 87,953,456	26,754,522 413,643 48,786,291	18, 184, 079 396, 987 39, 339, 064 5 7, 469, 964 14, 733, 409 333, 552, 226	27, 473, 160 515, 304 38, 217, 012 95, 921, 620 14, 532, 437 173, 274, 015	20,663,533 481,014 30,780,883 47,993,096 15,374,499 215,532,681		
Total graindo	112,502,840	101, 527, 847	444,951,428	463,675,729	349, 933, 548	330, 825, 710		
Grain products— Bran and middlings, long tons	2,570	71,043	11, 426	329, 425	14,613	432,288		
Breadstuff preparations— Bread and biscuit, pounds Other	12,645,551	728,447 2,323,412	11,687,452	702,509 4,306,899	11, 433, 410	787,567 5,074,983		
Total breadstuff prep- arations.		3,051,859		5,009,408		5,862,550		
Distillers' and brewers' grains and malt sprouts, long tons	59,788 330,608	1,467,028 270,059	7,590 2,153,060	177,987 2,301,535	1,633	47, 448		
Meal and flour— Corn mealbarrels. Oatmealbarrels Rys flourbarrels Wheat flourdo	15,998,286 8,293	1, 185, 891 569, 204 31, 119 54, 454, 175	470, 503 68, 391, 979 80, 315 16, 182, 765	1,923,2142,416,068416,18294,869,343	419,979 54,748,747 119,619 15,520,669	1,601,258 1,885,622 646,941 87,347,803		
Total meal and flour		56,240,389		99, 624, 807		91, 481, 620		

TABLE 192.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916—Continued.

1 Long tons (2,240 pounds).

	Year ending Juno 30-							
Article exported.	1914		19	915	1916 (prel	iminary).		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
VEGETABLE MATTER-contd.								
Grain and grain products— Continued. Grain products—Continued. Mill feedlong tons All other.	67,690	\$1,840,011 346,888	25, 459	\$787,048 1,045,396	25,652	\$801,054 1,293,091		
Total grain products		63, 287, 277		109, 275, 606		99, 918, 057		
Total grain and grain products		164, 815, 124		572, 951, 335		430,743,767		
Haylong tons Hopspounds	50, 151 24, 262, 896	827,205 6,953,529	105,508 16,210,443	1,980,297 3,948,020	178,336 22,409,818	3,267,028 4,383,929		
Lard compounds. (See Meat and meat products.) Liquors, alcoholic: Distilled spirits- Alcohol, including cologne spiritsproof gallons Rumdo	187, 845 1, 388, 738	67,728 1,815,121	200,455 1,240,804	108,985 1,588,552	24, 433, 243 1, 586, 900	8,784,742 1,887,307		
Whisky-	47,775	92,331	34,823	69,497				
Bourbondo Ryedo	134, 152	259, 523	86, 564	168, 386	88,802 124,700	113,863 208,879		
Total-whiskydo	181,927	351,854	121,387	237,883	213, 502	322,742		
Otherdo	25,408	41, 129	30,152	46, 599	50, 259	67,595		
Total distilled spirits, proof gallons	1,783,918	2,275,832	1,592,798	1,982,019	26, 283, 904	11,062,386		
Malt liquors— Bottleddozen quarts Unbottledgallons	962, 627 326, 946	1,405,581 79,595	696, 690 245, 494	1,010,222 71,890	668,228 340,064	961,582 103,045		
Total malt liquors		1, 485, 176		1,082,112		1,064,627		
Winesgallons	941,357	373,412	819,310	332, 369	1,133,274	450, 598		
Total alcoholic liquors		4, 134, 420		3,396,500		12, 577, 611		
Malt. (See Grain and grain products.) Malt liquors. (See Liquors, alcoholic.) Malt sprouts. (See Grain and grain products.) Nursery stock.		315,065		170, 218		203, 671		
Nuts: Peanutspounds Other	8,054,817	421,367 398,312	5,875,076	325,725 377,486	8,669,430	450, 765 441, 512		
Total nuts		819,679		703,211		892,277		
Oil cake and oil-cake meal: Cornpounds Cottonseed:	59, 030, 623	909,407	45,026,125	798,206	18,996,490	297,011		
Cakedo} Mealdo} Flaxseed or linseeddo Otherdo	799, 974, 252 662, 868, 639 8, 484, 936	11,007,441 9,650,379 100,445	1,222,699,889 256,365,126 524,794,434 9,900,878	$\begin{array}{r} 15,432,126\\ 3,474,244\\ 9,048,061\\ 126,414 \end{array}$	980, 664, 572 77, 256, 997 640, 916, 204 28, 876, 367	14, 749, 489 1, 149, 478 11, 935, 130 410, 166		
Totaldo	1,530,358,450	21,667,672	2,058,786,452	28,879,051	1,746,710,630	28, 541, 304		
Oils, vegetable: Fixed or expressed— Cornpounds Cottonseed	18, 281, 576 192, 963, 079 239, 188	1,307,204 13,843,179 134,540 338,956	17,789,635 318,366,525 1,212,133	1,302,159 21,872,948 660,089 1,198,852	8,967,826 266,529,960 714,120	770, 076 22, 659, 804 479, 231 2, 230, 002		
Total fixed or expressed.		15,623,879		25,034,048		26, 139, 113		

TABLE 192.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916—Continued.

	Year ending June 30							
Article exported.	1914		19	15	1916 (preliminary.			
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
VEGETABLE MATTER-contd.								
Oils, vegetable—Continued. Volatile, or essential— Peppermintpounds Other	117,809	\$397,050 230,557	184,981	\$384,593 413,104	154,096	\$323,070 705,037		
Total volatile, or essential		627,607		797,697		1,028,107		
Total vegetable oils		16,251,486		25,831,745		27, 167, 220		
Rice, rice meal, etc.: Ricepounds Rice bran, meal, and polish, pounds	18,223,264 4,191,062	721,046 36,274 126,888	75,448,635 2,031,430	3, 158, 335 15, 541	120, 695, 213 1, 273, 921	4, 942, 373 10, 489		
Rice hulls		126, 888		5,122				
Total		\$84,208		3,178,998		4,952,86		
Roots, herbs, and barks, n. e. s.		513,071		470,090		768,97		
Seeds: Cotton seedpounds Flaxseed, or linseed,	16,342,384 305,546	215,115 436,874	6,314,439 4,145	94,237 9,748	2,475,907 2,614	37,81 6,50		
bushels. Grass and clover seed— Cloverpounds Timothydo Otherdo	4,640,852 12,480,294 5,156,801	691, 437 688, 118 600, 368	9,750,06417,333,1444,342,926	$\begin{array}{r} 3,140\\ 1,563,304\\ 1,153,066\\ 451,595\end{array}$	7, 116, 220 13, 610, 257 3, 613, 026	1,294,94 1,038,30 401,92		
Total grass and clover seedpounds	22, 277, 947	1,979,923	31, 426, 134	3, 167, 965	24, 339, 503	2,735,17		
All other seeds		558,833		589, 114		759,02		
Total seeds		3, 190, 745		3,861,064		3, 538, 50		
spices. spirits, distilled. (See Liq-		84,427		76,297				
uors, alcoholic.) Starchpounds Stearin, vegetable Strawlong tons	76,713,779 288	1,825,230 4,714	107, 036, 638 260	2,939,453 144,850 4,911	210, 185, 192	5, 576, 91		
Sugar, molasses, and sirup: Molassesgallons Sirupdo Sugar—	1,002,441 11,630,528	175,498 1,491,639	1, 148, 741 11, 439, 133	145,274 1,653,495	4,387,369 10,031,693	524,80 2,107,00		
Refinedpounds Total sugar, molasses, and sirup	50,895,726	1,839,983 3,507,120	549,007,411	25,615,016	1,630,150,863	79, 390, 1 82, 022, 0		
Pobacco: Leafpounds Stems and trimmings.do	446,944,435 2,805,547	53,903,336 60,334	347,997,276 348,815	44, 479, 890 13, 939	434,742,9376,826,644	52,813,2 350,3		
Totaldo	449,749,982	53,963,670	348, 346, 091	44, 493, 829	441, 569, 581	53, 163, 5		
Vegetables: Fresh or dried— Beans and peasbushels Onionsdo Potatoesdo	314,655 386,322 1,794,073	$875,493 \\ 435,953 \\ 1,463,514$	$1,214,281 \\727,983 \\3,135,474$	3, 638, 526 602, 585 2, 345, 731	$1,760,383 \\ 563,739 \\ 4,017,760$	5,914,1 578,7 3,485,7		
Total fresh or dried, bushels	2,495,050	2,774,960	5,077,738	6,586,842	6,341,882	9,978,7		
Prepared or preserved— Canned. Pickles and sauces. Other.		1,520,879 928,611 1,711,950		$1,898,840 \\959,016 \\1,368,453$		2,529,6 1,166,8 2,277,1		
Watel propaged or pro-								

4, 161, 440

6,936,400

.

5,973,682

15,952,412

4,226,309

10, 813, 151

TABLE	192.—Agricultural	exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years end-
	_	ing June 30, 1916—Continued.

720

Other..... Total prepared or proserved......

Total vegetables.....

 TABLE 192.—Agricultural exports (domestic) of the United States during the 3 years ending June 30, 1916—Continued.

Year ending June 30—						
1	914 .	1	915 ,	1916 (preliminary).		
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
125,666	\$25,112	106,708	\$17,731			
	332, 895		230,409			
	1,051,805,141		1,209,109,785		\$1,166,042,447	
	944, 826, 587		1,156,556,249		1,098,215,345	
					1,577,645,002 1,509,817,900	
	Quantity. 125,666	Quantity. Value. 125,666 \$25,112	1914 1 Quantity. Value. Quantity. 125,666 \$25,112 106,708	1914 1915 Quantity. Value. Quantity. Value. 125,666 \$25,112 106,708 \$17,731	1914 1915 1916 (production (productity (production (productity (production (productity (produ	

TABLE 193.—Foreign trade of the United States in agricultural products, 1852-1916. [Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. All values are gold.]

	Agri	cultural ex	ports. 1	Agricultural	imports. 1	
Year ending June 30—	Domes	stic.				Excess of agricultural
	Total.	Percent- age of all domestic exports.	Foreign.	Total.	Percent- age of all imports.	exports (+) or of imports (-).
Average:	-					
1852-1856	\$164, 895, 146	80. 9	\$8,059,875	\$77, 847, 158	29.1	1 805 105 000
1857-1861	215, 708, 845	81.1	10,173,833	121, 018, 143	38.2	+ \$ 95, 107, 863
1862-1866	148,865,540	75.7	9,287,669	122, 221, 547	43.0	+104,864,535
1867-1871	250 713 058	76.9	8, 538, 101	179, 774, 000	43.0	+35,931,662
1872-1876	396,666,397	78.5	8,853,247	263, 155, 573	46.5	+79,477,159
1877-1881	591, 350, 518	80.4	8,631,780	266, 383, 702	50.4	+142, 364, 071 +333, 598, 596
1882-1886	557, 472, 922	76.3	9, 340, 463	311, 707, 564	46.8	+255,105,821
1887-1891	573, 286, 616	74.7	6,982,328	366, 950, 109	43.3	+203, 103, 821 +213, 318, 835
1892-1896	638 748 318	73.0	8,446,491	398, 332, 043	51.6	+248,862,766
1897-1901	827 566 147	65.9	10,961,539	376, 549, 697	50.2	+461,977.989
1902-1906	879.541 947	59.5	11, 922, 292	487,881,038	46.3	
1907-1911	975, 398, 554	53.9	12, 126, 228	634 , 570, 734	40.3	+403, 582, 501 +352, 954, 048
1901	951,628,331	65.2	11,293,045	391, 931, 051	47.6	+570, 990, 325
1902	857.113.533	63.2	10, 308, 306	413,744,557	45.8	+453,677,282
1903	879 100 557	63.1	13, 505, 343	456, 199, 325	44.5	
1904	\$59 160 264	59.9	12,625,026	461, 434, 851	46.6	+435,786,575
1905	826, 904, 777	55.4	12, 316, 525	553,851,214	40.0	+410,350,439 +285,370,088
1906	976, 047, 104	56.8	10,856,259	554, 175, 242	45.2	+432,728,121
1907	1 054 405 416	56.9	11,613,519	626, 836, 808	43.7	+439, 182, 127
1908	1 017 396 404	55.5	10,298,514	539, 690, 121	45.2	+488,004,797
		55.1	9,584,934	638, 612, 692	48.7	+274,210,364
1910	871, 158, 425	50.9	14, 469, 627	687, 509, 115	44.2	+198, 118, 937
1911	1,030,794,402	51.2	14,664,548	680, 204, 932	44.5	+365, 254, 018
1912	1,050,627,131	48.4	12, 107, 656	783, 457, 471	47.4	+279,277,316
1913	1, 123, 651, 985	46.3	15,029,444	815, 300, 510	45.0	+323,380,919
		47.8	17,729,462	924, 247, 116	48.8	+207,456,481
1915	1,475,937,607	54.3	34, 420, 077	910, 786, 289	54.4	+599,571,395
1915. 1916.	1,509,817,900	35.3		1, 186, 641, 769	54.0	+364,823,633
			,, 002	a, aou, 011, 105	54.0	T001, 000, 100

1 Not including forest products.

TABLE 194.—Value of principal groups of farm and forest products exported from and imported into the United States, 1914–1916.

[Compiled from reports on the Foreign Commerce of the United States.]

	Exports (d	omestic merch	andise).		Imports.	
Article.			Year ending	June 30—		
•	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).
FARM PRODUCTS.						
ANIMAL MATTER.						
Animals, live Dairy products Eggs Feathers and downs,	\$5,803,659 2,965,934 3,734,087	\$77,953,686 14,265,879 5,003,764	\$99,662,813 24,261,994 6,134,441	\$24,712,111 15,403,143 1,089,164	\$22, 27 9 , 081 14, 704, 277 438, 760	\$18,649,079 9,828,919 110,638
crude	640,020	281,806	312, 113	4,871,663	2,502,623	2,721,151
Fibers, animal: Silk. Wool. Packing-house prod-	$^{8,178}_{124,127}$	$^{8,403}_{2,216,187}$		$\substack{100,930,025\\53,190,267}$	83, 130, 557 68, 242, 568	124,333,655 142,420,734
ucts. Other animal matter	154, 4 87, 871 1, 383, 172	$217,904,852\\1,746,781$	$279, 138, 467 \\ 2, 092, 727$	$\substack{154,969,389\\3,563,922}$	$142,484,247 \\ 3,003,170$	182, 887, 880 718, 542
Totalanimal matter.	169, 147, 048	319, 381, 358	411,602,555	358,729,684	336,785,283	481, 670, 598
VEGETABLE MATTER.						
Argols or wine lees Cocoa and chocolate Coffee. Cotton Fibers, vegetable,	$336,940 \\ 8,977,651 \\ 610,475,301$	$1,934,166 \\7,302,605 \\376,217,972$	$1,668,657 \\5,748,021 \\374,186,247$	3,228,674 21,503,983 110,725,392 19,456,588	3,094,380 23,478,156 106,765,644 23,208,960	5,306,246 35,804,242 115,485,970 40,150,342
other Fruits Ginseng Glucose and grape su-	31,030,713 1,832,686	34,229,906 919,931	36,073,051 1,597,508	54,349,995 33,638,334	40, 420, 017 27, 081, 399	59,460,062 23,285,816
gar. Grain and grain prod-	4,565,919	3,885,233	4,734,961			
ucts. Hay. Hops. Indigo.	$\begin{array}{r} 164,815,124\\ 827,205\\ 6,953,529 \end{array}$	572,951,335 1,980,297 3,948,020	430,743,767 3,267,028 4,383,929	$\begin{array}{c} 27,442,277\\ 1,634,390\\ 2,790,516\\ 1,093,226\\ 2,047,192\\ \end{array}$	12,518,356 228,906 2,778,735 1,596,978 1,252,989	$15,637,360 \\ 679,412 \\ 144,627 \\ 8,235,670 \\ 1,609,571 \\ 1,600,571 \\ 1,600,570 \\ 1,600,571 \\ 1,600,570 \\ 1,600,5$
Licorice root	4,134,420	3, 396, 500	12,577,611	20, 347, 546	13, 404, 903	16,685,356
Nursery stock (plants, trees, etc.) Nuts Oil cake and oil cake	315,065 819,679	170,218 703,211	203,671 892,277	3,606,808 19,888,601	3,751,550 16,830,932	3,686,348 21,160,491
meal. Oil, vegetable Opium, crude	21,667,672 16,251,486	28,879,051 25,831,745	28,541,304 27,167,220	120,078 32,320,782 1,810,429	219,635 24,781,279 2,445,005	33, 919, 167 879, 699
Rice, rice flour, meal, and broken rice Sago, tapioca, etc	884,208	3,178,998	4,952,862	7,473,707 1,641,540	6,304,216 1,434,219	6,093,611 2,226,697
Seeds. Spices. Starch	3,190,745 84,427 1,825,230	3, 861, 064 76, 297 2, 939, 453	3,538,508 5,576,914	20,084,184 5,595,509 408,922	23,054,820 5,927,359 343,805	33, 571, 697 8, 946, 622 123, 838
Sugar, molasses, and sirup. Tea. Tobacco. Vanilla beans. Vegetables.	3,507,120 53,963,670 6,936,400	27, 413, 785 44, 493, 829 10, 813, 151	\$2,022,076 53,163,595 15,952,412	$\begin{array}{c} 103, 394, 094\\ 16, 735, 302\\ 35, 038, 520\\ 2, 277, 675\\ 15, 133, 535\\ 1, 049, 126 \end{array}$	$175,956,108\\17,512,619\\27,160,570\\1,863,515\\9,329,732\\1,012,402$	$212,545,293 \\ 20,599,857 \\ 24,619,068 \\ 1,697,543 \\ 10,811,393 \\ 1,580,530 \\ \end{array}$
Wax, vegetable Other vegetable mat-				1,049,126	1,012,402	1, 580, 530
ter	1,431,397	1,429,482	1, 223, 726	680,007	243, 817	24,643
Total vegetable mat- ter	944, 826, 587	1,156,556,249	1,098,215,345	565, 516, 932	574,001,006	704, 971, 171
Total farm products.	1, 113, 973, 635	1, 475, 937, 607	1,409,817,900	924, 246, 616	910, 786, 289	1,186,641,769
FOREST PRODUCTS. Cork wood or cork bark				3, 851, 794	2,762,895	3, 134, 884
tracts of. India rubber Gums, other than in-				793,926 71,219,851	1,142,031 83,030,269	4,289,247 155,044,790
dia rubber Naval stores	19,882,165	11, 127, 239	13, 503, 607	15,620,780 36,764	15, 210, 150 5, 102	18, 367, 940

	Exports (Exports (domestic merchandise). Imports.							
Article.	Year ending June 30-								
	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).			
FARM PRODUCTS-Continued.									
FOREST PRODUCTS- continued.									
Tanning materials, n. e.s. Wood:	\$666,880	\$2,247,881	\$5,902,799	\$4,368,041	\$5,343,263	\$8, 837, 297			
Cabinet, unsawed Lumber Pulp wood	72, 484, 756	34,010,121	40,654,974	7,124,688 22,436,585 7,245,466	$\begin{array}{r} 4,271,775\\23,507,591\\6,572,839\end{array}$	4,011,107 29,624,279 6,373,749			
Timber and logs Rattan and reeds Wood pulp	12,428,434 529,741	4,061,499 369,969	5,040,655	1,657,603 1,210,390	1,263,641 771,628	1,417,859			
Other forest products	986, 578	736,827	1,703,374 1,021,693	17,023,338 2,672,072	19,881,111 2,087,198	16,867,850 3,134,635			
Total forest products	106,978,554	52, 553, 536	67, 827, 102	155, 261, 300	165,849,493	252, 824, 453			
Total farm and for- est products	1,220,952,189	1, 528, 491, 143	1,577,645,002	1,079,507,916	1,076,635,782	1,439,466,222			

 TABLE 194.—Value of principal groups of farm and forest products exported from and imported into the United States, 1914-1916—Continued.

