

1906

No. 3

THE
JOHNS HOPKINS
UNIVERSITY CIRCULAR

THE
ECONOMIC SEMINARY

1905-06

BALTIMORE, MARYLAND
PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY
ISSUED MONTHLY FROM OCTOBER TO JULY
MARCH, 1906

[New Series, 1906, No. 3.]
[Whole Number 185.]

Entered, October 21, 1903, at Baltimore, Md., as second class matter, under
Act of Congress of July 16, 1894.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY CIRCULAR, No. 185

MARCH, 1906

CONTENTS

	PAGE
THE ECONOMIC SEMINARY, 1905-06 :	
Frederick W. Hilbert. - - - - -	4
The Finances of Santo Domingo. By JACOB H. HOLLANDER,	5
The Standard Wage as a Bargaining Device. By GEORGE E. BARNETT, - - - - -	7
Exclusive Agreements in the Building Trades. By F. W. HILBERT, - - - - -	12
Labor Unions which do not maintain Apprentice Laws. By JAMES M. MOTLEY, - - - - -	17
The Early History of the Corporation Tax in Maryland. By HUGH S. HANNA, - - - - -	22
Women in the Trade Union. By T. W. GLOCKER, - -	25
Jurisdictional Disputes in Breweries. By S. BLUM, - -	29
The Retirement Association of Letter Carriers. By J. B. KEN- NEDY, - - - - -	33
The Label of the United Hatters of North America. By E. B. SPEDDEN, - - - - -	37
European Methods of Control over Railway Rates. By W. H. BUCKLER, - - - - -	41

THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY CIRCULAR

New Series, 1906, No. 3

MARCH, 1906

Whole Number, 185

THE ECONOMIC SEMINARY, 1905-1906

Edited by PROFESSOR J. H. HOLLANDER and
DR. G. E. BARNETT.

The primary activity of the Economic Seminary during the current academic year has continued to be an investigation into the history, activities and influence of labor organizations. Its membership as heretofore, has been limited to advanced students preparing for a scientific career in economic study, and its primary design has been the development of sound method in economic research. The regular fortnightly evening sessions have been supplemented by briefer morning sessions in alternate weeks. The material resources necessary for the inquiry have been supplied by the continued generosity of the donor, whose original gift made its inception possible.

Appreciable progress has also been made by individual members of the Seminary in the study of specific aspects of the several questions assigned for investigation. During the summer, field work was carried on in various carefully selected localities, and the data thus collected have since been supplemented and corrected by documentary study and personal interview. Two monographic studies, submitted by senior members of the Seminary in part fulfillment of the requirements

for the doctor of philosophy degree, were issued: "The Finances of American Trade Unions" by A. M. Sakolski, Ph. D., and "Labor Federations in the United States" by William Kirk, Ph. D. Both essays appeared in the *Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science*, xxiv Series. A co-operative volume of "Studies in American Trade Unionism" (Holt & Co.) was also issued, embodying the preliminary results of specific investigations now in progress, but ultimately designed for monographic publication in completed form. During the past two years a large amount of additional documentary material has been collected by the Seminary, and it is proposed, with the aid of a recent grant by the Carnegie Institution, to issue during the course of the next academic year, a second, much enlarged edition of the "Trial Bibliography of American Trade-Union Publications."

The record of the proceedings of the Seminary, and abstracts of certain papers there presented, are appended :

- October 11. Reports of the summer field work, by Professor HOLLANDER, Dr. BARNETT, Messrs. KENNEDY, BLUM, GLOCKER, HILBERT and MOTLEY.
- October 17. An "Introduction to Studies in American Trade Unionism," by Professor HOLLANDER.
- October 25. "Development of Collective Bargaining in the United States," by Mr. F. W. HILBERT.
- October 31. "The Structure of the Typographical Union," by Dr. GEORGE E. BARNETT.
- November 7. "Shop Rules of American Trade Unions," by Mr. SOLOMON BLUM.
- November 14. "Railway Rate Regulation in France," by Mr. W. H. BUCKLER (published in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, February, 1906).
"Opportunities for Social Work in the Charity Organization Society," by Mr. JAMES M. MOTLEY.
- November 21. "American Trade Unions and the Apprentice," by Mr. JAMES M. MOTLEY.
"Social Settlement Work in New York City," by Mr. A. M. SAKOLSKI.
- November 28. "Present Labor Difficulties in Baltimore," by Mr. E. R. SPEDDEN.
- December 5. "Beneficiary Features of American Trade Unions," by Mr. J. B. KENNEDY.