TABLE 195.—Exports of selected domestic agricultural products, 1852–1916.

(Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. Where figures are lacking, either there were no exports or they were not separately classified for publication. "Beef salted or pickled," and "Pork, salted or pickled," barrels, 1851-1865, were reduced to pounds at the rate of 200 pounds per barrel, and tierces, 1855-1865, a the rate of 300 pounds per tierce; cottonseed oil, 1910, pounds reduced to gallons at the rate of 7.5 pounds per gallon. It is assumed that I barrel of corn meal is the product of 4 bushels of corn, and 1 barrel of wheat flour the product of 5 bushels of wheat prior to 1880 and of 42 bushels of wheat in 1880 and subsequently.]

				Pac	king-house pro	ducts.	
Year ending June 30—	Cattle.	Cheese.	Beef, cured— salted or pickled.	Beef, fresh.	Beef oils— oleo oil.	Beef tallow.	Beef and its products— total, as far as ascertain- able. ¹
Average: 1852–1856 . 1857–1861 . 1862–1866 . 1867–1871 . 1872–1876 . 1877–1881 .	Number. 1,431 20,294 6,531 45,672 127,045	Pounds. 6, 200, 385 13, 906, 430 42, 683, 073 52, 880, 978 87, 173, 752 129, 670, 479	Pounds. 25, 980, 520 26, 985, 880 27, 662, 720 26, 954, 656 35, 826, 646 40, 174, 643		Pounds.	Pounds. 7,468,910 13,214,614 43,202,724 27,577,269 78,994,360 96,822,695	$\begin{array}{c} Pounds.\\ 33,449,430\\ 40,200,494\\ 70,865,444\\ 54,531,925\\ 114,821,006\\ 218,709,987\end{array}$
1882–1886 . 1887–1891 . 1892–1896 . 1897–1901 . 1902–1906 . 1907–1911 .	$\begin{array}{r} 131,605\\ 244,394\\ 349,032\\ 415,488\\ 508,103\\ 253,867\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 108,790,010\\ 86,354,842\\ 66,905,798\\ 46,108,704\\ 19,244,482\\ 9,152,083 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 47,401,470\\ 65,613,851\\ 64,898,780\\ 52,242,288\\ 59,208,292\\ 46,187,175\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 97,327,819\\ 136,447,554\\ 207,372,575\\ 305,626,184\\ 272,148,180\\ 144,799,735\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 30,276,133\\ 50,482,249\\ 102,038,519\\ 139,373,402\\ 156,925,317\\ 170,530,432 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 48,745,416\\ 91,608,126\\ 56,976,840\\ 86,082,497\\ 59,892,601\\ 66,356,232\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 225, 625, 631\\ 411, 797, 859\\ 507, 177, 430\\ 637, 268, 235\\ 622, 843, 230\\ 448, 024, 017 \end{array}$
1901. 1902. 1903. 1904. 1905.	$\begin{array}{r} 459,218\\392,884\\402,178\\593,409\\567,806\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 39,813,517\\ 27,203,184\\ 18,987,178\\ 23,335,172\\ 10,134,424 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 55,312,632\\ 48,632,727\\ 52,801,220\\ 57,584,710\\ 55,934,705 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 351,748,333\\ 301,824,473\\ 254,795,963\\ 299,579,671\\ 236,486,568 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 161, 651, 413\\ 138, 546, 088\\ 126, 010, 339\\ 165, 183, 839\\ 145, 228, 245 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 77,166,889\\ 34,065,758\\ 27,368,924\\ 76,924,174\\ 63,536,992 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 705, 104, 772\\ 596, 254, 520\\ 546, 055, 244\\ 663, 147, 095\\ 575, 874, 718 \end{array}$
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	584, 239 423, 051 349, 210 207, 542 139, 430	$16, 562, 451 \\ 17, 285, 230 \\ 8, 439, 031 \\ 6, 822, 842 \\ 2, 846, 709$	$\begin{array}{c} 81,088,098\\ 62,645,281\\ 46,958,367\\ 44,494,210\\ 36,554,266\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 268,054,227\\ 281,651,502\\ 201,154,105\\ 122,952,671\\ 75,729,666 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 209,658,075\\195,337,176\\212,541,157\\179,985,246\\126,091,675\end{array}$	97, 567, 156 127, 857, 739 91, 397, 507 53, 332, 767 29, 379, 992	$\begin{array}{c} 732, 884, 572\\ 689, 752, 420\\ 579, 303, 478\\ 418, 844, 332\\ 286, 295, 874 \end{array}$
1911. 1912. 1913. 1914. 1915. 1916.	$150, 100 \\ 105, 506 \\ 24, 714 \\ 18, 376 \\ 5, 484 \\ 21, 666$	$\begin{array}{c} 10,366,605\\ 6,337,559\\ 2,599,058\\ 2,427,577\\ 55,362,917\\ 44,394,251\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 40,283,749\\ 38,087,907\\ 25,856,919\\ 23,265,974\\ 31,874,743\\ 38,060,682 \end{array}$	42, 510, 731 15, 264, 320 7, 362, 388 6, 394, 404 170, 440, 934 231, 215, 075	$\begin{array}{c} 138,696,906\\ 126,467,124\\ 92,849,757\\ 97,017,065\\ 80,481,946\\ 102,645,914 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 29,813,154\\ 39,451,419\\ 30,586,350\\ 15,812,831\\ 20,239,988\\ 16,288,743 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 265,923,983\\ 233,924,626\\ 166,463,344\\ 148,487,828\\ 383,533,055\\ 444,053,325 \end{array}$

¹ Includes canned, cured, and fresh beef, oleo oil, oleomargarine, and tallow.

		Packi	ing-house pro	oducts.				
Year ending June 30—	Pork, cured— bacon.	Pork, cured— hams and shoulders.	Pork, cured— salted or pickled.	Pork— lard.	Pork and its products— total, as far as ascertain- able. ¹	Apples, fresh.	Corn and corn meal (in terms of grain).	
Average: 1852-1856 . 1857-1861 . 1862-1866 . 1867-1871 . 1872-1876 . 1877-1881 .	$\begin{array}{c} Pounds.\\ 30,005,479\\ 30,583,297\\ 10,796,961\\ 45,790,113\\ 313,402,401\\ 643,633,709\end{array}$	Pounds.	Pounds. 40,542,600 34,854,400 52,550,758 28,879,085 60,429,361 85,968,138	Pounds. 33,354,976 37,965,993 89,138,251 53,579,373 194,197,714 331,457,591	Pounds, 103,903,056 103,403,690 252,485,970 128,248,571 568,029,477 1,075,793,475	Barrels. 37,412 57,045 119,433 132,756 509,735	Bushels. 7, 123, 286 6, 557, 610 12, 059, 794 9, 924, 235 38, 560, 557 88, 190, 030	
1882–1886 . 1887–1891 . 1892–1896 . 1897–1901 . 1902–1906 . 1907–1911 .	$\begin{array}{c} 355,905,444\\ 419,935,416\\ 438,847,549\\ 536,287,266\\ 292,721,953\\ 209,005,144 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 47,634,675\\60,697,365\\96,107,152\\200,853,226\\206,902,427\\189,603,211\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 72,354,682\\73,984,682\\64,827,470\\112,788,408\\116,823,284\\90,809,879\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 263, 425, 058\\ 381, 388, 854\\ 451, 547, 135\\ 652, 418, 143\\ 592, 130, 894\\ 519, 746, 378 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 739,455,913\\936,247,966\\1,052,133,760\\1,528,138,779\\1,242,136,649\\1,028,996,659\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 401,886\\522,511\\520,810\\779,980\\1,368,608\\1,225,655\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 49,992,203\\ 54,606,273\\ 63,979,898\\ 192,531,378\\ 74,615,465\\ 56,568,030\end{array}$	
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	456, 122, 741 383, 150, 624 207, 336, 000 249, 665, 941 262, 246, 635	$\begin{array}{c} 216,571,803\\ 227,653,232\\ 214,183,365\\ 194,948,864\\ 203,458,724\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 138, 643, 611\\ 115, 896, 275\\ 95, 287, 374\\ 112, 224, 861\\ 118, 887, 189 \end{array}$	611,357,514 556,840,222 490,755,821 561,302,643 610,238,899	$\begin{array}{c} 1,462,369,849\\ 1,337,315,909\\ 1,042,119,570\\ 1,146,255,441\\ 1,220,031,970 \end{array}$	883,673 459,719 1,656,129 2,018,262 1,499,942	181, 405, 473 28, 028, 688 76, 639, 261 58, 222, 061 90, 293, 483	
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	241, 189, 929 244, 578, 674 152, 163, 107	$\begin{array}{c} 194,267,949\\ 209,481,496\\ 221,769,634\\ 212,170,224\\ 146,885,385\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 141,820,720\\ 166,427,409\\ 149,505,937\\ 52,354,980\\ 40,031,599 \end{array}$	$741,516,886\\627,559,660\\603,413,770\\528,722,933\\362,927,671$	$1,464,960,356\\1,268,065,412\\1,237,210,760\\1,053,142,056\\707,110,062$	$\substack{1,208,989\\1,539,267\\1,049,545\\896,279\\922,078}$	$\begin{array}{c} 119,893,833\\ 86,368,228\\ 55,063,860\\ 37,665,040\\ 38,128,498 \end{array}$	
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	$\begin{array}{c} 156, 675, 310\\ 208, 574, 208\\ 200, 993, 584\\ 193, 964, 252\\ 346, 718, 227\\ 579, 808, 786 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 157,709,316\\ 204,044,491\\ 159,544,687\\ 165,881,791\\ 203,701,114\\ 282,208,611 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 45,729,471\\ 56,321,469\\ 53,749,023\\ 45,543,085\\ 45,655,574\\ 63,460,713 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 476,107,857\\532,255,865\\519,025,384\\481,457,792\\475,531,908\\427,011,338\end{array}$	879, 455, 006 1,071,951,724 984,696,710 921,913,029 1,106,180,488 1,459,532,294	$\begin{array}{c} 1,721,106\\ 1,456,381\\ 2,150,132\\ 1,506,569\\ 2,351,501\\ 1,466,321 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 65, 614, 522\\ 41, 797, 291\\ 50, 780, 143\\ 10, 725, 819\\ 50, 663, 303\\ 39, 896, 928 \end{array}$	
Year ending June 30—	Lard com- pounds.	Cotton.	Glucose and grape sugar.	Corn-oil cake and oil-cake meal.	Cottonseed- oil cake and oil-cake meal.	Prunes.	Tobacco.	
Average: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881	Pounds.	Pounds. 1, 110, 498, 083 1, 125, 715, 497 137, 582, 133 902, 410, 333 1, 248, 805, 497 1, 738, 892, 268	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds. 140, 183, 800 167, 710, 800 140, 207, 850 194, 753, 537 241, 848, 410 266, 315, 190	
1882-1886	. 21, 792, 477 52, 951, 358 75, 765, 254	1,968,178,266	$\begin{array}{c} 4,473,550\\ 27,686,298\\ 125,574,007\\ 209,279,772\\ 154,866,980\\ 145,064,783\end{array}$	21, 888, 135 61, 732, 807	1,005,099,895 1,066,790,196 989,738,130	48, 550, 774 47, 039, 287	$\begin{array}{c} 237, 941, 913\\ 259, 248, 361\\ 281, 746, 279\\ 304, 401, 701\\ 325, 538, 515\\ 334, 395, 923 \end{array}$	
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	. 53.603.545	3, 359, 062, 360 3, 528, 974, 630 3, 569, 141, 969 3, 089, 855, 900 4, 339, 322, 077	001 000 074	12 703 200	1 258 687 317	$\begin{array}{c} 10,021,564\\ 23,358,849\\ 66,385,215\\ 73,146,214\\ 54,993,849 \end{array}$	315 787 782	
19 06		$\begin{matrix} 3, 634, 045, 170\\ 4, 518, 217, 220\\ 3, 816, 998, 693\\ 4, 447, 985, 202\\ 3, 200, 708, 226 \end{matrix}$	$189,656,011\\151,629,441\\129,686,834\\112,224,504\\149,820,055$	$\begin{array}{r} 48,420,942\\ 56,808,972\\ 66,127,704\\ 53,233,890\\ 49,108,598 \end{array}$	1 110 834 678	$\begin{array}{c} 24,869,744\\ 44,400,104\\ 28,148,450\\ 22,602,288\\ 89,014,880 \end{array}$	312, 227, 202 340, 742, 864	
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c} 4,033,940,915\\ 5,535,125,429\\ 4,562,295,675\\ 4,760,940,538\\ 4,403,578,499\\ 3,084,070,125\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c}184,963,046\\171,156,259\\200,149,246\\199,530,874\\158,462,508\\186,386,182\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 83, 384, 870\\ 72, 490, 021\\ 76, 262, 845\\ 59, 030, 623\\ 45, 026, 125\\ 18, 996, 490\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 804, 596, 955\\ 1, 293, 690, 138\\ 1, 128, 092, 367\\ 709, 974, 252\\ 1, 479, 065, 015\\ 1, 057, 921, 569\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 51,030,711\\74,328,074\\117,950,875\\69,813,711\\43,478,892\\57,422,827\end{array}$		

TABLE 195.—Exports of selected domestic agricultural products, 1852-1916—Continued.

¹ Includes canned, fresh, salted or pickled pork, lard, neutral lard, bacon, and hams.

TABLE 195.-Exports of selected domestic agricultural products, 1852-1916-Continued.

Year ending June 30	Hops.	Oils, veg- etable— cotton- seed oil.	Rice and rice bran, meal, and polish.	Sugar, raw and refined.	Wheat.	Wheat flour.	Wheat and wheat flour (in terms of grain).
Average: 1852–1856 1857–1861 1862–1866 1867–1871 1872–1876 1877–1881	Pounds. 1, 162, 802 2, 216, 095 4, 719, 330 6, 486, 616 3, 446, 466 10, 445, 654	Gallons.	Pounds. 56, 514, 840 65, 732, 080 2, 257, 860 1, 856, 948 391, 344 602, 442	Pounds. 7, 730, 322 6, 015, 058 3, 007, 777 4, 356, 900 20, 142, 169 41, 718, 443	Bushels. 4,715,021 12,378,351 22,529,735 22,106,833 48,957,518 107,780,556	Barrels. 2, 891, 562 3, 318, 280 3, 530, 757 2, 585, 115 3, 415, 871 5, 375, 583	Bushels. 19, 172, 830 28, 969, 749 40, 183, 518 35, 032, 409 66, 036, 873 133, 262, 753
1882-1886 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	$\begin{array}{c} 9,584,437\\7,184,147\\15,146,667\\15,467,314\\11,476,272\\14,774,185\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{3, 467, 905} \\ \textbf{7, 120, 796} \\ \textbf{15, 782, 647} \\ \textbf{42, 863, 203} \\ \textbf{38, 605, 737} \\ \textbf{38, 783, 550} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 561,406\\ 3,209,653\\ 10,277,947\\ 18,407,139\\ 45,977,670\\ 27,194,549\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 107, 129, 770\\ 75, 073, 838\\ 13, 999, 349\\ 11, 213, 664\\ 14, 807, 014\\ 61, 429, 802 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 82,883,913\\64,739,011\\99,913,895\\120,247,430\\70,527,077\\62,854,580\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 8,620,199\\ 11,286,568\\ 15,713,279\\ 17,151,070\\ 15,444,100\\ 11,840,699 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 121, 674, 809\\ 115, 528, 568\\ 170, 623, 652\\ 197, 427, 246\\ 140, 025, 529\\ 116, 137, 728\\ \end{array}$
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905		$\begin{array}{r} 49,356,741\\ 33,042,848\\ 35,642,994\\ 29,013,743\\ 51,535,580\end{array}$	25, 527, 846 29, 591, 274 19, 750, 448 29, 121, 763 113, 282, 760	8,874,860 7,572,452 10,520,156 15,418,537 18,348,077	$\begin{matrix} 132,060,667\\154,856,102\\114,181,420\\44,230,169\\4,394,402 \end{matrix}$	$\begin{array}{c} 18,650,979\\ 17,759,203\\ 19,716,484\\ 16,999,432\\ 8,826,335 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 215, 990, 073\\ 234, 772, 516\\ 202, 905, 598\\ 120, 727, 613\\ 44, 112, 910\\ \end{array}$
1906	13,026,904 16,809,534 22,920,480 10,446,884 10,589,254	43,793,519 41,880,304 41,019,991 51,087,329 29,860,667	38, 142, 103 30, 174, 371 28, 444, 415 20, 511, 4 26, 779, 188	22, 175, 846 21, 237, 603 25, 510, 643 79, 946, 297 125, 507, 022	$\begin{array}{c} 34,973,291\\76,569,423\\100,371,057\\66,923,244\\46,679,876\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 13, 919, 048\\ 15, 584, 667\\ 13, 927, 247\\ 10, 521, 161\\ 9, 040, 987 \end{array}$	97,609,007 146,700,425 163,043,669 114,268,468 87,364,318
1911. 1912. 1913. 1914. 1915. 1916.	12, 190, 663 17, 591, 195 24, 262, 896 16, 210, 443	$\begin{array}{c} 30,069,459\\ 53,262,796\\ 42,031,052\\ 25,728,411\\ 42,448,870\\ 35,537,328 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 30,063,341\\ 39,446,571\\ 38,908,057\\ 22,414,326\\ 77,480,065\\ 121,969,134 \end{array}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 54, 947, 444 \\ 79, 594, 034 \\ 43, 994, 761 \\ 50, 895, 726 \\ 549, 007, 411 \\ 1, 630, 150, 863 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23,729,302\\ 30,160,212\\ 91,602,974\\ 92,393,775\\ 259,642,533\\ 173,274,015\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 10, 129, 435\\ 11, 006, 487\\ 11, 394, 805\\ 11, 821, 461\\ 16, 182, 765\\ 15, 520, 669 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 69,311,760\\79,689,404\\141,132,166\\145,590,349\\332,464,975\\243,117,025\end{array}$

TABLE 196.—Imports of selected agricultural products, 1852–1916.

[Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. Where figures are lacking, either there were no imports or they were not separately classified for publication. "Silk" includes, prior to 1881, only "Silk, raw or as reeled from the ecocon," in 1881 and 1882 are included this item and "Silk waste." after 1882, both these items and "Silk coccons." From "Cocco and chocolate" are omitted in 1860, 1861, and in 1872 to 1881, small quantities of chocolate, the official returns for which were given only in value. "Jute and jute butts" includes in 1858 and 1859 an unknown quantity of "Sisal grass, coir, etc.," and in 1865-1868 an unknown quantity of "Hemp." Cattle hides are included in "Hides and skins other than cattle and goat." in 1895-1897. Olive oil for table use includes in 1862-1864 and 1885-1905 all oive oil. Sisal grass includes in 1884-1890 "Other vegetable substances." Hemp includes in 1885-1888 all substitutes for hemp.]

Year ending June 30-	Cheese,	Silk.	Wool.	Almonds.	Argols or wine lees.	Cocoa and chocolate, total.	Coffee.
A verage: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881	1, 378, 147		Pounds. 19,067,447 62,744,282	Pounds. 3, 460, 807 3, 251, 091 2, 482, 063	Pounds. 1,354,947 2,360,529 4,951,473 12,403,256	Pounds. 2, 486, 572 3, 063, 893 2, 453, 141 3, 502, 614 4, 857, 364 6, 315, 488	Pounds. 196, 582, 863 216, 235, 090 124, 551, 992 248, 726, 019 307, 006, 928 384, 282, 199
1882–1886 1887–1891 1892–1896 1897–1901 1902–1906 1907–1911	8,335,323 9,649,752 12,588,515 22,165,754 37,662,812	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{4,672,846}\\ \textbf{6,564,121}\\ \textbf{8,382,892}\\ \textbf{10,962,210}\\ \textbf{17,187,544}\\ \textbf{22,143,461} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 83,293,800\\117,763,889\\162,640,491\\163,979,079\\193,656,402\\199,562,649\end{array}$	5,860,728 7,487,676 7,361,198 10,920,881 15,297,414	$\begin{array}{c} 17,551,967\\21,433,570\\26,469,990\\24,379,847\\27,647,440\\29,350,692\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11,568,173\\18,322,049\\25,475,234\\38,209,423\\70,901,254\\113,673,368\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 529,578,782\\ 509,367,994\\ 597,484,217\\ 816,570,082\\ 980,119,167\\ 934,533,322 \end{array}$
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	$\begin{array}{c} 15,329,099\\ 17,067,714\\ 20,671,384\\ 22,707,103\\ 23,095,705 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 10,405,555\\ 14,234,826\\ 15,270,859\\ 16,722,709\\ 22,357,307 \end{array}$	$103, 583, 505\\166, 576, 966\\177, 137, 796\\173, 742, 834\\249, 135, 746$	5, 140, 232 9, 868, 982 8, 142, 164 9, 838, 852 11, 745, 081	$\begin{array}{c} 28, 598, 781\\ 29, 276, 148\\ 29, 966, 557\\ 24, 571, 730\\ 26, 281, 931 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 47,620,204\\ 52,878,587\\ 65,046,884\\ 75,070,746\\ 77,383,024 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 854, 871, 310\\ \textbf{1}, 091, 004, 252\\ 915, 086, 380\\ 995, 043, 284\\ \textbf{1}, 047, 792, 984 \end{array}$
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	27, 286, 866 33, 848, 766 32, 530, 830 35, 548, 143 40, 817, 524	$\begin{array}{c} 17,352,021\\ 18,743,904\\ 16,662,132\\ 25,187,957\\ 23,457,223 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 201, 688, 668\\ 203, 847, 545\\ 125, 980, 524\\ 266, 409, 304\\ 263, 928, 232 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15,009,326\\ 14,233,613\\ 17,144,968\\ 11,029,421\\ 18,556,356 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 28,140,835\\ 30,540,893\\ 26,738,834\\ 32,115,646\\ 28,182,956 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 84, 127, 027\\ 97, 059, 513\\ 86, 604, 684\\ 132, 660, 931\\ 111, 070, 834 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 851, 668, 933\\ 985, 321, 473\\ 890, 640, 057\\ 1, 049, 868, 768\\ 871, 469, 516 \end{array}$
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	$\begin{array}{r} 45,568,797\\ 46,542,007\\ 49,387,944\\ 63,784,313\\ 50,138,520\\ 30,087,999 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 26,666,091\\ 26,584,962\\ 32,101,555\\ 34,545,829\\ 31,052,674\\ 41,925,297 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 137, 647, 641\\ 193, 400, 713\\ 195, 293, 255\\ 247, 648, 869\\ 308, 083, 429\\ 534, 828, 022 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15,522,712\\ 17,231,458\\ 15,670,558\\ 19,038,405\\ 17,111,264\\ 16,596,921 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 29,175,133\\ 23,661,078\\ 29,479,119\\ 29,793,011\\ 28,624,554\\ 34,721,043 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 140, 970, 877\\ 148, 785, 846\\ 143, 509, 852\\ 179, 364, 091\\ 194, 734, 195\\ 245, 579, 101 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 875, 366, 797\\ 885, 201, 247\\ 863, 130, 757\\ 1, 001, 528, 317\\ 1, 118, 690, 524\\ 1, 201, 104, 485\end{array}$

TABLE 196Imports	ofs	selected	agricultural	products	, 1852–1916Continued.
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Year ending June 30	Flax.	Hemp.	Hops.	Jute and jute butts.	Licorice root.	Manila.	Molasses.
Average: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1806 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881	Long tons. 1, 143 4, 170 4, 260	Long tons. 1,574 2,652 22,711 22,458	Pounds.	Long tons. 3,244 17,239 3,213 14,909 49,188 62,496	Pounds. 1,372,573 1,887,892	Long tons. 12,084 15,566	Gallons. 28, 488, 888 30, 190, 875 34, 262, 933 53, 322, 088 44, 815, 321 32, 638, 963
1882–1886 1887–1891 1892–1896 1892–1901 1902–1906 1907–1911	5,678 7,021 6,785 7,008	30,557	1,618,879 7,771,672 2,386,240 2,381,899 5,205,867 6,769,965	91,058 104,887 84,111 93,970 101,512 100,420	59, 275, 373 86, 444, 974 87, 475, 620 99, 543, 305 96, 111, 469	47, 354 47, 217 60, 813 67, 289	$\begin{array}{c} 35,019,689\\ 30,543,299\\ 15,474,619\\ 6,321,160\\ 17,191,821\\ 24,147,348 \end{array}$
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	$\begin{array}{r} 6,878\\ 7,772\\ 8,155\\ 10,123\\ 8,089 \end{array}$	4,057 6,054 4,919 5,871 3,987	2,606,708 2,805,293 6,012,510 2,758,163 4,339,379	96,735	100, 105, 654 109, 077, 323 83, 580, 611 89, 463, 182 108, 443, 892	$\begin{array}{r} 43,735\\56,453\\61,648\\65,666\\61,562\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11,453,156\\14,391,215\\17,240,399\\18,823,530\\19,477,885\end{array}$
1 906 1 907 1 908 1 909 1 910		5,317 8,718 6,213 5,208 6,423	$\begin{array}{c} 10,113,989\\ 6,211,893\\ 8,493,265\\ 7,386,574\\ 3,200,560 \end{array}$	$104,489 \\107,533 \\156,685 \\68,155$	$\begin{array}{c} 102, 151, 969\\ 66, 115, 863\\ 109, 355, 720\\ 97, 742, 776\\ 82, 207, 496 \end{array}$	58,73854,51352,46761,90293,253	$\begin{array}{c} 16,021,076\\ 24,630,935\\ 18,882,756\\ 22,092,696\\ 31,292,165 \end{array}$
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	$\begin{array}{c} 7,792\\ 10,900\\ 12,421\\ 9,885\\ 4,694\\ 6,939 \end{array}$	5,2 78 5,0 07 7, 663 8,822 5,310 6,506	$\begin{array}{c} 8,557,531\\ 2,901,125\\ 8,494,144\\ 5,382,025\\ 11,651,332\\ 675,704 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 65,238\\ 101,001\\ 125,389\\ 106,033\\ 83,140\\ 108,322 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 125, 135, 490\\ 74, 582, 225\\ 105, 116, 227\\ 115, 636, 131\\ 65, 958, 501\\ 41, 003, 295 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 74,308\\68,536\\73,823\\49,688\\51,081\\78,892 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23,838,190\\ 28,828,213\\ 33,926,521\\ 51,410,271\\ 70,839,623\\ 85,716,673 \end{array}$
Year ending Jun 30—	Olive oil, for table use.	Opium, crude.	Potatoes.	Rice, and rice flour, rice meal, and broken rice.	Sisal grass.	Sugar, raw and refined	. Tea.
Average: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1862-1866 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881	Gallons. 177.947 152,827 174.555 218.507	Pounds. 110,143 113,594 128,590 209,096 5365,071 407,656	Bushels. 406, 611 251, 637 216, 077 254, 615 1, 850, 106	Pounds. 70. 893, 331 52, 953, 577 72, 536, 435 62, 614, 706	615	$\begin{array}{c} 479, 373, 648\\ 691, 323, 833\\ 672, 637, 141\\ 1, 138, 464, 815\\ 1, 614, 055, 119\\ 1, 760, 508, 290\end{array}$	Pounds. 24,959,922 28,149,643 30,869,450 44,052,805 62,436,359 67,583,083
1882–1886 1887–1891 1892–1896 1897–1901 1992–1906 1907–1911		$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c} 2,834,736\\ 3,878,580\\ 1,804,649\\ 495,150\\ 2,662,121\\ 1,907,405 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 99,870,675\\ 156,868,635\\ 160,807,652\\ 165,231,669\\ 150,913,684\\ 215,892,467 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 40,274\\ 50,129\\ 70,297\\ 96,832\\ 102,440 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2,453,490,409\\ 3,003,283,851\\ 3,827,799,481\\ 3,916,433,945\\ 3,721,782,404\\ 3,997,156,461\end{array}$	74, 781, 418 84, 275, 049 92, 782, 175 86, 809, 270 98, 677, 584 96, 742, 977
1901 . 1902. 1903. 1904. 1905.	983,059 1,339,097 1,494,132 1,713,590	$\begin{array}{c c} 583,208\\ 534,189\\ 2 516,570\\ 573,055 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 371,911\\ 7,656,162\\ 358,505\\ 3,166,5\%1\\ 181,199\end{array}$		$\begin{array}{c} 70,076\\ 89,583\\ 87,025\\ 109,214\\ 100,301 \end{array}$	3,975,005,840 3,031,915,875 4,216,108,106 3,700,623,613 3,680,932,998	89, 806, 453 75, 579, 125 108, 574, 905 112, 905, 541 102, 706, 599
1906 1907 1905 1909 1910	$\begin{array}{c} 1, 129, 45 \\ \dots & 3, 702, 210 \end{array}$	2 = 285.815	$\begin{array}{c} 1,948,160\\176,917\\403,952\\8,383,966\\353,208\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 166,517,957\\ 209,603,180\\ 212,783,392\\ 222,900,422\\ 225,400,545 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 99,061 \\ 103,994 \\ 91,451 \\ 99,966 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3, 979, 331, 430\\ 4, 391, 839, 978\\ 3, 371, 997, 112\\ 4, 189, 421, 018\\ 4, 094, 545, 930 \end{array}$	86, 368, 490 94, 149, 564 114, 916, 520 85, 626, 370
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	4,405,82 4,836,51 5,221,00 6,217,56 6,710,96 7,221,43	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c} 218,984\\ 13,734,695\\ 327,230\\ 3,645,993\\ 270,942\\ 209,512 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 208,774,795\\ 190,063,331\\ 222,103,547\\ 300,194,917\\ 277,191,472\\ 264,324,005\\ \end{array}$	$117,727\\114,467\\153,869\\215,547\\185,764\\228,610$	3, 937, 978, 265 4, 104, 618, 395 4, 740, 041, 488 5, 066, 821, 873 5, 420, 981, 865 5, 633, 161, 749	102, 563, 942 101, 406, 816 94, 812, 800 91, 130, 815 7 96, 987, 942 109, 865, 935

	TABLE 196	Imports of	selected	agricultural	products.	1852-1916-Continued.
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Year ending June 30—	Beeswax.	Onions.	Plums and prunes.	Raisins.	Currants.	Dates.	Figs.
A verage: 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	456, 727	Bushels. 628, 358 924, 418 1, 103, 034	Pounds. 60, 237, 642 12, 405, 549 560, 762 563, 900	Pounds. 38, 545, 635 17, 745, 925 7, 669, 593 7, 344, 676 5, 283, 145	Pounds. 34, 397, 754 27, 520, 440 35, 457, 213 35, 258, 628	Pounds. 14, 914, 349 15, 653, 642 25, 649, 432 26, 059, 353	Pounds. 9, 783, 650 10, 117, 049 8, 919, 921 14, 334, 760 19, 848, 037
1901	213, 773 408, 706 488, 576 425, 168 373, 569	774,042796,316925,5991,171,242856,366	745, 974 522, 478 633, 819 494, 105 671, 604	$\begin{array}{c} 3,860,836\\ 6,683,545\\ 6,715,675\\ 6,867,617\\ 4,041,689 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 16,049,198\\ 36,238,976\\ 33,878,209\\ 38,347,649\\ 31,742,919 \end{array}$	20,013,681 21,681,159 43,814,917 21,058,164 19,257,250	9,933,871 11,087,131 16,482,142 13,178,061 13,364,107
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	$917,088 \\ 671,526 \\ 764,937$	$\begin{array}{r} 872,566\\ 1,126,114\\ 1,275,333\\ 574,530\\ 1,024,226\end{array}$	497, 494 323, 377 335, 089 296, 123	$\begin{array}{c} 12,414,855\\ 3,967,151\\ 9,132,353\\ 5,794,320\\ 5,042,683 \end{array}$	37,078,311 38,392,779 38,652,656 32,482,111 33,326,030	$\begin{array}{c} 22, 435, 672\\ 31, 270, 899\\ 24, 958, 343\\ 21, 869, 218\\ 22, 693, 713 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 17,562,358\\24,346,173\\18,836,574\\15,235,513\\17,362,197\end{array}$
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	1,076,741 828,793	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{1,514,967}\\ \textbf{1,436,037}\\ \textbf{789,458}\\ \textbf{1,114,811}\\ \textbf{829,177}\\ \textbf{815,872} \end{array}$		2,479,220 3,255,861 2,579,705 4,554,549 2,808,806 1,024,296	$\begin{array}{c} 33, 439, 565\\ 33, 151, 396\\ 30, 843, 735\\ 32, 033, 177\\ 30, 350, 527\\ 25, 373, 029 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 29,504,592\\ 25,203,248\\ 34,304,951\\ 34,073,608\\ 24,949,374\\ 31,075,424 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23, 459, 728\\ 18, 765, 408\\ 16, 837, 819\\ 19, 284, 868\\ 20, 779, 730\\ 7, 153, 250 \end{array}$
Year ending June	Hides and Cattle.	skins, other Goat.	than furs. Other than cattle and goat.	Macaroni, vermicelli, and all similar prepara- tions.	Lemons.	Oranges.	Walnuts.
Average: 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	Pounds. 126, 995, 011 178, 681, 537	Pounds. 68, 052, 973 93, 674, 819 94, 329, 840	Pounds. 91, 173, 311 115, 952, 418 143, 351, 321	Pounds. 99,724,072	Pounds. 153, 160, 863 153, 343, 434	Pounds. 41, 104, 544 12, 089, 790	Pounds. 30,980,661
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905	131.644.325	$\begin{array}{c} 73,745,596\\88,038,516\\85,114,070\\86,338,547\\97,803,571 \end{array}$	77, 989, 617 89, 457, 680 102, 340, 303 103, 024, 752 126, 893, 934		$148, 514, 614\\164, 075, 309\\152, 004, 213\\171, 923, 221\\139, 084, 321$	$\begin{array}{c} 50,332,914\\ 52,742,476\\ 56,872,070\\ 35,893,260\\ 28,880,575 \end{array}$	12, 362, 567 23, 670, 761 21, 684, 104
1906	134, 671, 020 98, 353, 249 192, 252, 083	$\begin{array}{c} 111,079,391\\ 101,221,596\\ 63,640,758\\ 104,048,244\\ 115,844,758 \end{array}$	$158,045,419\\135,111,199\\120,770,918\\148,253,998\\174,770,732$	77, 926, 029 87, 720, 730 97, 233, 708 85, 114, 003 113, 772, 801	$\begin{array}{c} 138,717,252\\ 157,859,906\\ 178,490,003\\ 135,183,550\\ 160,214,785 \end{array}$	31, 134, 341 21, 267, 346 18, 397, 429 8, 435, 873 4, 676, 118	24,917,028 32,597,592 28,887,110 26,157,703 33,641,466
1911. 1912. 1913. 1914. 1915. 1916.	279,963,488 334,341,417	$\begin{array}{c} 86,913,842\\ 95,340,703\\ 96,250,305\\ 84,759,428\\ 66,547,163\\ 100,657,021 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 137,849,757\\ 191,414,882\\ 207,903,995\\ 196,347,770\\ 137,439,153\\ 208,835,068 \end{array}$	$114,779,116\\108,231,028\\106,500,752\\126,128,621\\56,542,480\\21,789,602$	134,968,924 145,639,396 151,416,412	7,672,186 7,628,662 12,252,960	33, 619, 434 37, 213, 674 26, 662, 441 37, 195, 728 33, 445, 838 36, 858, 934
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TABLE 197 — Foreign trade of the United States in forest products, 1852-1916. [Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. All values are gold.]