- December 12. "Immigration Conference of the National Civic Federation," by Mr. THEODORE MARBURG.
"Landing of Immigrants on Ellis Island," by Mr. W. R. STRAUGHN.
- December 19. "Child Labor Regulation in Maryland," by Dr. WALTER UFFORD.
"Washington Meeting of the National Child Labor Conference," by Mr. W. H. BUCKLER.
"Local Labor Strikes," by Mr. E. R. SPEDDEN.
- January 9. "American Trade-Union Structure," by Mr. T. W. GLOCKER.
- January 16. "Baltimore Meeting of the American Economic Association," by Professor HOLLANDER.
- January 23. "The Minimum Wage as a Bargaining Device," by Dr. GEORGE E. BARNETT.
- January 30. "Civic Organizations and Municipal Parties in Baltimore," by Mr. SOLOMON BLUM.
"Statistical Tabulation of Inmates of Alms-houses in Baltimore," by Mr. F. W. HILBERT.
- February 6. "The Present State of Apprenticeship," by Mr. JAMES M. MOTLEY.
- February 13. "The Finances of Santo Domingo," by Professor HOLLANDER.
- February 20. As a tribute to the memory of Mr. Frederick William Hilbert, who died Saturday, February 17, 1906, the regular bi-weekly meeting of the Seminary was postponed.
- February 27. "Financial History of Maryland," by Mr. H. S. HANNA.
- March 6. "Work of the Bureau of Corporations," by Dr. JOHN PORTER HOLLIS.
- March 13. "The Label of the Hatters' Union," by Mr. E. R. SPEDDEN.
-

Frederick W. Hilbert, Fellow in Political Economy, died suddenly on February 17, 1906. Mr. Hilbert was born April 26, 1871. He received the degree of Bachelor of Arts at Randolph-Macon College in June, 1896, and the degree of Master of Arts in June, 1897. In October, 1902, he began graduate study in Political Economy at the Johns Hopkins University; in 1904-1905 he held a University scholarship, and in June, 1905, was appointed to a fellowship. From October, 1905, to the time of his death, he also acted as Assistant in Political Economy.

For sometime prior to his death, Mr. Hilbert had been engaged in an extensive study of collective bargaining in the United States. He had intended offering this work in May, 1906, as a dissertation, in part fulfillment of the requirements of the University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. His chief published work consists of two essays—"Employers' Associations in the United States" and "Trade-Union Agreements in the Iron Molders' Union"—published in the recently issued "Studies in American Trade Unionism."

THE FINANCES OF SANTO DOMINGO.

BY JACOB H. HOLLANDER.

The conditions presented by the Dominican Republic may be briefly summarized : The country is extensive in area, and rich in natural resources and economic possibilities. The population—with the exception of a handful of malcontents—is a sturdy, but inarticulate peasantry, by nature simple-minded, peace-loving, and, as far as any tropical people go, industrious. The government is republican and representative in form, but without either the historical development or the political traditions which make popular institutions secure and efficient. Civil disorder and administrative misrule have bankrupted the public treasury ; and a large and recklessly incurred public debt has relapsed into accumulated default.

The recent history of Santo Domingo may be conveniently dated from the energetic movement to affect its annexation to the United States in 1869-70. The early history of Santo Domingo and, more particularly, the amazing political experiences of the Republic in the thirty-five years which have elapsed since the annexation movement can only be described as a miserable succession of revolution and anarchy, interrupted by ruthless and blood-stained dictatorships. From 1871 to 1882 Cabral, Baez, Gonzalez and Luperon alternated in control, their struggles being marked by uprising, ravage and bloodshed, and terminating invariably in social demoralization and economic ruin. It was during this decade that the most vicious rules of the game of revolution as it is played in Santo Domingo won acceptance. In 1882 Ulises Heureaux came to the fore in Dominican politics, and the next seventeen years form the story of his uncontrolled dominance. For a time his creatures were installed in the presidency, to preserve a semblance of constitutional form ; but throughout he was absolute dictator. Heureaux's rule was not even a benevolent despotism. Brutal cruelty, insatiable greed, moral degeneracy, were the man's personal characteristics, and they shaped his political conduct and his administrative activity.

If Santo Domingo was at peace during Heureaux's time, it was the peace of a merciless terrorism, not the quiet of civil government.

A seeming well-being prevailed, but it was attained by bartering the resources of the country in prodigal concessions and by discounting the future in reckless debt accumulation. With Heureaux's assassination in 1899 came the deluge, and the next five years constitute a climax even in the history of Latin-American politics. Figueroa, Vasquez, Jimenez, Vasquez again, Woss Y Gil and Morales successively occupied the presidential chair, each attaining it by much the same means, and holding it by as uncertain tenure. The ordinary crimes of the political decalogue became commonplaces. The country was laid waste, the people crushed to hopelessness, the treasury left to stew in utter bankruptcy, and a host of creditors, foreign and domestic, after tightening their hold upon the future become more and more insistent in the present. In January-February, 1905, in face of the imminent likelihood of foreign intervention, the protocol of the agreement now pending for ratification was arranged between the Dominican Republic and the United States. Upon the adjournment of the United States Senate on March 18, 1905, without final action upon this agreement, an interim arrangement was arranged providing for the collection of the Dominican customs revenues by a person designated by the President of the United States, and for the segregation of fifty-five per cent. of the proceeds. On April 1, 1905, this temporary arrangement went into effect, and is now in actual operation.