	Expo	orts.	Transata	Excess of exports (+)	
Year ending June 30—	Domestic.	Foreign.	Imports.	or of imports $(-)$.	
A verage: 1852-1856 1857-1861 1867-1871 1866- 1867-1871 1872-1876 1877-1881 1877-1881	\$6, 819, 079 9, 994, 808 7, 366, 103 11, 775, 297 17, 906, 771 17, 579, 313	\$694,037 962,142 798,076 690,748 959,862 552,514	\$3,256,302 6,942,211 8,511,370 14,812,576 19,728,458 22,006,227	$\begin{array}{r} + $4,256,814 \\ + 4,014,739 \\ - 347,191 \\ - 2,346,531 \\ - 861,825 \\ - 3,874,400 \end{array}$	
1882-1886 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	$\begin{array}{c} 24,704,992\\ 26,060,729\\ 29,276,428\\ 45,960,863\\ 63,584,670\\ 88,764,471 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,417,226\\ 1,442,760\\ 1,707,307\\ 3,283,274\\ 3,850,221\\ 6,488,455 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} \textbf{34, 252, 753} \\ \textbf{39, 647, 287} \\ \textbf{45, 091, 081} \\ \textbf{52, 326, 879} \\ \textbf{79, 885, 457} \\ \textbf{137, 051, 471} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{rrrr} - & 8, 130, 535 \\ - & 12, 143, 798 \\ - & 14, 107, 346 \\ - & 3, 082, 742 \\ - & 12, 450, 566 \\ - & 41, 798, 545 \end{array}$	
1901	55,369,161 48,928,764 55,734,016 70,085,789 63,199,348	3,599,192 3,609,071 2,865,325 4,177,352 3,790,097	57, 143, 650 59, 187, 049 71, 478, 022 79, 619, 296 92, 680, 555	$\begin{array}{rrrr} + & 1,824,703 \\ - & 6,649,214 \\ - & 9,878,681 \\ - & 5,356,155 \\ - & 25,691,110 \end{array}$	
1906	76,975,431 92,948,705 90,362,073 72,442,454 85,030,230	4,809,261 5,500,331 4,570,397 4,982,810 9,801,881	96, 462, 364 122, 420, 776 97, 733, 092 123, 920, 126 178, 871, 797	$\begin{array}{r} - 14,677,672 \\ - 23,971,740 \\ - 2,800,622 \\ - 46,494,862 \\ - 84,039,686 \end{array}$	
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	$\begin{array}{c} 103,038,892\\ 108,122,254\\ 124,835,784\\ 106,978,554\\ 52,553,536\\ 67,827,102 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7,586,854\\ 6,413,343\\ 7,431,851\\ 4,517,766\\ 5,089,299\\ 4,334,335 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 162,311,565\\ 172,523,465\\ 180,502,444\\ 155,261,300\\ 165,849,493\\ 252,824,453 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} -51,685,819\\ -57,987,868\\ -48,234,809\\ -43,764,980\\ -108,206,658\\ -180,663,016\end{array}$	

TABLE 198.—Exports of selected domestic forest products, 1852-1916.

[Compiled from reports of Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States. Where figures are lacking, either there were no exports or they were not separately classified for publication.]

		Lumber.				Tim	ber.
Year ending June 30—	Boards, deals, and planks. ¹	Shooks, other than box.	Staves.	Rosin.	Spirits of turpentine.	Hewn.	Sawed.
A verage: 1852–1856 1857–1861 1862–1866 1867–1871 1872–1876 1877–1881	<i>M</i> fcet. 129, 499 205, 476 138, 020 138, 720 221, 658 303, 114		Number.	Barrels. 552, 210 664, 206 69, 314 491, 774 845, 803	Gallons. 1, 369, 250 2, 735, 104 107, 162 2, 693, 412 7, 138, 556	Cubic feet.	
1852-1886 1887-1891 1892-1896 1897-1901 1902-1906 1907-1911	$\begin{array}{r} 433,963\\ 531,755\\ 616,090\\ 957,218\\ 212,476\\ 1,649,203\\ \end{array}$	593,054435,581668,797765,215925,828	51, 234, 056 56, 181, 900	$\begin{array}{c} 1,289,869\\ 1,533,834\\ 2,006,427\\ 2,477,696\\ 2,453,280\\ 2,355,560\end{array}$	9, 301, 894 10, 794, 025 14, 258, 928 18, 349, 386 16, 927, 090 16, 658, 955	$\begin{array}{c} 13,701,663\\ 6,401,543\\ 6,062,418\\ 5,146,927\\ 3,968,469\\ 3,406,245 \end{array}$	$218,796 \\ 263,641 \\ 428,755 \\ 508,212 \\ 479,776$
1901	1, 101, 815 942, 814 1, 065, 771 1, 426, 784 1, 283, 406	714,651788,241566,205533,182872,192	$\begin{array}{r} 47,363,262\\ 46,998,512\\ 55,879,010\\ 47,420,095\\ 48,286,285\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2,820,815\\ 2,535,962\\ 2,396,498\\ 2,585,108\\ 2,310,275\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 20,240,851\\ 19,177,788\\ 16,378,787\\ 17,202,808\\ 15,894,813 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} \textbf{4,624,698}\\ \textbf{5,388,439}\\ \textbf{3,291,498}\\ \textbf{3,788,740}\\ \textbf{3,856,623} \end{array}$	533,920 412,750 530,659 558,690 486,411
1995 1907 1908 1909 1909 1919 1911	$\begin{array}{c} 1,343,607\\ 1,623,964\\ 1,548,130\\ 1,357,822\\ 1,684,489\\ 2,031,608 \end{array}$	$1,066,253 \\803,346 \\900,812 \\977,376 \\928,197 \\1,019,411$	57, 586, 378 51, 120, 171 61, 696, 949 52, 583, 016 49, 783, 771 65, 725, 595	2,438,556 2,560,966 2,712,732 2,170,177 2,144,318 2,189,607	$\begin{array}{c} 15,981,253\\ 15,854,676\\ 19,532,583\\ 17,502,028\\ 15,587,737\\ 14,817,751 \end{array}$	3,517,046 3,278,110 4,883,506 2,950,528 3,245,196 2,673,887 M feet.	$\begin{array}{c} 552,548\\ 600,865\\ 463,440\\ 383,309\\ 451,721\\ 499,547\end{array}$
1912	2, 306, 680 2, 550, 308 2, 405, 296 1, 129, 205 1, 176, 765	$1,161,591 \\ 1,710,095 \\ 867,805 \\ 620,043 \\ 583,724$	64, 162, 599 89,005, 624 77, 150, 535 39, 297, 268 57, 820, 610	$\begin{array}{c} 2,474,460\\ 2,806,046\\ 2,417,950\\ 1,372,316\\ 1,571,279 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 19, 599, 241\\ 21, 039, 597\\ 18, 900, 704\\ 9, 464, 120\\ 9, 309, 968 \end{array}$	31,067 34,502 29,859 6,118 9,628	406, 954 477, 135 411, 307 167, 671 191, 577

¹ Including "Joists and scantling" prior to 1884.

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				Lum	ıber.		
Year ending June 30—	Camphor, crude.	India rubber.	Rubber gums, tctal.	Boards, deals, planks, and other sawed.	Shingles.	Shellac.	Wood pulp.
Average: 1852–1856		Pounds.	Pounds.	M feet.	М.	Pounds.	Long tons.
18 57–1861 18 62–1866 18 67–1871	386,731		1 7, 389, 890			634,276	
1872–1876 1877–18 81	1, 515, 614		12,631,388 15,610,634	564, 642 417, 907	88, 197 55, 394		
1882–1886 1887–1891 1892–1896 1897–1901 1902–1906 1907–1911	2, 273, 883 1, 491, 902 1, 858, 018 2, 139, 183	38,359,547 47,469,136 57,903,641 80,129,567	$\begin{array}{c} 24, 480, 997\\ 33, 226, 520\\ 39, 671, 553\\ 52, 974, 744\\ 75, 908, 633\\ 121, 504, 098 \end{array}$	$577,728\\646,745\\661,495\\566,394\\727,205\\899,659$	87, 760 184, 050 772, 340 866, 565	5,086,421 5,848,339 8,839,232 11,613,967 19,046,030	$\begin{array}{r} 37,251\\ 42,771\\ 46,827\\ 130,764\\ 319,007\end{array}$
1901 1902 1903 1934 1905	1,831,058 2,472,440 2,819,673	$\begin{array}{c} 55,275,529\\ 50,413,481\\ 55,010,571\\ 59,015,551\\ 67,234,256\end{array}$	64,927,176 67,790,069 69,311,678 74,327,584 87,004,384	490, 820 665, 603 720, 937 589, 232 710, 538	555, 853 707, 614 724, 131 770, 373 758, 725	$\begin{array}{r} 9,608,745\\ 9,064,789\\ 11,590,725\\ 10,933,413\\ 10,700,817 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 46,757\\ 67,416\\ 116,881\\ 144,796\\ 167,504\end{array}$
1906 1907 1908 1909 1910	3,138,070 2,814,299 1,990,499	¹ 57, 844, 345 ¹ 76, 963, 838 ¹ 62, 233, 160 ¹ 88, 359, 895 ¹ 101,044,681	$\begin{array}{c} 81, 109, 451 \\ 106, 747, 589 \\ 85, 809, 625 \\ 114, 598, 768 \\ 154, 620, 629 \end{array}$	949, 717 934, 195 791, 288 846, 024 1, 054, 416	900, 856 881, 003 988, 081 1, 058, 363 762, 798	$\begin{array}{c} 15,780,090\\ 17,785,960\\ 13,361,932\\ 19,185,137\\ 29,402,182 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 157,224\\213,110\\237,514\\274,217\\378,322\end{array}$
1911. 1912. 1913. 1914. 1914. 1915. 1916.	2, 154, 646 3, 709, 264 3, 476, 908 3, 729, 207	113, 384, 359 131, 995, 742	$\begin{array}{c} 145, 743, 880\\ 175, 965, 538\\ 170, 747, 339\\ 161, 777, 250\\ 196, 121, 979\\ 304, 182, 814 \end{array}$	872,374 905,275 1,090,628 928,873 939,322 1,218,068	642, 582 514, 657 560, 297 895, 038 1, 487, 116 1, 769, 333	$\begin{array}{c} 15, 494, 940\\ 18, 745, 771\\ 21, 912, 015\\ 16, 719, 756\\ 24, 153, 363\\ 25, 817, 509 \end{array}$	491, 873 477, 508 502, 913 508, 360 587, 922 507, 045

TABLE 199.—Imports of selected forest products, 1852-1916.

¹ Includes "Gutta-percha" only for 1867.

 TABLE 200.—Principal farm products imported from specified countries into the United States, 1914–1916.

			Year ending	g June 30—			
Country from which con- signed, and article.	19	14	. 19	15	1916		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
Brazil:				1			
Cocoa (crude)pounds	25, 870, 186	\$2,764,766	19,708,616	\$2,017,224	45,657,401	\$6,086,847	
Coffeedo	743, 113, 500	76,016,463	773,400,315	65, 492, 280	849, 405, 925	73, 541, 315	
British West Indies:				1		, ,	
Bananasbunches	15,677,191	4,849,037	11,957,935	3,483,373	4,691,518	1,365,705	
Cocoapounds	44,062,426	5, 372, 327	40,728,851	5, 407, 262	39,933,405	6,038,665	
Canada: Teado	3, 112, 383	864,814	3,446,615	981,933	2,600,705	861,236	
China: Teado	20, 139, 342	2,755,512	23,100,548	3,149,308	20, 422, 700	2,990,751	
Colombia: Coffeedo	91,830,513	11,556,038	111,077,449	13,710,164	109, 363, 456	13, 519, 545	
Cuba:							
Bananasbunches	2,354,395	853,536	2,708,624	929,761	2,859,021	1,072,035	
Sugar (raw)pounds	4,926,606,243	98, 394, 782	4,784,888,157	156, 181, 349	5,150,852,007	192, 558, 595	
Dominican Republic:				1			
Cocoapounds	26, 782, 966	3,187,006	46,620,464	5,499,510	48,990,707	6,946,412	
Ecuador: Cocoado	26, 319, 735	2,693,674	33, 418, 752	3,351,797	31,878,350	4, 198, 249	
France:	,,					-,,	
Cheesedo	5,418,904	1,032,817	3,554,297	737,212	2,321,543	783,323	
Olive oil (salad).gallons	949, 858	1, 512, 324	802,092	1,215,632	895,369	1,402,972	
Italy:	,			,,	,	_,,,	
Cheesepounds	26, 453, 626	5,024,270	25,662,362	5,108,850	16,084,059	3,855,856	
Macaronido	121, 924, 372	5, 481, 187	54, 591, 991	2,944,398	20, 221, 908	1,426,730	
Olive oil (salad).gallons	4,319,567	5, 552, 098	4,864,388	6,089,646	4,696,812	6,725,524	
Japan: Teapounds	41,913,273	7, 171, 202	43,869,012	7,683,356	52, 359, 526	8,975,993	
Mexico: Coffeedo	49,385,504	8,023,186	52,706,120	6, 898, 161	49, 832, 801	6, 222, 326	
Netherlands:	.,,				,,	-,,	
Cheesedo	3,656,763	455, 159	2,210,861	287,620	578, 201	121,588	
Coffeedo	5,905,654	636,763	1,583,672	253,731	50,896	10,884	
Philippine Islands: Sugar,		,,	-,,			,	
pounds	116,749,211	2,553,601	326, 842, 296	7,511,126	217, 190, 825	6,389,017	
Portugal: Cocoapounds	17,738,638	2, 292, 959	3, 516, 655	512,270	7,531,924	1,368,032	
Switzerland: Cheese,	,,	-,,000	-,,,		.,,	-, -, -, -,	
pounds. United Kingdom:	22, 489, 706	3, 617, 651	14,766,682	2, 677, 249	9, 514, 008	2,031,590	
Cocoapounds	12,903,640	1,633,424	21,062,767	2, 578, 996	13, 408, 058	2,186,624	
Teado	14,077,601	3,858,970	12, 869, 968	3, 386, 476	19,066,241	4,670,251	
	,,	0,000,010	,000,000	0,0.0,110	10,00,011	., 010, 201	

•			Year endin	g June 30—		
Country to which consigned, and article.	19	14	19	015	19	16
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Belgium: Cornbushels. Whe tdo. Baconbushels. Hams and shouldersdo Larddo. Brazil: Wheat flourbarrels. Canada;	$12,873,372 \\5,110,170 \\4,080,669 \\15,915,380 \\748,612$	$\begin{array}{r} \$38,198\\12,479,315\\743,371\\563,140\\1,\$33,325\\3,752,105\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 103,927\\ 5,320,685\\ 5,737,181\\ 6,596,068\\ 5,128,630\\ 707,705\end{array}$	\$82,324 6,392,090 603,344 801,837 528,764 3,972,690	4,550 2,682,920 60,160,749 2,792,605 70,132,156 734,726	\$4,191 3,342,519 6,251,526 367,070 7,327,075 1,216,205
Canada: Cornbushels. Wheat flourbarrels. Baconpounds. Hams and shouldersdo Larddo Pork, pickleddo China: Wheat flourbarrels. Cuba:	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{4,641,737} \\ \textbf{4,113,701} \\ 122,752 \\ \textbf{11,082,930} \\ \textbf{4,000,649} \\ \textbf{15,995,609} \\ \textbf{12,825,741} \\ 136,374 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{3,328,785}\\ \textbf{3,821,159}\\ \textbf{539,942}\\ \textbf{1,644,388}\\ \textbf{672,855}\\ \textbf{1,847,515}\\ \textbf{1,373,501}\\ \textbf{540,154} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 8,283,156\\ 19,664,674\\ 110,938\\ 10,025,242\\ 1,514,602\\ 7,721,616\\ 8,500,049\\ 13,273\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6,154,904\\ 19,941,388\\ 592,011\\ 1,363,621\\ 219,257\\ 887,910\\ 870,937\\ 57,066 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6,562,323\\ 6,244,732\\ 50,424\\ 39,590,591\\ 2,673,658\\ 6,330,140\\ 17,835,273\\ 10,762\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4,964,555\\7,430,824\\254,717\\5,342,490\\370,783\\635,024\\1,701,324\\54,631\end{array}$
Cornbushels. Wheat flourburrels. Baconpounds. Hams and shouldersdo Larddo Pork, pickleddo Dennark: Cornbushels. Finland: Wheat flour.barrels.	2,410,156 892,705 13,733,773 5,635,820	$\begin{array}{r} \textbf{1,878,664} \\ \textbf{4,057,863} \\ \textbf{1,634,755} \\ \textbf{940,720} \\ \textbf{5,582,074} \\ \textbf{447,374} \\ \textbf{95} \\ \textbf{2,085,441} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2,267,305\\ 924,989\\ 13,360,139\\ 0,842,425\\ 45,349,283\\ 3,874,892\\ 11,169,550\\ 35,588\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,896,907\\ 5,379,206\\ 1,016,045\\ 1,127,283\\ 5,011,657\\ 428,050\\ 9,052,044\\ 165,057\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{3,231,323}\\ \textbf{1,124,562}\\ \textbf{13,543,082}\\ \textbf{11,493,464}\\ \textbf{53,811,784}\\ \textbf{7,846,918}\\ \textbf{9,826,259} \end{array}$	2,587,501 6,468,442 1,685,946 1,875,091 5,930,069 888,699 7,997,250
France: Wheatbushels Baconpounds Larddo	5,536,731 197,353 5,307,986	5,384,663 25,416 573,493	49,878,655 44,712,253 32,172,876	66,352,832 5,766,832 3,503,946	21,802,818 52,501,448 42,282,883	27,898,645 6,442,595 5,075,2 37
Germany: Corn. bushels. Wheat dour. do. Wheat flour. barrels. Lard. pounds. Lard, noutral do. Oleo oil. do. Hongkong: Wheat flour, bar- rels.	303,303 10,983,060 176,485 146,208,598 6,300,792 16,180,268	225,209 10,604,692 891,171 16,593,043 709,101 1,631,254	$15,785 \\ 2,652,128 \\ 8,240 \\ 3,878,433 \\ 312,933 \\ 1,001,252$	$\begin{array}{r} 16,500\\ 2,487,115\\ 42,841\\ 412,751\\ 44,176\\ 98,081 \end{array}$		
rels Italv:	1,141,095	4,501,672	626,978	2,840,779	356,263	1,620,227
Wheatbushels. Lardpounds. Japan: Wheat flourbarrels	1,839,830 5,958,983 793,269	1,789,400 616,948 3,045,532	47,122,740 4,123,209 68,542	66,538,785 451,326 279,315	31,441,667 3,487,719 54,475	38, 191, 428 390, 806 269, 609
Mexico: Cornbushels Wheatdo. Lardpounds Netherlands:	467,424 306,376 3,294,437	379.675 313,910 392,580	$1,587,420 \\ 296,581 \\ 3,191,515$	$\substack{1,388,902\\380,697\\365,024}$	3,678,934 17,624 8,736,712	3,083,408 22,982 966,395
Netherlands: Corn. bushels. Whe t. do. bushels. Whe t. thour barrels. Bacon. pounds. Lard. do. Lard. do. Lard. do. Norway: Oleo oil. do. Philippine Islands: Wheat flour. barrels. United Kingdom: Corn. bushels. Whe. do.	$\begin{array}{r} 373,770\\ 19,949,519\\ 958,063\\ 1,718,481\\ 43,469,536\\ 13,174,294\\ 47,414,121\\ 7,285,043\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 287,417\\ 19,380,347\\ 4,669,565\\ 204,260\\ 4,859,367\\ 1,438,696\\ 4,944,474\\ 764,333\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15,875,674\\ 31,551,992\\ 1,725,807\\ 8,284,647\\ 22,245,433\\ 9,847,645\\ 32,767,906\\ 9,954,544 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 12,969,747\\ 42,070,210\\ 10,553,446\\ 1,199,393\\ 2,589,995\\ 1,142,321\\ 3,637,839\\ 1,160,460 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 5,705,625\\21,070,335\\219,644\\12,846,176\\13,281,671\\9,059,503\\29,762,451\\14,062,716\end{array}$	4,699,487 26,224,787 1,318,349 1,632,440 1,467,341 1,152,883 3,558,189 1,796,590
flourbarrels	236,902	944,747	303,792	1,647,098	385, 371	1, 989, 941
Corn. bushels. Whe d flour barrels. Baccon pounds. If m and shoulders, do. Lard. do. Pork, pickled. do.	$\begin{array}{c} 540,515\\ 27,901,348\\ 2,809,800\\ 132,819,680\\ 146,697,141\\ 164,632,676\\ 9,243,952\\ 5,571,720\\ \end{array}$	1,010,834	$\begin{array}{c} 2,850,252\\ 65,911,501\\ 4,156,097\\ 201,012,923\\ 179,376,833\\ 189,349,874\\ 14,361,603\\ 6,534,240 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2,297,878\\ 80,039,502\\ 23,668,245\\ 28,388,432\\ 25,440,034\\ 20,650,513\\ 1,734,445\\ 700,078\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 5,627,128\\ 53,550,376\\ 3,145,030\\ 339,341,069\\ 251,025,795\\ 192,075,591\\ 30,657,569\\ 13,124,077\\ \end{array}$	4, 438, 126 67, 388, 601 17, 532, 505 48, 740, 987 35, 899, 072 21, 640, 498 3, 684, 779 1, 644, 441

TABLE 201.—Principal farm products exported to specified countries from the United States, 1914–1916.

 TABLE 202.—Shipments of principal domestic farm and forest products from the United

 States to Hawaii and Porto Rico, 1914–1916.

[These shipments are not included in the domestic exports from or imports into the United States.]

	Year ending June 30-									
Possession and article.	191	4	191	15	191	.6				
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.				
НАЖАП.	-									
Dairy productspounds Meat products Grain and grain products Ricepounds Lumber	5,031,515	562,516 528,960 2,221,197 216,252 876,544	974, 272	584, 141 542, 924 2, 493, 054 39, 755 1, 139, 434	4, 819, 844 191, 840	\$629, 825 883, 174 2, 322, 166 7, 307 1, 002, 976				
PORTO RICO. Dairy productspounds Meat products Beans and dried peas. bushels Grain and grain products Ricepounds Sugardo. Tobaccodo. Lumber	163,843 139,836,581 16,855,067 1,627,405	469,661	190, 793 127, 310, 116 12, 329, 041 1, 106, 120	672, 163 2, 756, 391 4, 851, 533 648, 414 178, 924		496, 177 3, 551, 170 795, 270 2, 994, 388 5, 596, 068 612, 041 285, 041 756, 434				

 TABLE 203.—Shipments of principal domestic farm products from Hawaii and Porto Rico to the United States, 1914-1916.

•			Year endin	g June 30—			
Possession and article.	1914		. 19	15	1916		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
HAWAII.							
Coffeepounds Pineapples, canned Sugarpounds		4,536,919		\$486,054 5,986,190 52,919,697	2,252,364 1,137,159,828	\$343, 829 6, 547, 055 54, 418, 095	
PORTO RICO.							
Grapefruitboxes. Orangesdo Pineapples. Molasses and sirupgallons Sugarpounds. Tobacco, leafdo	348, 870 15, 577, 832 641, 252, 527	751,769 752,088 1,245,215 927,227 20,239,831 2,961,614		834,356 378,092 1,723,694 658,661 27,277,839 2,951,804	404, 367 16, 279, 073	836,932 790,667 1,176,319 1,073,786 45,799,299 2,857,036	

TABLE 204.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1913-1916.

		Quar	ntity.	-	1	Per cent	of tota	1.
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.			Year end	ling June 30–	-			
signed.	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).
ANIMAL MATTER.								
Cattle: Canada United Kingdom	Number. 11,691 1,773 11,250	Number. 8,957	Number. 751 4,733	Number. 4,511 815 16,340	Per ct. 47.3 7.2 45.5	Per ct. 48.7 51.3	Per ct. 13.7 86.3	Per ct. 20.8 3.8 75.4
Other countries Total	24,714	9,419	5,484	21,666	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Horses: Canada United Kingdom Other countries	26, 560 430 1, 717	17,700 609 4,467	42,036 92,737 154,567	82,311 49,412 225,830	92.5 1.5 6.0	77.7 2.7 19.6	14.5 32.1 53.4	23.0 13.8 63.2
Total	28,707	22,776	289,340	357, 553	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Butter: Central American States and Brit- ish Honduras West Indies and	Pounds. 775, 246	Pounds. 810, 254	Pounds. 726, 552	Pounds. 931,774	21.6	21.9	7.4	6.9
Bermuda Other countries	$\substack{1,392,508\\1,417,846}$	$1,158,111 \\ 1,725,232$	$1,143,822 \\7,980,330$	1,517,306 11,054,199	38.8 39.6	$31.4 \\ 46.7$	$ \begin{array}{c} 11.6 \\ 81.0 \end{array} $	11.2 81.9
Total	3, 585, 600	3, 693, 597	9,850,704	13, 503, 279	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Meat products: Beef products— Beef, canned— United King- dom Other countries	3,117,149 3,723,199	1,157,104 2,307,629	64,700,738 10,542,523	3 7, 819, 212 12, 597, 478	45.6 54.4	$\begin{array}{c} 33.4\\ 66.6\end{array}$	86.0 14.0	75. 0 25. 0
Total	6,840,348	3,464,733	75, 243, 261	50, 416, 690	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Beef, fresh— Panama United King- dom Other countries	5,935,198 126,885 1,300,305	5, 534, 391 860, 013	3,706,596 54,497,192 112,237,146	1, 504, 403 117, 305, 639 112, 405, 033	80.6 1.7 17.7	86.6 13.4	2.2 32.0 65.8	.7 50.7 48.6
Total	7,362,388	6, 394, 404	170, 440, 934	231, 215, 075	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Beef, pickled, and other cured –	- Paul - Contract - Contract			·				
Canada Germany Newfoundland	712,086 3,080,823	$1,331,150 \\ 1,757,786$	1,659,165 378,548	5,047,349 400	2.8 11.9	5.7 7.6	5.2 1.2	13.3 0.0
and Labrador West Indiesand	3,807,237	4,935,657	4,331,261	5,027,163	14.7		13.6	13.2
Bermuda United King-	4,274,549	3,900,281	2,697,974	3,089,623	16.5	16.8	8.5	8.1
dom Other countries	5,929,949 8,052,275	4,113,347 7,227,753	10,994,101 11,813,694	12,003,390 12,892,757	$\begin{array}{c} 22.9\\ 31.2 \end{array}$	$17.7 \\ 31.0$	34.5 37.0	31.5 33.9
Total	25,856,919	23, 265, 974	31, 874, 743	38,060,682	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Oleo oil – Germany Netherlands Norway United King-	$\begin{array}{c} 17,480,760\\ 46,337,137\\ 6,607,526 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 16, 180, 268\\ 47, 414, 421\\ 7, 285, 043 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c}1,001,252\\32,767,906\\9,954,544\end{array}$	29,762,451 14,062,716	18.8 49.9 7.1	$ \begin{array}{r} 16.7 \\ 48.9 \\ 7.5 \end{array} $	1.2 40.7 12.4	29.0 13.7
dom Other countries	8,008,915 14,415,419	9,243,952 16,893,381	14,361,603 22,396,641	30,657,569 28,163,178	8.6 15.6	9.5 17.4	17.8 27.9	29.9 27.4
Total	92, 849, 757	97,017,065	80, 481, 946	102, 645, 914	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 204.—Destination	of	principal farm	products	exported	from t	the	United	States,
		1913-1916(Continue	d	-			

		Quar	ntity.		1	Per cent	of tota	1.
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.			Year en	ding June 30-	-			
signed.	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.)
ANIMAL MATTER-COD.								1
Mexico. United Kingdom.	Pounds. 17, 525, 703 4, 127, 593 21, 115, 679 24, 687, 857	Pounds. 14, 673, 201 3, 119, 285 19, 929, 949 20, 581, 129	Pounds. 19,046,472 3,772,943 26,357,467 20,803,732	Pounds. 11,895,200 4,597,585 18,486,477 17,864,049	Per ct. 26.0 6.1 31.3 36.6	$\begin{array}{c} Per \ ct. \\ 25.2 \\ 5.4 \\ 34.2 \\ 35.2 \end{array}$	Per ct. 27.2 5.4 37.7 29.7	Per ct. 22.5 8.7 35.0 33.8
Total	67, 456, 832	58,303,564	69,980,614	52,843,311	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Belgium. Canada. Cuba. France. Netherlands. United King-	9,140,688 6,868,480 6,658,202 2,096,868 7,639,281	$5,110,170 \\11,082,930 \\13,733,773 \\197,353 \\1,718,481$	$5,737,181 \\10,025,242 \\13,360,139 \\44,712,253 \\8,284,647$	60, 160, 749 39, 590, 591 13, 543, 082 52, 501, 448 12, 846, 176	4.5 3.4 3.3 1.0 3.8	2.6 5.7 7.1 .1 .9	$ \begin{array}{r} 1.7 \\ 2.9 \\ 3.9 \\ 12.9 \\ 2.4 \end{array} $	10. 4 6. 8 2. 3 9. 1 2. 2
Other countries	138, 133, 416 30, 456, 649	132, 819, 680 29, 301, 865	201,042,923 63,555,842	$339, 341, 069 \\ 61, 825, 671$		68, 5 15, 1	58.0 18.2	58.5
Total	200, 993, 584	193,964,252	346, 718, 227	579, 808, 786	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
ders, cured— Belgium. Canada. Cuba. United King- dom.	5,821,638 6,785,477 6,002,471 134,016,686 6,918,415	4,080,669 4,006,649 5,637,829 146,007,141 6,149,503	6, 596, 068 1, 514, 602 6,842, 425 179, 376, 833 9, 371, 186	2,792,605 2,673,658 11,493,464 251,025,795 14,223,089	3.6 4.3 3.8 84.0 4.3	2.5 2.4 3.4 88.0 3.7	$3.2 \\ .7 \\ 3.4 \\ 88.1 \\ 4.6$	1.0 .9 4.1 89.0 5.0
Total	159,544,687	165,881,791	203, 701, 114	282, 208, 611	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Belgium Canada Cuba France Germany Italy Mexico Netherlands United King-	$\begin{array}{c} 18,761,624\\ 11,079,696\\ 46,526,427\\ 17,428,157\\ 160,862,204\\ 6,106,153\\ 8,468,353\\ 43,383,774 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15,915,380\\ 15,995,669\\ 49,609,751\\ 5,307,986\\ 146,208,598\\ 5,958,983\\ 3,294,437\\ 43,469,536\end{array}$	5, 128, 630 7, 721, 616 45, 349, 283 32, 172, 876 3, 878, 433 4, 123, 209 3, 101, 515 22, 245, 433	70, 132, 156 6, 330, 140 53, 811, 784 42, 282, 883 3, 487, 719 8, 736, 712 13, 281, 671	$\begin{array}{c} 3.6\\ 2.1\\ 9.0\\ 3.4\\ 31.0\\ 1.2\\ 1.6\\ 8.4 \end{array}$	3.3 3.3 10.3 1.1 30.4 1.2 .7 9.0	$1.1 \\ 1.6 \\ 9.5 \\ 6.8 \\ .8 \\ .9 \\ .7 \\ 4.7$	16. 4 1. 5 12. 6 9. 9 . 8 2. 0 3. 1
dom Other countries	168,379,790 38,029,206	164, 632, 676 31, 064, 776	189, 349, 874 162, 371, 039	192,075,591 36,872,682	32.4 7.3	$\begin{array}{c} 34.2\\ 6.5 \end{array}$	$39.8 \\ 34.1$	45.0 8.7
Total	519,025,384	481, 457, 792	475,531,908	427,011,338	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Lard, neutral— Germany Netherlands Other countries	9,368,924 27,123,927 8,284,841	6,309,792 13,174,294 9,839,700	312,933 9,847,645 15,860,476	9,059,503 25,367,087	20.9 60.6 18.5	21.5 44.9 33.6	1.2 37.8 61.0	26. 3 73.7
Total	44,777,692	29, 323, 786	26,021,054	34, 426, 590	100.0	100.0	100. 0	100, 0
Pork, pickled— Canada Cuba Newfoundland and Labrador.	9, 436, 506 9, 141, 098 5, 672, 961	12,825,741 4,090,780 7,911,743	8,500,049 3,874,892 5,244,462	17, 835, 273 7, 846, 918 7, 070, 090	17.6 17.0 10.6	28.2 9.0 17.4	18.6 8.5 11.5	28.1 12.4 11.1
United King- dom Other countries	14, 619, 714 14, 878, 744	5, 571, 720 15, 143, 101	6,354,240 21,501,931	13, 124, 077 17, 584, 355	27.2 27.6	12.2 33.2	14.3 47.1	20.7
Total	53,749,023	45,543,085	45,655,574	63, 460, 713	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture.