The misgovernment and disorder which have characterized the political history of Santo Domingo in the past thirty-five years, are reflected with exactness in the financial experience of the country during this period. Current resources have been derived almost exclusively from indirect taxes upon necessary consumption, crudely administered and long since increased beyond the point of maximum return. The taxes so wrung from the country's poorest classes have been wasted and stolen by successive dictator-presidents, with barely a pretense to applying any part to the legitimate objects of governmental

expenditure. There has been no real audit of receipts and disbursements, and so-called public accounting has commonly been either a literary formality or a purely personal matter between the dictator in power and his favored supporters. Finally, the credit of the Republic has been exploited to bankruptcy, and a formidable public debt, funded and floating, has been incurred, without regard either to present resources or to future obligations.

The history of the modern public indebtedness of Santo Domingo is almost entirely comprised within the past thirty-five years. The origin of a few claims may be traced even further back ; but in the main 1869 is the starting point of the recent financial, as of the political history of Santo Domingo. With respect to the growth and the status of the debt, this term of thirty-five years falls naturally into three periods : 1. 1869-1887, the genesis of the debt ; 2. 1888-1897, the decade of bond issues ; 3. 1898-1905, the period of floating indebtedness.

THE STANDARD WAGE AS A BARGAINING DEVICE.

BY GEORGE E. BARNETT.

The standardization of commodities in measure and quality is always sought on account of the resultant convenience in bargaining. But some commodities always remain entirely or partially unstandardized. The buying and selling of horses, for example, has always been subject to this grave defect. Few commodities, however, are so difficult to standardize as human labor. If, in any trade, all workers were exactly equal in productive capacity, the carrying on of collective bargaining would be enormously facilitated.

The difficulties in formulating a measure of labor have been encountered in widely varying degrees by different trade unions. Among piece-workers some standard measure of labor more or less exact almost always emerges even in the absence of a trade union. The earliest societies of printers and shoe workers in the

United States, at their inception found in existence recognized modes of measuring labor. Some employers paid under the scales and the societies frequently had difficulty in forcing uniformity, but the existence of a standard according to which payment was made, made it possible for the union to concentrate its efforts on raising the rate. In practically all piece trades, the union's scale while nominally a minimum scale, is in reality a uniform scale. Only in exceptional instances is a piece worker paid beyond the scale. A system of inspection keeps the standard of the work up to a given level. A few workers may receive a higher price per piece for nominally the same work, but in reality the work so remunerated is almost always of different quality. On account of the ease with which piece work is standardized, unions of piece workers come into existence more easily and naturally than unions of time workers.

Even among time workers, many trades find little or no difficulty in the establishment of a measure for labor. The largest group of such unionists in the United States is made up of the Railway Brotherhoods. Strict entrance examinations, promotion according to seniority, rigid discipline, standardize the railway employees. It is thus brought about that the railway employees of a given rank differ so little in the efficiency with which they discharge their duties that to all men of a given rank and term of service the railway company, of its own volition accords the same pay. As the size of the business unit increases in any trade, the standardization of the workman is likely also to increase. The unions of workmen in such trades, relieved as they are of a perplexing problem, are able to devote a large part of their attention to the method of insurance.

But there remains a great body of time workers who have difficulty in formulating a measure of labor since their members vary greatly in efficiency. In practically all of these trades, the device of a minimum wage has been adopted. Under this plan, all wage workers exceeding the minimum in efficiency are left to secure remuneration for their superior efficiency in individual bargaining. If the standard rate were simply a protection against the forcing down of the wage level below the ordinary

standard of the community, it would be possible for most of the trade unions to set their minimum wage at a level which would include nearly all the workmen in the trade. Ordinarily, however, for the minimum wage to be effective as a bargaining device for the great body of workmen in the trade, it must be set higher than this level. A trade union, containing men of widely varying degrees of efficiency is impelled, by this consideration, to make of its minimum wage a device for collective bargaining not only for its most inefficient members but also for the higher grades of workmen. A simple minimum wage set at the level of the poorest workman, leaves too much ground open for individual bargaining in the more efficient groups.

These efforts may be divided into two groups : (1) Attempts to make the workmen or the services rendered more uniform. (2) Attempts to introduce several standards of payment for different groups of workmen. By both of these lines of activity, the field of collective bargaining is widened and that of individual bargaining narrowed.

(1). *The Standardization of the Workman.* Chief among the methods used for this purpose are :

(a) The enforcement of rules for the training of apprentices. In many trades, the apprenticeship question has lost its significance as a device for securing the limitation of the number of workmen, but retains great importance as a device for promoting the standardization of the workman. Obviously, a trade made up of incompetents and skilled workmen presents difficulties in forming a standard wage. The better workmen, relying for their pay on their superior qualities, derive little aid from a standard wage based on the wage of the incompetent. The field left for individual bargaining is so large that collective bargaining for a certain minimum efficiency renders little aid to superior workmen. If the union can enforce rules as to the training of the workman, the distance between the worst class and the better classes of workmen is lessened, with the result that the differential received by the better workman has a real relation to the minimum wage. The interest of the trade unionist in the training, as distinguished from the limitation of apprentices, is thus a vital

one in many trades. Naturally, in many cases, limitation bears a certain relation to training since it frequently happens that a large number of apprentices cannot be satisfactorily taught. In theory and usually in practice, however, the two devices are distinguishable.

(b) A trade union may approach the question more directly by requiring for entrance a certain proficiency in the trade. This proficiency is in a number of unions ascertained by an examination. Difficulties occur in carrying out such a plan. If any considerable number of men are shut out of the union, they become a menace to the maintenance of the scale. A union must always exclude some of the poorest workmen, but it cannot carry such a policy very far. Usually, entrance examinations have had little relation to the standardization of the workmen, but have been contrived as a monopolistic measure.

Since attempts to standardize workmen have their origin ordinarily in the desire to influence the wages received by the better workmen, such attempts are usually directed toward raising the efficiency of the poorer workmen.

(2). *The Grading of the Standard Wage According to the Classes of Workmen.*

(a) The most common case of this kind is the practice prevalent in many unions of permitting incompetent workmen to work below the minimum rate. Such a practice evidently permits the standard rate to be put higher than it otherwise could be without excluding from the union too many workmen. Formerly in the Typographical Union and at present among the Bricklayers, a part of the men are permitted to work at a fixed rate below the minimum. This practice, however, has been found to endanger the maintenance of the standard rate. The difficulty, of course, lies in the impossibility of fixing a definite criterion by which to classify the incompetent workmen. The workmen permitted to work below the scale compete with those covered by the scale and the practice, if at all widely extended, is likely to end in a complete reversion to individual bargaining.

(b) A few unions have tried the experiment of establishing separate scales for specially efficient workmen. The difficulty

here, again, lies in establishing a test of efficiency. The ordinary method is to require that if a man has once reached a certain wage by individual bargaining, he shall be assigned to a higher class. But the desire for steady work makes the workman dislike being placed in a class where he cannot use his power of individual bargaining to compete directly with inferior workmen in his trade.

(c) An indirect, but probably by far the most effective measure for grading workmen and thus establishing several bargaining rates for different classes is found in the practice in many trades of establishing minimum rates for various classes of work. This practice has not been designedly adopted in order to establish rates for the more efficient and thus to extend to them more fully the benefits of collective bargaining; but it operates powerfully in this direction. In the Typographical Union, for example, linotype operators receive considerably higher pay than any other class of printers. The natural effect has been to bring into that branch of the trade the most skillful and expert workmen. A differentiation of the standard rate according to kind of work thus leads to a differentiation in the pay according to skill. The establishment of such a superior standard rate in one branch of a trade, by affording a standard of comparison, operates to give the superior men in other branches, a higher rate than they would otherwise receive.

The prime function of the trade union is collective bargaining. No trade unions are possible in those trades where individual efficiency leads to extreme divergencies in pay. Trade unionism is strong in those trades where standardization is possible and varies directly with the power of the trade union to overcome the difficulties met in standardizing the workman.

EXCLUSIVE AGREEMENTS IN THE BUILDING TRADES.

BY F. W. HILBERT.

The first record of an exclusive agreement in the building trades is found in Philadelphia in 1870. The Master Fresco Painters had an organization, and thinking that the journeymen fresco painters, if unionized, might help them to control the industry, they brought about an organization of their employees. For several years, the project was successful; but the union went to pieces during the crisis of 1873.

No further instances are discoverable until after the organization of the Carpenters' National Union, when exclusive agreements became common in that industry. In 1882 the Carpenters' Union of Washington wanted an increase of wages from \$2.50 to \$3.00 per day. They proposed to the principal builders of the city that they would obligate themselves not to work for "speculators, jerry builders or real estate men" if the builders would grant the increase. The builders came together, formed an association, and unanimously passed a resolution: "The Master Builders' Association hereby pledges itself, and its individual members, to support the Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, and its members in their effort to secure 20 per cent. increase on the rate of wages paid last season. And further that the members of this Association shall pay that increased rate of wages, and shall employ none but members of the Brotherhood, provided the said Brotherhood do pledge themselves individually and as a body to the Association to be employed by none but master builders." The Association also promised to increase wages gradually until they should be 10 per cent. above the wages paid in any other large city. The following year the Master Carpenters' Association of New York formed a similar agreement with the Journeymen Carpenters' Union of that city.

In 1886 the Carpenters' Union of Pensacola, Florida, formed an agreement with the Master Builders, and also with the manufacturers of building materials. The material men annexed to the agreement a scale of prices which, they promised, would be

adhered to in all cases. Certain secret discounts of fixed amount were, however, to be given to those builders who were parties to the contract. The builders pledged themselves not to give out any piece work or sublet any part of their work, to purchase materials only from material men who were parties to the agreement, and to employ only such carpenters as were members of the local union. The union men on their part agreed to work only for such builders as were parties to the contract. This agreement was considered even stronger than the others mentioned; the prospective builder could not obtain union workmen and could secure materials only at a higher price than the master builder. He would, thus, the more readily give the contract to the master builder.

These exclusive agreements became very common during the decade from 1890 to 1900, extending to nearly all the building trades. In New Castle, Pa., the painters agreed that the journeymen should not handle any materials not purchased by their employers. In St. Louis, they agreed to refer every real estate agent, general contractor, or owner, offering them work to some member of the Master Painters' Association, and in Worcester, Mass., that no member of their union should be permitted to estimate or contract for work at house painting for any person, not a member of the Master Painters' and Decorators' Associations, unless he received at least \$1.00 per day over schedule prices.