	Quantity. Per cent of total.										
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.			Year end	ding June 30–	-						
u Buou.	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).			
VEGETABLE MATTER.											
Cotton: Austria-Hungary Belgium Canada France Germany Italy Japan. Mexico Russia, European Spain. United Kingdom Other countries	$\begin{array}{c} \textit{Pounds.} \\ 56, 591, 125 \\ 113, 483, 414 \\ 76, 007, 216 \\ 557, 493, 608 \\ 1, 221, 943, 252 \\ 250, 411, 639 \\ 198, 289, 341 \\ 10, 488, 465 \\ 27, 453, 772 \\ 1, 258, 449, 027 \\ 1, 558, 449, 027 \\ 42, 607, 881 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Pounds.\\ 53, 255, 407\\ 113, 736, 761\\ 75, 496, 339\\ 569, 609, 550\\ 1.442, 161, 777\\ 268, 678, 515\\ 176, 720, 027\\ 17, 335, 397\\ 49, 538, 075\\ 148, 669, 641\\ 1, 790, 750, 408\\ 54, 808, 581\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} Pounds.\\ 227,373\\ 2,528,388\\ 91,305,082\\ 346,349,629\\ 147,096,823\\ 563,700,142\\ 214,403,032\\ 19,863,621\\ 41,062,654\\ 232,251,950\\ 1,959,574,634\\ 784,825,141\\ \end{array}$	Pounds. 98, 816, 838 445, 187, 759 418, 457, 552 251, 538, 465 11, 847, 741 86, 724, 722 170, 122, 980 1, 580, 444, 961 220, 929, 107	Per ct. 1.2 2.5 1.7 11.8 26.8 5.5 4.3 .2 .8 3.5 40.7 1.0	$\begin{array}{c} Per ct. \\ 1.1 \\ 2.4 \\ 1.6 \\ 12.0 \\ 30.3 \\ 5.6 \\ 3.7 \\ .4 \\ 1.0 \\ 3.1 \\ 37.6 \\ 1.2 \end{array}$	Per ct. 0.0 .1 2.1 7.9 3.3 12.8 4.9 5.3 44.5 17.7	Per ct. 3.2 14.4 13.6 8.2 4 2.8 5.5 44.8 7.1			
Total	4,562,295,675	4,760,940,538	4,403,578,499	3,084,070,125	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Fruits: Apples, dried— Germany Netherlands Other countries	17, 970, 592 12, 846, 054 10, 757, 916	$17,645,697 \\9,147,104 \\6,773,359$	$108, 434 \\ 5, 200, 178 \\ 37, 280, 557$	1, 878, 251 14, 340, 923	43.2 30.9 25.9	52.6 27.3 20.1	.3 12.2 87.5	11.6 88.4			
Total	41, 574, 562	33, 566, 160	42, 589, 169	16, 219, 174	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Apples, fresh— Germany United Kingdom. Other countries	Barrels. 272, 382 1, 318, 426 559, 324	Barrels. 168, 792 827, 028 510, 749	Barrels. 1,747,396 604,105	Barrels. 874, 587 591, 734	$12.7 \\ 61.3 \\ 26.0$	$11.2 \\ 54.9 \\ 33.9$	74.3 25.7	59.6 40.4			
Total	2,150,132	1, 506, 569	2,351,501	1,466,321	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
A pricots, dried— France Germany Netherlands United Kingdom. Other countries.	Pounds. 4, 214, 153 7, 806, 944 3, 625, 314 13, 174, 672 6, 195, 647	Pounds. 3,074,146 3,841,032 2,064,471 4,473,534 3,948,509	Pounds. 1,911,296 289,850 1,285,632 9,017,358 11,260,206	Pounds. 2, 570, 491 2, 526, 953 5, 783, 717 13, 058, 629	12.0 22.3 10.4 37.6 17.7	$17.7 \\ 22.1 \\ 11.9 \\ 25.7 \\ 22.6$	$8.0 \\ 1.2 \\ 5.4 \\ 37.9 \\ 47.5$	10.6 10.6 24.2 54.6			
Total	35,016,730	17, 401, 692	23, 764, 342	23, 939, 790	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Oranges— Canada. Other countries	Boxes. 1,017,545 45,688	Boxes. 1,491,539 67,382	Boxes. 1, 682, 824 76, 581	Boxes. 1, 489, 746 85, 296	95.7 4.3	95.7 4.3	95 .6 4,4	94.6 5.4			
Total	1,063,233	1, 558, 921	1,759,405	1,575,042	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Prunes— Canada France. Germany United Kingdom. Other coaptries.	Pounds. 10, 956, 827 11, 952, 280 49, 084, 901 8, 492, 618 37, 454, 249	Pounds. 12, 757, 585 13, 514, 086 17, 417, 865 11, 175, 968 14, 948, 207	Pounds. 9,321,355 1,129,323 1,100 10,368,576 22,658,578	Pounds. 11,857,965 4,869,201 14,967,084 25,728,577	$9.3 \\10.1 \\41.6 \\7.2 \\31.8$	$18.3 \\ 19.4 \\ 24.9 \\ 16.0 \\ 21.4$	$21.4 \\ 2.6 \\ 0.0 \\ 23.8 \\ 52.2$	20.7 8.5 26.1 44.7			
Total	117, 950, 875	69, 813, 711	43, 478, 892	57, 422, 827	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Fruits, canned— United Kingdom. Other countries	Dollars. 3, 892, 646 1, 706, 727	Dollars. 3, 182, 051 1, 681, 895	Dollars. 4,924,824 1,139,941	Dollars. 5, 284, 344 1, 765, 692	69.5 30.5	65.4 34.6	81.2 18.8	75.0 25.0			
Total	5, 599, 373	4, 863, 946	6,064,765	7,050,036	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Glucose and grape sugar: United Kingdom Other countries	Pounds. 155, 597, 018 44, 552, 228	Pounds. 162, 715, 262 36, 815, 612	Pounds. 131, 751, 252 26, 711, 256	Pounds. 134, 636, 730 51, 749, 452	77.7 22.3	81.5 18.5	83.1 16.9	72.2 27.8			
Total	200, 149, 246	199, 530, 874	158, 462, 508	186, 386, 182	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			

TABLE 204.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1913-1916—Continued.

 TABLE 204.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1913-1916—Continued.

		Quar	tity.		1	Per cent	of tota	l.
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.			Year end	ling June 30—	-			
	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).
VEGETABLE MATTER- continued.								
Grain and grain prod- ucts:						1		
Corn-	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Per ct. 3.4	Per ct. 0.6	Per ct. 0.2	Per ct. 0.0
Belgium Canada	1,648,089 8,097,882 2,372,678 5,389,897	60,227 4,641,737 2,410,156	103,927 8,283,156 2,267,305 11,169,550 15,785	4,550 6,562,323 3,231,323 9,826,259	16.5	49.5	17.0	17.2
Cuba Denmark	2,372,678 5,389,897	2,410,156	2,267,305	3,231,323	4.8	25.7	$4.6 \\ 22.9$	8.5 25.7
Germany. Mexico. Netherlands.			15,785 1,587,420		13.3	$3.2 \\ 5.0$	0.0	9.6
Netherlands	7,192,420	373,770	15,875,674	5,705,625	14.7	4.0	32.5 5.8	14.9
United Kingdom. Other countries.	543,340 7,192,420 14,982,604 2,292,536	467,424 373,770 540,515 583,605	15 , 875, 674 2 , 850, 252 6 , 633, 222	3,678,934 5,705,625 5,627,128 3,580,870	30.5	$5.8 \\ 6.2$	13.7	14.7 9.4
Total	49,064,967		48,786,291	38,217,012	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wheat-	10 601 040	10 070 970	E 200 695	0.600.000	11.0	12.0	2.0	1.5
Belgium Canada France	10,601,248 851,139 4,931,708 12,112,223 7,217,479 6414,377	12,873,372 4,113,701 5,536,731 10,983,060	19,664,674	2,682,920 6,244,732 21,802,818	11.6	13.9 4.5	$2.0 \\ 7.6$	3.6
France Germany	4,931,708 12,112,223	5,536,731 10,983,060	49,878,655		5.4 13.2	6.0 11.9	19.2	12.6
Italy. Mexico.	7,217,479	1,839,830	47, 122, 740	31,441,667	7.9	2.0	18.1	18.1
Netherlands	14,832,000	19,949,519	31, 551,992	21,070,335	.7 16.2	21.6	12.2	0.0 12.2
United Kingdom. Other countries	644,377 14,832,000 31,548,507 8,864,293	10, 983, 000 1, 839, 830 306, 376 19, 949, 519 27, 961, 348 8, 829, 838	5, 320, 685 19, 664, 674 49, 878, 655 2, 652, 128 47, 122, 740 296, 581 31, 551, 992 65, 911, 501 37, 243, 577	31,441,667 17,624 21,070,335 53,550,376 36,463,543	34.4	30.3	25.4 14.4	30.9 21.1
Total	91,602,974	92,393,775	259, 642, 533	173,274,015	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wheat flour-	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.				
Brazil Canada	538,418	748,612 122,752	707,705	Barrels. 734,726 50,424 10,762	5.1	6.3 1.0	4.3	4.7
China	127,814	748,612 122,752 136,374 892,705	707,705 110,938 13,273 924,989	10,762	1.1	1.2	.1	7.2
Cuba. Finland	405,832		35,588	1, 124, 562	8.0	7.6	5.7	6.4
Germany	170,345 288,495	176,485 208,266 1,141,095 793,269	35, 588 8,240 11 2,620	221.455	1.5	1.5	.1	1.4
Haiti Hongkong	1,301,306	1,141,095	626,978	356, 263	11.4	1.8	3.9	2.3
Japan. Netherlands	Butrels. 538, 418 98, 665 127, 814 907, 784 405, 832 170, 345 288, 495 1, 301, 306 878, 623 859, 987	958,063	626,978 68,542 1,725,807	221,455 356,263 54,475 219,644	7.7	6.7	10.7	1.4
Philippine Is- lands	370, 939				3.3	2.0	1.9	2.5
United Kingdom. Other countries.	370,939 2,428,167 2,973,428	236,902 2,809,800 3,167,784	303,792 4,156,097 7,388,196	385,371 3,145,030 9,217,957	21.3	23.8 26.7	25.7	20.3 59.4
Total,	11,394,805	11,821,461	16, 182, 765	15, 520, 669	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Hops:	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.				
Canada United Kingdom	1,035,729 15,409,003	1,214,028 22,219,620 829,248	1,071,601 13,823,889 1,314,953	626, 126 19, 703, 283 2, 080, 409	5.9 87.6	5.0 91.6	6.6 85.3	2.8 87.9
Other countries	1, 146, 373	829, 248	1, 314, 953	2,080,409	6.5	3.4	8.1	9.3
Total	17, 591, 195	24, 262, 896	16, 210, 443	22, 409, 818	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Oll cake and oil-cake meal: Cottonseed—								
Belgium	38,953,330	19,685,564	223,100 1,067,161,664	010 700 007	3.5	2.5	0.0	70
Denmark Germany	364, 266, 905	240, 348, 664	6,819,250	812,720,685	38.1 32.3	43.4 30.0 2.8	72.2	76.8
Netherlands United Kingdom.	429, 490, 872 364, 266, 905 62, 479, 858 163, 960, 512	22, 310, 420	15,469,040	4,818,400 105,360,887 135,021,597	5.5 14.5	2.8 16.4	1.0 11.8	. 8
Other countries	68,940,890	19,085,504 347,584,172 240,348,664 22,310,420 131,292,496 38,752,936	6,819,250 15,469,040 173,948,786 215,443,175	135,021,597	6.1	4.9	14.5	10.0
Total	1,128,092,367	799, 974, 252	1,479,065,015	1,057,921,569	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

		Qua	ntity.			Pe r cen	t of tots	d
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.			Year end	ling June 30–	-			
	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).
VEGETABLE MATTER continued.								
Oil cake and oil-cake meal-Continued. Linseed or flax- seed Belgium- France Netherlands United Kingdom. Other countries.	Pounds. 330, 952, 259 49, 700, 150 301, 513, 427 53, 796, 998 12, 156, 820	Pounds. 332,697,680 20,671,619 266,792,954 29,084,892 13,621,494	Pounds. 26,931,718 1,375,773 431,248,843 22,829,656 42,408,444	Pounds. 13,100 445,707,867 25,532,292 169,662,945	Per ct. 39.5 5.9 46.7 6.4 1.5	Perct. 50.2 3.1 40.2 4.4 2.1	$5.1 \\ .3 \\ 82.2 \\ 4.4 \\ 8.0$	Perct. 0.0 69.5 4.0 26.5
Total	838, 119, 654	662,868,639	524,794,434	640,916,204	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Oils, vegetable: Cottonseed— Argentina. Austria-Hungary. Belgium Canada. France. Germany Italy. Mexico. Netherlands. Norway. Turkey, European United Kingdom. Other countries.	$\begin{matrix} 14,708,379\\ 8,475,683\\ 1,970,255\\ 25,227,397\\ 17,924,337\\ 39,516,645\\ 23,743,576\\ 43,93,314\\ 8,986,253\\ 12,556,417\\ 131,845,444\\ 41,488,880 \end{matrix}$	$\begin{matrix} 14,959,927\\4,211,198\\3,452,229\\25,493,039\\8,268,808\\7,652,622\\14,015,326\\6,219,064\\4,015,326\\6,219,064\\4,947,994\\4,947,994\\4,947,994\\31,071,865\\38,630,745\end{matrix}$	$\begin{array}{c} {\bf 17, 314, 259}\\ {\bf 70, 394}\\ {\bf 11, 646}\\ {\bf 20, 578, 973}\\ {\bf 8, 425, 210}\\ {\bf 62, 871}\\ {\bf 15, 782, 234}\\ {\bf 4, 821, 390}\\ {\bf 90, 979, 466}\\ {\bf 26, 442, 259}\\ {\bf 354, 910}\\ {\bf 354, 910}\\ {\bf 84, 378, 878}\\ {\bf 49, 144, 035} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 9,275,577\\ \hline \\ 35,438,474\\ 33,500,328\\ \hline \\ 9,424,790\\ 2,674,740\\ 56,981,676\\ 31,055,628\\ \hline \\ 32,112,143\\ 56,066,604 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.7\\ 2.76\\ 8.0\\ 5.7\\ 4.3\\ 12.5\\ 7.5\\ 23.9\\ 2.9\\ 4.0\\ 10.1\\ 13.1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 7.8\\ 2.2\\ 1.8\\ 13.2\\ 4.3\\ 4.0\\ 7.3\\ 3.2\\ 14.0\\ 3.6\\ 2.6\\ 16.1\\ 19.9 \end{array}$	$5.4 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 6.5 \\ 2.6 \\ 0.0 \\ 5.0 \\ 1.5 \\ 28.6 \\ 8.3 \\ .1 \\ 26.5 \\ 15.5$	3.5 13.3 12.6 3.5 1.0 21.4 11.7 12.0 21.0
Total	315, 232, 892	192, 963, 079	318,366,525	266, 529, 960	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Tobacco, leaf, stems, and trimmings: Belgium. British Africa. British Africa. British Oceania. Canada. Chma. France. Germany. Italy. Japan. Netherlands. Span. United Kingdom. Other countries.	$\begin{array}{c} 17, 516, 283\\ 16, 309, 480\\ 6, 641, 628\\ 49, 131, 788\\ 30, 054, 681\\ 44, 779, 059\\ 5, 266, 034\\ 26, 688, 355\\ 23, 081, 022\\ 150, 110, 570\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11, 677, 604\\ 6, 600, 312\\ 13, 186, 680\\ 17, 688, 562\\ 11, 445, 697\\ 54, 915, 178\\ 32, 057, 051\\ 45, 190, 905\\ 3, 696, 273\\ 28, 233, 746\\ 16, 822, 696\\ 16, 822, 696\\ 174, 779, 326\\ 33, 455, 862\\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1, 131, 439\\ 4, 655, 691\\ 9, 042, 967\\ 16, 156, 268\\ 3, 478, 641\\ 37, 710, 975\\ 10, 018, 503\\ 24, 279, 246\\ 3, 110, 555\\ 21, 223, 143\\ 7, 030\\ 189, 345, 349\\ 28, 186, 284\\ \end{array}$	7, 820, 355 19, 784, 653 18, 621, 186 8, 908, 844 82, 977, 894 39, 276, 163 1, 158, 083 56, 928, 306 8, 647, 232 150, 639, 054 56, 807, 811	2.4 2.0 4.2 3.9 1.6 11.7 7.2 10.7 1.3 6.4 5.5 35.8 7.3	$\begin{array}{c} 2.6\\ 1.5\\ 2.9\\ 3.9\\ 2.5\\ 12.2\\ 7.1\\ 10.0\\ .8\\ 6.3\\ 3.7\\ 38.9\\ 7.6\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} .3\\ 1.3\\ 2.6\\ 4.6\\ 1.0\\ 10.8\\ 2.9\\ 7.0\\ .9\\ 6.1\\ 0.0\\ 54.4\\ 8.1\end{array}$	1.8 2.2 4.2 2.0 18.7
Total	418,796,906	449,749,982	348, 346, 091	441, 569, 581	100.0	100.0	100.0_	1,00.0
FOREST PRODUCTS.				[
Naval stores: Rosin— Argentina. Austria-Hungary. Brazil. Canada. Germany. Italy. Netherlands. Russia, European United Kingdom, Other countries.	$\begin{array}{c} 141,013\\ 180,701\\ 86,702\\ 809,745\\ 116,019\\ 228,360 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \textit{Barrels.} \\ 102,028\\ 66,257\\ 111,735\\ 99,632\\ 77,064\\ 796,757\\ 109,380\\ 247,339\\ 144,653\\ 504,400\\ 158,705 \end{array}$	Barrels. 143,407 80,267 105,529 74,113 53,331 94,217 48,883 5,447 500,545 206,577	Barrels. 97, 306 132, 545 120, 146 117, 740 18, 175 70, 537 557, 611 457, 219	4.7 3.0 5.0 6.4 3.1 28.9 4.1 5.1 22.5 9.1	$\begin{array}{r} \textbf{4.2}\\ \textbf{2.7}\\ \textbf{4.6}\\ \textbf{4.1}\\ \textbf{3.2}\\ \textbf{33.0}\\ \textbf{4.5}\\ \textbf{10.2}\\ \textbf{6.0}\\ \textbf{20.9}\\ \textbf{6.6} \end{array}$	10.4 5.8 7.7 5.4 3.9 6.9 3.6 .4 36.5 19.4	6.2 8.4 7.5 1.2 4.5 35.5 29.1
	2, 506, 016							

 TABLE 204.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1913-1916—Continued.

¹ Australia only, for the six months, Jan. 1 to June 30, 1916.

 TABLE 204.—Destination of principal farm products exported from the United States, 1913-1916—Continued.