In some exclusive agreements, provision is made for the journeymen's entrance into the employers' association, whenever he may become an employer; as, for instance, in the painters' agreement in 1899 at Troy, N. Y. Some of them provide, however, that he can pass back again into the union ranks only after a stated interval of time. This had a tendency to discourage petty contracting. Thus, in New Castle, Pa., so many journeymen bricklayers went contracting and underbidding that the contractors refused to grant an increase of wages, until the union adopted a law that a member who withdrew for the purpose of contracting, could not return to the union until after a term of eight months, and then only by paying a new initiation fee.

Journeymen were also required to pay the initiation fee of the Contractors' Association when they accepted a contract.

In some cases the journeymen made large temporary gains by becoming a party to agreements of this kind. But objections to the exclusive agreements soon began to be made by unionists and their leaders. In 1896 the Plumbers of Memphis, Tenn. said of their experience: "Everything worked very nicely until the Master Plumbers fined one of their members for violating one of their rules, and the firm would not pay the fine. Then we were notified that the firm was no longer a member of the Master Plumbers' Association. So to line up to our agreement we had to withdraw our men from the shop, which we did after giving the firm two days grace to settle with the Association." In 1899 the organizer of the Plumbers said that, in the majority of instances, "when an agreement of this kind has been entered into, trouble has occurred, caused in most cases by jealousies in a business way; and, in some cases, I have found that after we have built up their organization through the force of an agreement with us, they have repeatedly used the power thus gained to work against the interests of the journeymen."

Some national organizations of the building trades have absolutely prohibited such agreements. In 1901 the Carpenters provided in their constitution: "Unions cannot make agreements to debar their members from working for contractors or bosses other than those connected with the bosses' or builders' association." As it was found that building trade federations in certain localities furthered the use of the exclusive agreement, the next convention added this provision: "Nor shall they affiliate with any central organization whose constitution or by-laws conflicts with those of the United Brotherhood." In 1902 the General Executive Board of the Painters said that they would approve no scale of wages, gained through exclusive agreements, as they believed such contracts were a danger and menace to their prosperity.

The Bricklayers, who are more strongly organized than any of the other building trades, were not so often tempted to enter upon these agreements. From the beginning, the national

office took a stand against them, and has always refused to sanction any agreement which contained the exclusive clause. In 1897 the union at Toledo, Ohio, made an agreement whereby they were to refuse to lay any common brick not made in Toledo. The local brick manufacturers agreed to give contractors employing only union bricklayers a special discount per 1,000 bricks, and the contractors were to give the bricklayers an advance in wages. Although the agreement was carried unanimously by the local union, and signed by many contractors, the General Executive Board refused to approve it, saying: "We as an organization have no right to dictate what material shall be used in the construction of any buildings. Both owners and architects have rights which we must recognize."

As a concession to employers' associations, the General Executive Board suggested that "where master masons agreed to employ only union men, the members of the local bricklayers' union should further bind themselves at all times to use every means and influence through committee or otherwise to prevail upon such parties to recognize none but union contractors." Another concession frequently made in agreements is to charge others than general contractors and builders five cents per hour above the local rate of wages for bricklayers. This about equals the charge of the master mason, and represents his profit.

These concessions, however, were not sufficient for many local unions; and so many exclusive agreements were sent for approval that in 1900, the General Executive Board in a circular letter to all locals declared: "Any union or locality that wants to build a fence around it so as to prevent International men and their employers from exercising their just rights will have the alternative either of taking down the fence, or else of withdrawing from the International Union. We are opposed to this 'trust' business right from the very start. For its introduction and fostering now is merely the beginning of the destruction of the organization." The firm stand of the Executive Board was displeasing to some of the locals, and they appealed to the Milwaukee Convention of 1901. But the Executive Board was sustained by an overwhelming majority vote, and a resolution

was adopted by the Convention that "any contractor recognizing the laws of a subordinate union and those of the Bricklayers and Masons' International Union in any locality in which he may be constructing work, should not be discriminated against or interfered with."

Under pressure of master masons' associations which desired to check the growth of large construction companies, and were willing to give higher wages to the unions for aid, these exclusive agreements continued to be sent to headquarters for ratification. On one occasion, the Elizabeth local of bricklayers, at the instigation of the Master Masons' Association of that city, applied to the General Executive Board for permission to charge an extra five cents per thousand bricks when working for general building contractors or construction firms. It will be observed that this was the method recommended for some years by the Executive Board in dealing with others than mason contractors. In its communication, the Elizabeth local said: "There are several contractors in our town who take the whole building, and hire a foreman for each branch of the trade; and the master masons claim they cannot compete with these men as there is but one contractor to make his percentage, and he can consequently do the work cheaper than if he took but one branch of the trades. Therefore, they ask us to charge an extra five cents when working for these contractors so as to equalize them." The Executive Board refused this request; and, in stating the reason of the Board for its decision, President Gubbins said: "The demand of the building public for estimates for every branch under one responsible head is a growing one. The desire is to avoid too many divisions of responsibility in their construction, and the idea is to simplify matters for one particular head. We ourselves must admit that much friction of one kind or another is removed, and much valuable time gained. Then again the one headed system of responsibility removes the dissensions and disagreements formerly occurring between the several contractors which have been not only a loss to the owner, but also a great loss to employers in time and money. The system the Mason Contractors of Elizabeth seeks to perpetuate is doomed; and they

might as well understand it first as last. Their only salvation is to affiliate their experience and knowledge with some other employer in some other particular branch of our industry, and work together for their common good as one man. We are in favor of charging five cents per hour to owners doing job-work, employing our members direct, but we cannot favor imposing an extra rate of wages upon general contracting firms and contracting companies. That would be the means of striking a blow at our own mason contractors who are associated with, and belong to general contracting firms."

Thus, the officers of the four leading national unions in the building trades have fought against the exclusive agreement, and have practically stamped it out. No instance of its present use among the Bricklayers and only a comparatively few such agreements in other unions can be found. The places where they are found in the unions under consideration are small localities where the large construction companies do not compete. Moreover, the local unions are cut off from assistance by all four of these national unions should any trouble occur owing to the nature of the agreements.

LABOR UNIONS WHICH DO NOT MAINTAIN APPRENTICE LAWS.

BY JAMES M. MOTLEY.

Of the one hundred and twenty international unions having a total of 1,676,200 members, affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, about fifty international unions, with a combined membership of about 800,000 workmen, maintain no regular apprenticeship system. Four distinct classes of trades are represented in these fifty unions.

In the first group may be placed those industries in which comparatively unskilled labor is employed. This class contains by far the largest number of trades which do not maintain regular apprenticeship laws, for about thirty crafts may be thus classed.

The group is typically represented by such unions as the Freight Handlers and Warehousemen, Hod Carriers and Building Laborers, Hotel and Restaurant Employees, International Brotherhood of Teamsters, and International Protective Associations of Retail Clerks. These trades, are in the main, recruited from those who, after serving a short term with their fellow workmen as instructors, readily obtain a sufficient knowledge of the trade to enable them to perform it in a satisfactory manner, after which they are received into the union. Apprentice qualifications are not demanded of applicants seeking admission to these unions for the obvious reason that men of ordinary ability and physical endurance are, after a very short period of training, sufficiently competent to perform the required work.

The second class of trades in which no regular apprentice laws are maintained by the union, contains a very much smaller number than the preceding group, and is composed largely of the railway unions, such as the Order of Railway Conductors, Order of Railroad Telegraphers, Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen and Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen. Some of these organizations are not affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. They represent highly trained services, but advancement or promotion therein is made according to the ability displayed by the individual member or as there is actual need of men to fill vacant positions. In this manner those engaged in any of the industries contained in this class must serve a rigid and oftentimes a very long apprenticeship, though technically it is not so designated, since the terms demanded of beginners as well as any future promotion of employees, are matters not under the direction of the union, but entirely within control of the employers. This is made imperative from the nature and importance of the work to be performed. Each trade of the group represents activities which must, in order to properly protect business life, be executed with great promptness and care. For example, the telegrapher must be so accurate in transmitting his messages, and so prompt in reporting or dispatching his trains, that all those desiring to learn the trade must engage themselves, not simply for a stated

term of years, as is required of apprentices in most trades, but must serve until they have acquired sufficient skill to assure the employer that they are competent and may be safely trusted in responsible positions. Again, because of the heavy physical labor involved in the work, the membership of the International Brotherhood of Railway Firemen is recruited, in a large measure, from men rather than boys, and consequently this union maintains no regular apprentice system. The constant intimate relations of the fireman with the engineer enables the former to gradually gain a practical knowledge of the trade duties of the latter, and it is in this manner that a majority of the engineers are trained. There is not the slightest opportunity for a boy to learn this trade, as an ordinary apprentice. A majority of the members in these unions began in an humble way with a railway company and have gradually worked their way up to their present positions.

The trades of the third class consist of certain industries in which much machinery has been introduced and consequently a minute subdivision of the processes of production has followed to such an extent that the operation performed by each particular individual, instead of being complex or multiple as formerly when one person completed the entire product, has become a very simple act. Little if any skilled labor is required to perform it. The Boot and Shoe Workers, the Carriage and Wagon Workers, and the Meat Cutters and Butcher Workers are typical trades of this group. However, it must not be understood from the preceding statement that skilled workmen are not employed in industries of this class. On the contrary, at the present time a certain class of artisans engaged upon particular portions of the article—such as the cutter of the Boot and Shoe Workers, who must not only know how to handle his tools in a skillful manner, but must also be able to judge quickly in what way to cut this material of various sizes in order to secure the greatest number of pieces of correct dimensions,—have developed remarkable skill in executing their own part and are reckoned as high priced men, although possessing slight if any ability in making other parts of the same article. If, however, the artisan