		Quan	tity.		נ	Per cent	oftota	1.
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.			Ycar end	ling June 30–	-	1		
	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).
FOREST PRODUCTS			•					
Naval stores—Contd. Turpentine, spirits	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Per ct.	Perci.	Per ct.	Per ct.
Belgium British Oceania	1,872,893 686,989	1,027,355 499,248	113,672 708,843	1 586,780	8.9 3.3	5.4	1.2 7.5	6.3
Canada	1,039,768	1.114.863	917,912 196,622	1,026,511	4.9 18.3	5.9 17.3	9.7 2.1	11.0
Germany Netherlands	4,242,340	3,275,929 4,393,902 7,109,851	625,736	442,682	20.2	23.2	6.6	4.8
United Kingdom Other countries	1, 872, 893 686, 989 1,039, 768 3, 849, 191 4,242, 340 7, 432, 271 1, 916, 145	7,109,851 1,479,556	$\begin{array}{r} 625,736\\ 5,338,724\\ 1,562,611 \end{array}$	442,682 5,561,957 1,692,038	35.3 9.1	37.6 7.9	56.4 16.5	50.7 18.2
Total	21,039,597	18,900,704	9,464,120	9,309,968	100.0	100.0	160.0	100.0
Wood: Lumber— Boards, deals, planks,joists, a n d seant- ling— Argentina Brazil British Oceania Canada Central Ameri- con States	<i>M ft.</i> 248,303 78,602 69,823 200,473 545,257	M ft. 208,177 62,772 38,125 203,009 434,399	<i>M ft.</i> 66,754 8,793 10,370 187,439 182,734	<i>M ft.</i> 86,884 8,107 148,855 140,650	9.6 3.1 2.7 10.1 21.2	8.6 2.6 1.6 12.1 18.0	5.9 .8 .9 16.5 16.1	7. 4 12. 6 12. 0
can States and British Honduras	56 500	81,251	45 777	40 251	2.2	3.4	4.0	4.2
China	56,509 88,749 137,982 30,202 83,752 41,210	107, 115 122, 938	45,777 56,238 88,000	49,351 30,746	3.4	4.4	5.0	2.6
Cuba France	30,202	39,563	6.145	174,676 12,722	5.4 1.2	5.1	7.8	14.8
Germany	83,752 44,319	69,852	7,983		3.3	2.9 2.2	.7	3.8
Italy	121,657	53,623 69,111	20,662 31,296	40,831 45,616	1.7	2.9	1.8	3.9
Netherlands Philippine Is-	125,201	120,661	17,218	2,789	4.9	5.0	1.5	.2
lands United King-	15,747	22,485	6,623	4,833	.6	.9	.6	.4
dom. Other countries	333,390 336,147	332,457 361,901	260,098 139,082	275,726 154,976	12.9 13.0	$13.8 \\ 14.9$	22.9 12.2	23.4 13.2
Total	2,576,233	2, 417, 439	1,135,212	1, 176, 765	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Timber, hewn and sawed—								
Canada	39,705	37,846	15,382	12,812 2,859	7.8	8.6	8.9	6.4
France	39,050 32,023	32,047 17,506	6,192 2,337		7.8	7.3	$3.6 \\ 1.3$	1.4
Italy	44,726 60,692	65,314 57,776 186,906 43,771	2, 337 25, 763 6, 733 99, 318 18,004	29,946	8.7	14.8 13.1	$14.8 \\ 3.9$	14.
Notherlands United Kingdom.	213,016	186,906	99,318	9,008 117,221 29,269	11.9	42,4	57.1	58.
Other countries	81, 525	43,771	18,064	29,269	15.9	9,8	10.4	14.4
Total	511,637	441,166	173,789	201,205	100.0	100,0	160.0	100.0

¹ Australia only for the six months, Jan. 1 to June 30, 1916.

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		Quan	tity.		I	er cent	of total	
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.	•		Year end	ling June 30–	-			
Signed.	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).
ANIMAL MATTER.								
Cattle: Mexico Other countries	Number. 391, 477 30, 172	Number. 625, 253 243, 115	Number. 343,809 194,358	Number. 197, 788 241, 397	Per ct. 92.8 7.2	Per ct. 72.0 28.0	Per ct. 64.2 35.8	Per ct. 45.0 55.0
Total	421,649	868,368	538, 167	439, 185	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Horses: Canada France Other countries	2,063 1,925 6,020	4,435 1,171 27,413	3,515 235 8,902	6, 244 113 9, 199	20.6 19.2 60.2	$13.4 \\ 3.5 \\ 83.1$	$27.8 \\ 1.8 \\ 70.4$	40.1 .7 59.2
Total	10,008	33,019	12,652	15, 556	100.0	100.0	100.0	100. 0
Dairy products: Cheese, including substitutes— France	Pounds. 3,982,513 21,326,445 17,371,616 6,707,370	Pounds. 5, 418, 904 26, 453, 826 22, 490, 006 9, 421, 577	Pounds. 3,554,297 25,662,362 14,766,682 6,155,179	Pounds. 2, 321, 543 16, 084, 059 9, 514, 008 2, 168, 389	$8.1 \\ 43.2 \\ 35.2 \\ 13.5$	8.541.535.314.7	7.1 51.2 29.5 12.2	7.7 53.5 31.6 7.2
Total	49, 387, 944	63, 784, 313	50, 138, 520	30, 087, 999	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Fibers, animal: Silk, raw— China. Italy. Japan. Other countries.	5,510,607 2,811,606 17,425,353 301,906	5,926,745 1,997,428 20,196,212 474,287	5,097,169 2,610,570 18,217,083 106,103	7, 419, 616 2, 545, 845 22, 914, 898 190, 543	$21.2 \\ 10.8 \\ 66.9 \\ 1.1$	20.7 7.0 70.6 . 1.7	19.6 10.0 70.0 .4	22.4 7.7 69.3 .6
Total	26, 049, 472	28, 594, 672	26,030,925	33,070,902	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wool, class 1— Argentina Australia, Com- monwealth of Belgium New Zealand United Kingdom Uruguay Other countries	$22,603,402 \\5,619,342 \\266,930 \\6,306,874 \\29,368,707 \\2,657,620 \\415,840$	30,959,660 23,757,714 4,581,419 4,710,748 45,223,714 7,972,159 7,883,347	$\begin{array}{c} 65,373,017\\ 66,063,841\\ 3,002,967\\ 413,679\\ 38,897,503\\ 14,612,703\\ 33,653,710 \end{array}$	110, 085, 992 157, 433, 859 16, 697, 578 30, 188, 711 8, 941, 506 79, 773, 939	33.6 8.4 9.4 43.7 4.0 .5	24.8 19.0 3.7 3.8 36.2 6.4 6.1	29.4 29.8 1.4 .2 17.5 6.6 15.1	27.3 39.1 4.1 7.4 2.2 19.9
Total	67, 238, 715	125,088,761	222,017,420	403, 121, 585	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wool, class 2— Canada United Kingdom. Other countries	243,90813,505,1513,137,387	4, 542, 139 12, 301, 661 1, 995, 898	5,094,660 8,607,638 1,352,396	4,930,170 4,135,963 4,226,027	$1.4 \\ 80.0 \\ 18.6$	$24.1 \\ 65.3 \\ 10.6$	33 .8 57.2 9.0	37.1 31.1 31.8
Total	16,886,446	18, 839, 698	15, 054, 694	13, 292, 160	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wool, class 3- Argentina British East In-	2,337,196	5, 452, 526	10, 509, 249	14,670,272	2.1	5.3 2.7	16.0 1.3	13.4 2.8
dies China Russia (Asiatie	3,962,811 35,926,815	2, 788, 130 29, 884, 054	859,121 35,455,392	3,025,191 44,192,310	32.3	29.3	54.0	40.4
and European). Turkey (Asiatic). United Kingdom. Other countries.	$\begin{array}{c} 25, 645, 077 \\ 7, 394, 257 \\ 20, 900, 746 \\ 15, 001, 192 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 22,627,514\\ 5,350,091\\ 22,105,267\\ 13,795,731 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2,273,360\\ 2,486,957\\ 10,233,744\\ 3,891,929 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 2,562,854\\ 42,560\\ 25,969,190\\ 18,806,622 \end{array}$	23.1 6.7 18.8 13.4	22.2 5.2 21.7 13.6	3.5 3.8 15.6 5.8	$2.3 \\ 0.0 \\ 23.8 \\ 17.3$
Total	111, 168, 094	102,003,313	65, 709, 752	109, 268, 999	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 205.—Origin of principal farm products imported into the United States, 1913-1916.

TABLE 205.—Origin	of	principal j	farm	products	imported	into	the	United	States,
	-	1913	-1916	-Continu	1ed.				

Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.	Quantit y.				Per cent of total.				
	Year ending June 30								
	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.)	
ANIMAL MATTER- continued.									
Packing-house prod-									
ucts: Hides and skins,									
other than furs- Calf skins-	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Per ct.	Per ct.	Per ct.	Per ct.	
Belgium Canada	4,724,643 5,930,010	$\begin{array}{c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 157 & 640 \\ 5 & 734 & 207 \\ 5 & 800 & 673 \\ 16 & 560 & 516 \\ 12 & 006 & 926 \end{array}$	978, 751 4, 441, 310 7, 406, 904 2, 613, 289 4, 152, 980		5.0	$ \begin{array}{r} 6.3 \\ 7.0 \end{array} $	2.1	7.2	
France Germany	4,991,299	5,800,673	7,406,904	4,612,406 7,994,908	6.3 5.3	7.0	9.7 16.1	12.5	
Germany Netherlands	4,991,299 16,916,203 8,142,510	16,560,316	2,613,289	8,750,387	17.9 8.6	20.1 14.6	5.7 9.0	13.6	
Russia (Euro-				0,100,001				13.0	
pean) Other countries	30,247,647 23,606,823	19, 747, 462 17, 396, 366	$\begin{array}{c c}1,471,713\\24,901,754\end{array}$	42, 777, 792	32.0 24.9	24.0 21.0	$3.2 \\ 54.2$	66.7	
Total	94, 559, 135	82, 403, 590	45, 966, 701	64, 135, 493	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Cattle hides-									
Argentina Belgium	67,041,938 7,106,337	79, 787, 332 7, 313, 906 3, 259, 873 46, 588, 543 5, 098, 244 5, 528, 502	113,366,344 3 416 605	149, 537, 519	$25.0 \\ 2.7$	28.5 2.6	33.9 1.0	34.4	
Brazil	1,743,956	3, 259, 873	23, 223, 310	59, 362, 639	.7	1.2	6.9	13.7	
Canada Colombia	41,608,176	46, 588, 543	33, 394, 505	59, 362, 639 27, 217, 476 10, 736, 678	$ \begin{array}{c} 15.5 \\ 2.0 \end{array} $	16.6 1.8	10.0 2.5	6.3 2.5 3.7	
Cuba	2,840,141	5, 528, 502	15, 260, 111	16,068,265 19,388,264 2,885,199 654	1.1	2.0	4.6	3.7	
East Indies France	20,102,370	4,474,768	5,705,638	19,388,264	$2.6 \\ 7.5$	1.6 6.8	$ \begin{array}{c} 1.7 \\ 2.4 \end{array} $	4.5	
Germany	$\begin{array}{c} 0, 041, 938\\ 7, 106, 337\\ 1, 743, 956\\ 41, 603, 176\\ 5, 461, 505\\ 2, 840, 141\\ 6, 929, 176\\ 20, 102, 370\\ 9, 787, 312\\ 2, 411, 973\end{array}$	5,528,502 4,474,768 19,036,552 4,989,795	811,463	654	3.7	1.8	.2	0.0	
Italy Mexico	2,411,973 29,500,427 7,270,864	$1,967,552 \\33,194,289$	43, 384, 173	42, 873, 741	.9 11.0	.7	1.3 13.0	9.9	
Netherlands Russia (Euro-	7, 270, 864	4, 099, 899	$\begin{array}{c} 113, 366, 364\\ 3, 416, 605\\ 23, 223, 310\\ 33, 394, 505\\ 8, 394, 503\\ 15, 260, 111\\ 5, 705, 638\\ 7, 951, 693\\ 811, 463\\ 3, 125, 932\\ 43, 384, 173\\ 2, 870, 004 \end{array}$	4, 214, 621	2.7	1.5	.9	1.0	
pean) United King-	22, 906, 231	9,043,103	693,102		8.5	3.2	.2		
uom	8, 588, 600	11, 204, 957	6, 514, 409	6,578,567	3.2	4.0	1.9	1.5	
Uruguay	8, 588, 600 7, 244, 806 4, 470, 501	13, 403, 443	21,809,611 7,033,582	6,578,567 43,497,431 7,530,524	2.7	4.8	6.5	10.0	
Venezuela Other countries	23, 028, 077	13, 403, 443 5, 149, 398 25, 823, 332	37, 386, 432	44, 286, 193	$1.7 \\ 8.5$	1.8 9.2	$\begin{array}{c} 2.1\\ 10.9 \end{array}$	1.7 10.1	
Total	268, 042, 390	279, 963, 488	334, 341, 417	434, 177, 771	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Goatskins- Aden	3, 129, 594	3, 595, 909	2 291 012	4 151 509	3.3	4.2	3 4	4.1	
Africa	3, 129, 594 2, 625, 746	3, 595, 909 2, 817, 948 3,470,013	1, 440, 984	4,151,509 6,901,232 6,337,138	$3.3 \\ 2.7$	3.3	$3.4 \\ 2.2$	6.9	
Argentina Brazil	4,276,365 3,357,781	3,470,013 4,191,124	3,738,020 4,260,495	6,337,138	$\frac{4.4}{3.5}$	$4.1 \\ 4.9$	$5.6 \\ 6.4$	6.3 6.9	
Brazil China	4,276,365 3,357,781 9,827,646 41, 594,938	7, 304, 761	2, 291, 012 1, 440, 984 3, 738, 020 4, 260, 495 7, 897, 387 28, 651, 497 1, 801, 445	6, 919, 497 15, 084, 600 40, 877, 117 071, 849	10.2	8.6	11.9	15.0	
East Indies France	41 , 594, 938 2, 406, 371	3,40,013 4,191,124 7,304,761 35,831,857 2,171,224 4,010,150	28,651,497	40, 877, 117 971, 848	$\frac{43.2}{2.5}$	$\begin{array}{c} 42.3\\ 2.6\end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 43.1 \\ 2.8 \end{array} $	40.6	
Mexico	4, 815, 304	4, 010, 150	$1,891,445\\3,507,940$	3,833,616	5.0	4.7	5.3	3.8	
Russia (Euro- pean). United King-	7, 183, 542	5,131,075	1,556,154		7.5	6.1	2.3		
dom Other countries	5, 436, 922 11, 596, 096	5,281,468 10,953,899	4,089,212 7,223,017	5,936,107 9,644,357	5.6 12.1	$\begin{array}{c} 6.2 \\ 13.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.1 \\ 10.9 \end{array}$	5.9 9.5	
Total	96, 250, 305	84, 759, 428	66, 547, 163	100, 657, 021	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Sheepskins-	@ 040 00E	2 974 014	0 000 000	12 202 007	0.5		14.0	10.1	
Argentina Brazil	6,848,065 993,321	3,874,944 1,582,333	8,689,826 1,384,888	13,308,025 3,257,445	$9.5 \\ 1.4$	$\frac{5.5}{2.3}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 14.8 \\ 2.4 \\ \hline \end{array} $	13.1 3.2	
British Oceania Canada	8,179,576	9,848,498	11,007,719	8,838,626	11.4	14.1	18.7	8.7	
France	993,321 8,179,576 1,860,948 2,999,829	9, 848, 498 3, 678, 117 2, 221, 769	11,007,719 4,102,461 823,209	3,105,651 2,089,161	$\begin{array}{c} 2.6\\ 4.2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 5.2\\ 3.2 \end{array}$	$7.0 \\ 1.4$	$3.2 \\ 2.1$	
Russia (Euro-	8, 484, 377	9, 158, 287	826, 898	22, 840	11.8	13.1	1.4	0,0	
united King-									
dom Other countries	$28,885,579\\13,533,024$	26, 384, 892 13, 327, 985	22,616,881 9,267,656	33,287,127 37,550,406	40.2 18.9	$\begin{array}{c} 37.7\\ 18.9 \end{array}$	38.5 15.8	32.8 36.9	
Total	71, 784, 719	70,076,825	58, 719, 538	101, 459, 281	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

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Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.	Quantity.				Per cent of total.				
	Year ending June 30-								
	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	
VEGETABLE MATTER.									
Cocoa, crude: Brazil British West Indies Dominican Re-	Pounds. 14, 354, 460 29, 588, 055	Pounds. 25,870,186 44,062,426	Pounds. 19,708,616 40,728,851	Pounds. 45,657,401 39,933,405	Per ct. 10.3 21.1	Per ct. 14.7 25.0	Per ct. 10.2 21.2	Per ct. 18.8 16.4	
public. Ecuador. Portugal United Kingdom Other countries	$\begin{array}{c} 27,241,763\\ 15,229,159\\ 23,040,617\\ 11,603,464\\ 18,921,654 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 26,782,966\\ 26,319,735\\ 17,738,638\\ 12,903,640\\ 22,590,055 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 46,620,464\\ 33,418,752\\ 3,516,655\\ 21,062,767\\ 27,250,529 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 48,990,707\\ 31,878,350\\ 7,531,924\\ 13,408,058\\ 55,832,094 \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 19.5 \\ 10.9 \\ 16.5 \\ 8.3 \\ 13.4 \end{array} $	$15.2 \\ 14.9 \\ 10.1 \\ 7.3 \\ 12.8$	$24.2 \\ 17.4 \\ 1.8 \\ 11.0 \\ 14.2$	$ \begin{array}{c} 20.1 \\ 13.1 \\ 3.1 \\ 5.5 \\ 23.0 \\ \end{array} $	
Total	140,039,172	176, 267, 646	192, 306, 634	243,231,939	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Coffee: Brazil. Central American States and Brit-	639, 202, 011	743, 113, 500	773, 400, 315	849, 405, 925	74.1	74.2	69.1	70.7	
ish Honduras Colonidia East Indies Mexico. Netherlands Venezuela	$\begin{array}{c} 32,172,524\\ 89,684,514\\ 7,559,765\\ 26,121,439\\ 1,956,676\\ 49,671,060 \end{array}$	40, 202, 480 91, 830, 513 8, 673, 941 49, 385, 504 5, 811, 934 49, 953, 478	$\begin{array}{c} 75,350,258\\111,077,449\\11,354,631\\52,706,120\\1,5^{<}3,672\\72,463,140\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 95,573,010\\ 109,363,456\\ 6,274,413\\ 49,832,801\\ 50,896\\ 73,405,301 \end{array}$	3.7 10.4 .9 3.0 .2 5.8	$\begin{array}{c} 4.0\\ 9.2\\ .7\\ 4.9\\ .6\\ 5.0\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 6.7 \\ 9.9 \\ 1.0 \\ 4.7 \\ .1 \\ 6.5 \end{array}$	8.0 9.1 .5 4.1 0.0 6.1	
West Indies and Bermuda Other countries	4,110,032 12,592,736	4,711,269 7,845,698	16,230,552 4,524,387	10,072,668 7,126,015	.5 1.4	.5	1.4 .6	- 8	
Total	863, 130, 757	1,001,528,317	1,118,690,524	1,201,104,485	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Fibers, vegetable: Cotton- Egypt Pert. United Kingdom. Other countries.	94, 333, 483 4, 871, 835 8, 354, 253 14, 202, 445	63,668,055 6,455,946 2,557,041 50,665,857	117, 596, 646 5, 262, 394 3, 417, 851 58, 927, 688	171, 528, 669 4, 934, 448 14, 227, 785 42, 110, 160	77.4 4.0 6.9 11.7	51.6 5.2 2.1 41.1	63.5 2.8 1.8 31.9	73.7 2.1 6.1 18.1	
Total	121,852,016	123, 346, 899	185, 204, 579	232,801,062	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Flax— Belgium Russia,European United Kingdom. Other countries	Long tons. 1,919 4,450 4,464 1,588	Long tons. 1,266 2,735 5,076 808	Long tons. 122 336 3,767 469	Long tons. 20 2,521 3,209 1,189	$ \begin{array}{r} 15.4 \\ 35.8 \\ 35.9 \\ 12.9 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 12.8 \\ 27.7 \\ 51.4 \\ 8.1 \end{array} $	2.6 7.2 80.3 9.9	.3 36.3 46.2 17.2	
Total	12,421	9,885	4,694	6,939	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Jute and jute butts— British East In- dies	120, 511 4, 878	100,755 5,278	80,444 2,696	99 ,780 8,542	96.1 3.9	95.0 • 5.0	96.8 3.2	92. 1 7. 9	
Total	125,389	106,033	83,140	108,322	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Manila fiber— Philippino Is- lands Other countries	69,629 4,191	49, 2 85 403	50, 587 494	78, 809 83	94.3 5.7	99.2 .8	99.0 1.0	99. 9 . 1	
Total	73, 823	49,688	51,081	78,892	100. Ò	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Sisal grass— Mexico. Other countries	136,559 17,310	195,086 20,461	175,884 9,880	220,994 7,616	88.8 11.2	90.5 9.5	94.7 5.3	96.7 3.3	
Total	153, 869	215, 517	185,764	228,610	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 205.—Origin of principal farm products imported into the United States, 1913-1916—Continued.