possesses sufficient creative ability and is adept in the use of his tools, he is able to perform the work in a satisfactory manner after, at the greatest, one year's time. Furthermore, it should be remembered that while machinery is extensively used in these trades, the old processes have not entirely been dispensed with. Thus at the present time, shoes are made, in some places, exclusively by hand; in others almost entirely by machinery, while in still other factories the two methods are used conjointly. A beginner who wishes to learn the trade in a shop where only hand workers are employed, is required to serve a long term as an apprentice that he may become an all-round highly skilled workman; but the boy who enters a large factory for the purpose of learning the trade finds an opportunity to learn but one or two parts of it and is not compelled to serve the long apprenticeship term. Certainly, it is true in the boot and shoe industry, and doubtless in all other trades of this group, that a very large percentage of the articles produced are manufactured in large factories in which the latest improved machinery has been installed. These plants disclose the real tendencies and conditions of the trade, and in such establishments the apprentice boy is no longer found. Speaking of a widely known wagon factory, one well acquainted with the conditions therein ventured the opinion that not one skilled workman was employed in the manufacture of any part of the wagon. So extensively has machinery been introduced that, to quote the exact language of the informant of the present writer, "the chief duty of the wagon maker in that factory is to carry material to and from the machines. Furthermore, the wages of practically every employee is scarcely above that of the ordinary laborer, for in reality subdivision has been carried so far that those engaged therein perform a grade of work hardly above that of the laborer." This is an extreme case, as many skilled workmen are found in the trade; but the Carriage and Wagon Workers Union does not demand any special qualifications of its members other than that the applicant must be engaged at the trade and be of good moral character.

The trades of the fourth class, while organized as trades and affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, should perhaps

be classified as professions rather than trades. The group includes the Actors' National Protective Union and the American Federation of Musicians. Other organizations, such as The Teachers' Union of Chicago, might properly be placed in this group.

It is evident, from the foregoing, that a majority of the unions in which apprenticeship is not a prerequisite to membership, are composed of members who perform comparatively unskilled labor. Ordinary intelligence and physical strength are the qualities chiefly desired. There have been little if any radical changes in the methods of production employed in these industries, at least such as would demand a higher grade of skilled labor. Apprentice laws have never been enforced in these crafts. The twelve trades included in the second class, representing in the main railway unions, engineers and firemen and demanding highly skilled and well trained service, are also trades in which the unions have never maintained apprentice rules. Boys of tender age are not received, but men of mature strength are taken on and trained as the employer sees fit. The third class, which includes six different international unions, represents the trades in which the greatest changes in connection with the apprentice have taken place. In these industries a complete revolution in the methods of production has transpired. Machinery and subdivision have made it possible to abolish all apprentice requirements. However, it must be remembered that up to the present time the old methods formerly used by all employers in these trades, have not been entirely discarded by employers operating on a small scale. In the larger establishments the boy never gains a knowledge of the entire trade and may become an expert only in operating his machine, while in the smaller shops, less improved methods are employed and the beginner is required to serve a long apprentice term.

THE EARLY HISTORY OF THE CORPORATION
TAX IN MARYLAND.

BY HUGH S. HANNA.

The corporation tax was of slow development in Maryland, and, to a great extent, necessarily so because of the slowness with which the corporate form of industrial organization extended itself. Prior to the middle of the last century the granting of a corporation charter by the Legislature was a matter of considerable ceremony; such grants were relatively few and confined almost entirely to such enterprises as required special franchise privileges from the state as a condition of their operation, such as banking, canal, railroad and turnpike companies.

Banks were the first of such corporations to be subjected to special taxation, and they were singled out because of reasons peculiar to such institutions. From the first establishment of state chartered banks in 1790 there had existed among a large class of people a feeling of hostility toward these moneyed institutions. This hostility, particularly strong in the agricultural section, which could expect little direct benefit from banks lending only upon short time notice, was fostered by certain periodicals of the day which professed to see in the concentration of the money power an instrument of the people's oppression. This party demanded, in lieu of the abolition of banks, the placing of a tax upon such institutions; and beginning in the session of 1804 an active struggle was waged upon this proposition. The passage of a bank tax bill was finally secured in 1813 by so framing it that it might appeal to the people as a means of furthering their growing demand for a public school system and for internal improvements. These various motives are shown in the text of the act, whose main provisions were as follows: (1). The banks of Baltimore City, together with certain banks in the western part of the state, were to undertake at their own expense, the completion of the National Road to Cumberland. (2). Each bank was to pay into the State Treasury an annual tax of 20 cents upon each \$100 of capital paid in or

thereafter paid in ; the proceeds of the tax to be kept as a separate fund for the establishment of a free school system. (3), The charters of the banks accepting this act were extended until 1835, and in the meantime the state was to impose no further taxes upon the banks nor charter any other banking institution within Baltimore City. The offer was accepted by the banks without undue cavilling. The tax was low, and the road construction requirement were regarded as good investments. So good, in fact, that on several other occasions various banks voluntarily offered to undertake the construction of other internal improvements upon similar conditions.

In pursuance of its promise, the state made no attempt to tax the banks until 1835. In that year, in return for a general extension of charter, the State resumed the right of chartering new banks in Baltimore City and of imposing new bank taxes. This new taxation took the form of a charge upon the charter privilege—the familiarly known bank bonuses in amount varying from $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ to $3\frac{3}{4}\%$ upon the capital stock of each bank whose charter was extended or newly granted. The twenty-cent school tax was continued in all cases.