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Imports and Exports of Agricultural Products.

TABLE 205.—Origin	of	principal farm 1913-1916	products Continu	imported	into	the	United	States,
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	Quantity.					Per cent of total.				
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.	Year ending June 30-									
ыднец.	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).		
VEGETABLE MATTER- continued.										
Fruits: Bananas- British West In- dies Central American	Bunches. 11, 164, 894	Bunches. 15,677,191	Bunches. 11,957,935	Bunches. 4,691,518	Per ct. 26.4	Per ct. 32.2	Per ct. 29.1	Per ct. 12.8		
States and Brit- ish Honduras Cuba South America Other countries	25, 108, 590 2, 213, 733 2, 869, 247 1, 000, 645	25, 432, 760 2, 354, 395 2, 271, 866 2, 947, 380	22,470,600 2,708,624 1,567,461 2,386,965	24,691,566 2,859,021 2,710,047 1,799,552	$59.3 \\ 5.2 \\ 6.8 \\ 2.3$	52.1 4.8 4.7 6.2	$54.7 \\ 6.6 \\ 3.8 \\ 5.8$	67.2 7.8 7.4 4.8		
Total	42, 357, 109	48,683,592	41,091,585	36,754,704	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
Nuts: Walnuts Austria-Hungary France. Italy. Turkey (Asiatic). Other countries.	Pounds. 4,409 20,379,294 3,315,483 424,418 2,538,837	Pounds. 514,455 19,020,143 6,275,717 1,712,209 9,673,204	Pounds. 18,716,938 6,440,934 16,135 8,271,831	Pounds. 22, 443, 477 8, 489, 385 5, 926, 072	.0 76.4 12.4 1.6 9.6	1.4 51.1 16.9 4.6 26.0	56.0 19.3 .0 24.7	60.9 23.0		
Total	26,662,441	37, 195, 728	33, 445, 838	36,858,934	100.0	100.0	160.0	100.0		
Oil, vegetable: Olive, salad— France Italy Other countries	Gallons. 932, 536 3, 581, 945 703, 520	Gallons. 949,858 4,319,567 948,135	Gallons. 802,092 4,864,388 1,044,487	Gallons. 895,369 4,696,812 1,632,250	17.9 68.7 13.4	$15.3 \\ 69.5 \\ 15.2$	12.0 72.5 15.5	12.4 65.0 22.0		
Total	5,221,001	6,217,560	6,710,967	7,224,431	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.		
Soya-bean oil— Japan United Kingdom. Other countries	Pounds. 7,979,144 2,523,321 1,837,720	Pounds. 6,425,306 1,453,932 8,481,214	Pounds. 5,471,911 906,134 12,828,476	Pounds. 70,384,049 187,722 27,547,924	$ \begin{array}{r} 64.7 \\ 20.4 \\ 14.9 \end{array} $	39.3 8.9 51.8	28.5 4.7 66.8	71. 28.		
Total	12,340,185	16,360,452	19,206,521	98, 119, 695	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.		
Opium: Turkey (Asiatic and European) United Kingdom Other countries	420,406 61,782 26,245	383, 489 39, 372 32, 330	440,529 38,258 5,240	27, 883 62, 665 56, 110	-82.7 12.2 5.1	83.2 8.6 8.2	91.0 7.9 1.1	19. 42. 38.		
Total	508,433	455,200	484,027	146,658	100.0	100.0	160.0	100.		
Seeds: Flaxseed or lin- seed— Argentina Boitgium. British India Canada United Kingdom. Other countries.	Bushels. 429,254 157 128,981 4,732,316 2,453 1,135	Bushels, 50 8,647,168 6,010 4	Bushels. 3,927,542 39,990 6,629,800 68,823	.Bushels. 11,468,039 3,094,735 116,459	$ \begin{array}{c c} 3.1 \\ .0 \\ 2.4 \\ 89.4 \\ .0 \\ .1 \\ \end{array} $.0 .0 99.9 .1 .0	.4	78.		
Total	5,294,296	8,653,235	10,006,215	14,679,233	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.		
Grass seed— Clover— Canada France. Germany Italy. Other countries	Pounds. 2, \$87, 143 6, \$57, 096 5, 655, 558 2, 816, 795 3, 007, 965	Pounds. 5,741,516 15,402,710 4,200,141 44,000 4,710,282	Pounds. 1,525,080 18,879,326 336,575 343,546 3,072,184	Pounds. 1,620,609 26,964,867 10,300,153 2,954,132	$ \begin{array}{c} 13.6 \\ 32.3 \\ 26.6 \\ 13.3 \\ 14.2 \end{array} $	$ 19.1 \\ 51.2 \\ 14.0 \\ .1 \\ 15.6 $	1.4	3. 64. 24. 7.		
Total		30, 107, 649	24, 156, 711	41,839,761	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.		

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TABLE 205.—Origin of principal farm products imported into the United States, 1913-1916—Continued.

-	. Quantity.					Per cent of total.				
Article, and coun- try to which con- signed.			Year end	ling June 30	June 30					
Signed.	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).		
vegetable matter- continued.										
Sugar, raw cane: Cuba Dutch East Indies Philippine Islands Santo Domingo South America Other countries	Pounds. 4,311,744,043 12,759,756 203,160,972 2,670,630 20,047,828 3,666,643	Pounds. 4,926,606,243 116,749,211 4,316,282 9,386,732 4,506,153	Pounds. 4,784,888,157 22,235 326,842,296 86,188,211 120,869,986 99,819,597	Pounds. 5,150,852,007 32,941 217,190,825 107,503,110 118,709,613 36,984,270	Perct. 94.7 .3 4.5 .1 .4 .0	Perct. 97.3 2.3 .1 .2 .1	Per ct. 88.3 .0 6.0 1.6 2.2 1.9	$\begin{array}{c} Perct. \\ 91.5 \\ 0.0 \\ 3.9 \\ 1.9 \\ 2.1 \\ .0 \end{array}$		
Total	4,554,049,872	5,061,564,621	5,418,630,482	5,631,272,766	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
Tea: Canada China East Indies Japan United Kingdom Other countries	10,411,288 44,381,278	$\begin{array}{r} 3,112,383\\ 20,139,342\\ 10,551,735\\ 41,913,273\\ 14,077,601\\ 1,336,481 \end{array}$	3,446,615 23,100,548 12,645,303 43,869,012 12,869,968 1,056,496	$\begin{array}{c} 2,600,705\\ 20,422,700\\ 14,855,825\\ 52,359,526\\ 19,066,241\\ 560,938\end{array}$	3.225.011.046.812.91.1	3.422.111.646.015.41.5	3.623.813.045.213.31.1	2.4 18.6 13.5 47.7 17.3		
Total	94,812,800	91, 130, 815	96, 987, 942	109,865,935	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
Tobacco, leaf: Wrapper— Netherlands Other countries	6, 193, 042 205, 740	5,846,504 246,28 3	7,061,943 179,235	4,963,761 106,547	96. 8 3. 2	96.0 4.0	97.5 2.5	97.9 2.1		
Total	6,398,782	6,092,787	7,241,178	5,070,308	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
Other leaf- Cuba Germany Turkey (Asiatic). Turkey (Euro- pean) Other countries	18,955,295	26,617,545456,44515,616,5438,502,7422,821,450	21, 987, 848 91, 578 6, 714, 654 5, 950, 915 3, 778, 555	23,920,259 19,890 19,002,878	45.1 2.7 31.0 17.7 3.5	49.3 .8 28.9 15.7 5.3	57.1 .2 17.4 15.4 9.9	55.7 		
Total	61,055,963	54,014,725	38,523,550	42,943,027	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
FOREST PRODUCTS.								:		
India rubber, crude: Belgium Brazil. Central American States and Brit-	43,518,861	11,005,246 40,641,305	1,902,370 48,753,670	54,968,227	5.2 38.4	8.3 30.8	- 1.1 28.3	20.5		
ish Honduras. East Indies. France. Germany. Mexico. Portugal. United Kingdom. Other countries.	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c} 565, 487\\ 16, 597, 105\\ 2, 629, 287\\ 7, 079, 260\\ 641, 029\\ 556, 560\\ 48, 279, 674\\ 4, 000, 780\\ \end{array} $	$\begin{bmatrix} 790,368\\27,898,683\\685,699\\739,105\\1,827,912\\4,130,624\\75,168,236\\10,171,761\end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1,313,454\\125,532,067\\509,675\\3,261,507\\2,773,656\\72,459,408\\6,957,563\end{array}$	9 10.8 2.6 6.9 1.8 .8 30.1 2.5	$\begin{array}{c} .4\\ 12.6\\ 2.0\\ 5.4\\ .5\\ .4\\ 36.6\\ 3.0\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} .5\\ 16.2\\ .4\\ .4\\ 1.1\\ 2.4\\ 43.7\\ 5.9\end{array}$	1 1.2		
Total	-		172,068,428	267, 775, 557	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
Wood: Cabinet woods, ma- hogany— British Africa Central Americar States and Brit	M feet. 7,655	M feet. 12,888	M feet. 6,941	M feet. 6,888	11.5	18.3	16. 4			
ish Honduras. Mexico. United Kingdom Other countries.	$ \begin{array}{c} 13,526\\ 10,866\\ 20,866 \end{array} $	10,381 18,289	17,955 8,119 5,918 3,392	$10,450 \\ 8,453 \\ 7,248 \\ 6,816$	20.4 16.4 31.5 20.2	$\begin{array}{c} 33.1 \\ 14.7 \\ 26.0 \\ 7.9 \end{array}$	42.4 19.2 14.0 8.0	21. 18.		
Total	. 66,318	70, 470	42,325	39,855	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.		

Imports and Exports of Agricultural Products.

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			Pe r cen t	t of tota	1.		
	Year ending June 30-						
1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).	1913	1914	1915	1916 (prel.).
<i>M feet.</i> 1,021,810 68,818	<i>M feet.</i> 892,833 36,040	<i>M feet.</i> 908, 663 30, 659	M feet. 1, 180, 018 38, 050	Per ct. 93.7 6.3	Per ct. 96.1 3.9	Per ct. 96.7 3.3	Per ct. 96.9 3.1
1,090,628	928, 873	939, 322	1,218,068	100.0	100.0	100, 0	100.0
Pounds. 463,877,981 151,481,033 189,951,459 283,916,347 37,298,387 1,126,525,207	Pounds. 524, 251, 441 149, 171, 214 181, 255, 024 265, 457, 874 18, 591, 642	Pounds. 660, 656, 640 83, 119, 680 200, 934, 720 350, 183, 680 22, 050, 560	Pounds. 790, 997, 760 237, 440 115, 978, 240 225, 955, 520 2, 611, 840	41.2 13.4 16.9 25.2 3.3	46.0 13.1 15.9 23.3 1.7	50.2 6.3 15.3 26.6 1.6	69.6 .0 10.2 19.9 .3 100.0
	M feet. 1,021,810 68,818 1,090,628 Pounds. 463,877,981 151,481,033 189,951,459 283,916,347 37,298,387	M feet. M feet. 1,021,810 892,833 68,818 36,040 1,090,628 928,873 Pounds. Pounds. 463,877,981 524,251,441 151,481,033 149,171,214 189,951,459 181,255,024 283,916,347 265,457,874 37,298,387 18,591,642	M feet. M feet. M feet. 1,021,810 892,833 905,663 68,818 36,040 30,659 1,090,628 928,873 939,322 Pounds. Pounds. Pounds. 463,877,981 524,251,441 660,656,640 189,951,459 181,255,024 200,934,720 283,916,347 265,457,874 350,183,680 37,298,387 18,591,642 22,050,560	M feet. M feet. M feet. M feet. M feet. 1,021,810 892,833 903,663 1,180,018 68,818 36,040 30,659 38,050 1,090,628 928,873 933,322 1,218,068 Pounds. Pounds. Pounds. Pounds. Pounds. 151,481,033 149,171,214 83,119,680 237,440 189,951,459 181,255,024 200,934,720 115,978,240 225,955,520 27,298,387 18,591,642 22,050,560 2,611,840	M feet. M feet. M feet. M feet. I913 1914 1915 1916 (prel.). 1913 M feet. 1,021,810 892,833 908,663 1,180,018 93.7 68,818 36,040 30,659 33,659 33,050 6.3 1,090,623 928,873 939,322 1,218,068 100.0 Pounds. Pounds. Pounds. Pounds. Pounds. 189,951,495 1524,251,441 660,656,640 709,997,760 41.2 153,451,033 149,171,214 83,119,650 237,440 13.4 189,951,459 181,255,074 200,934,720 115,978,240 16.9 283,916,347 265,457,874 350,183,650 225,355,520 25.2 25.2 37,298,387 18,691,642 22,065,660 2,611,840 3.3	$\begin{tabular}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	$\begin{tabular}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$

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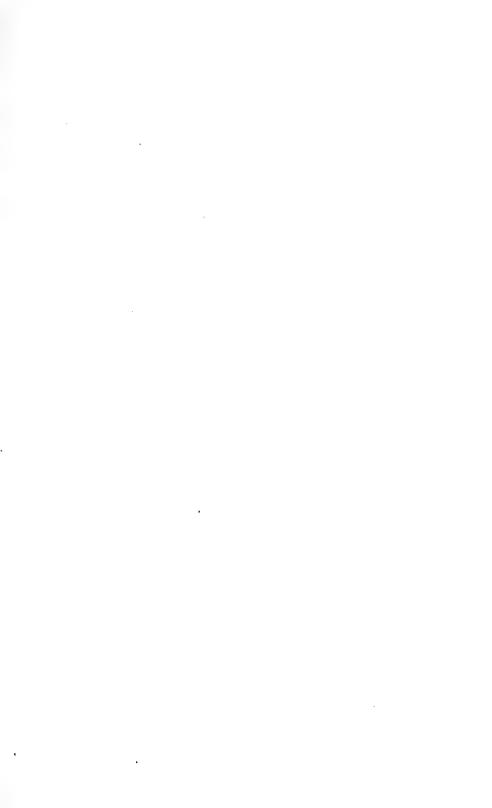
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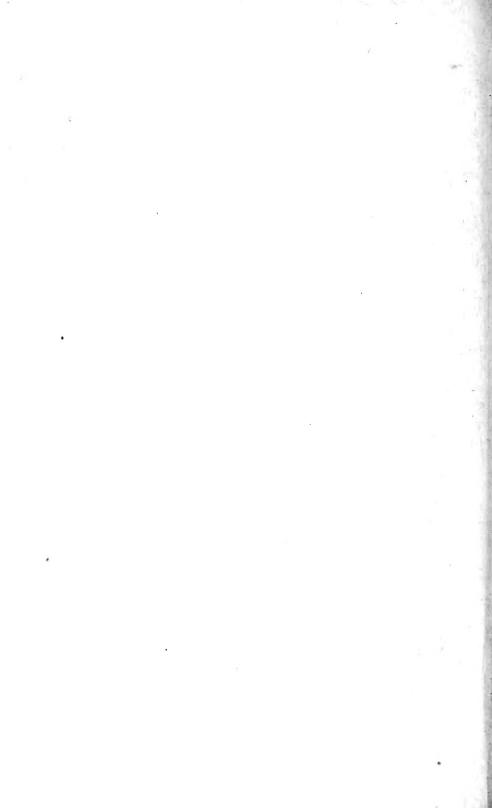
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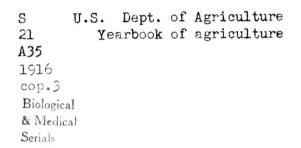












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