The annual tax of 20 cents per \$100 laid upon banking capital was a true corporation tax, the first, and for a long time the only example of its kind in Maryland. The charge known as a "bank bonus" was not strictly a corporation tax but rather what has been called "a license fee charged for the privilege of incorporation or of increasing the capital stock of a company" (Seligman). The taxing of banks, however, was not used as a precedent for the taxing of other corporations. Banking for many years lay under its early odium. It was regarded as a necessary institution but as an unproductive one, whose profits were out of proportion to its services, which needed restraint rather than encouragement, and from which, therefore, a contribution could be exacted with peculiar justice. Tentative efforts were made to bring insurance companies under the same taxing rules as applied to banks, but in only one instance was this done.

The internal improvement enthusiasm of the years from 1825

to 1840 brought into being a score or more of large joint stock companies, and gave the first real opportunity for an extensive application of the corporation tax. No attempt, however, was made to turn the opportunity to such an account. The policy of the Legislature was to encourage as far as possible all improvement undertakings, and, so far from burdening them with extra taxes, to relieve them of all unnecessary expense. The only exception made was in the case of the Baltimore and Washington Branch of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad upon which a heavy tax was imposed, but the reasons for such an exception do not appear. The tax indeed was in the nature of an afterthought. The original act authorizing the road made no reference to a tax of any kind. It was only in a later revision of the act that the tax provision was inserted, in compensation apparently for the surrender by the state of certain privileges previously reserved. In any case, this example had no influence in the chartering of other improvement companies.

The first extension of the corporation tax to a whole class of corporations, other than the banks, took place in 1839, when an act was passed subjecting foreign insurance companies doing business in Maryland to a percentage tax upon the premiums received by them. The purpose of the act was only incidentally financial, the main incentive to its passage being the patriotic desire to foster the home insurance companies. The mere fact that the objects of the act were corporations had little or nothing to do with the imposition of the tax.

Thus up to 1841 there was little to indicate any general recognition of the corporation as a peculiar species of taxable property, deserving of special treatment. But, nevertheless, the corporation was rapidly becoming a dominant factor in the economy of the State, and its relation to the public finances was becoming a matter of discussion. By 1841 the internal improvement movement had definitely collapsed. The State Treasury was seriously involved therein and a reorganization of the revenue system became imperative. In this reorganization corporation taxation played a part, entering indeed upon a distinctively new period in its history.

WOMEN IN THE TRADE UNION.

BY T. W. GLOCKER.

The unionization of the female worker has been retarded by many difficulties. One serious obstacle is the refusal of women themselves to join the union, because of repugnance to its belligerent methods, or through fear of retaliation by employers. Women are also indifferent, or opposed to the union because of the possibility of marriage. Unionism means a present sacrifice for a possible future gain; and this sacrifice, the woman who considers her employment to be only a temporary makeshift, may refuse to undergo. Marriage, also, by causing frequent changes in the personnel of the female employees, multiplies greatly the difficulty of organizing them.

If women have completely absorbed one branch of a trade, and hence do not compete with men for work, their unionization is desired, not opposed, by their male co-employees. As early as 1832, at a great mass meeting of workmen, held in the State House Yard, Philadelphia, one afternoon in June of that year, the following resolution was adopted:—

“AND WHEREAS in the female branches of sewing, making clothes, etc., there is much privation, want, and suffering in consequence of the lowness of prices which they receive for their daily toil, therefore

“*Resolved* that we highly disapprove of the speculation which is carried on upon their virtuous and honest labor.

“*Resolved* that the ladies of Philadelphia be recommended to adopt such measures, as may secure to their sisters in humanity a fair compensation for their industry.”

On several occasions when the female hat trimmers' local of Danbury, Conn., has demanded better working conditions, the hat makers and finishers have struck in sympathy; and, by their co-operation, the strike has been won. But a national union oftentimes will not force the unionization of a branch of trade monopolized by women. The United Hatters of North America will not, for example, admit the female hat trimmers,

of whom only a few have been organized, and so will not pledge themselves to refuse the label to those factories where non-union trimmers are employed. The attitude of the trade union is, as the official of one organization expressed it to the writer: "Let such branches of the craft first organize upon their own initiative, and so demonstrate that unionism is possible among them. The attempt of a national union to force matters might result in its own destruction." As against this, the consideration is sometimes urged that the journeymen of a trade will find the co-operation of their female co-workers useful in case of a strike. But, as an officer of the Amalgamated Lace Operatives of America, who was asked why the female lace menders and finishers had not been unionized, naively explained: "The women, though unorganized, usually strike in sympathy with the men. So it would be no additional advantage to have them in the Union."

Various policies have been pursued by the journeymen of a trade, when women compete with them for the same work. Some organizations, as for example the Cigar Makers' International Union during the first few years of its existence, have refused absolutely to admit their female competitors. But, while it is possible to exclude women, when employed wholly in one branch of a trade, such a policy is suicidal when they compete keenly with men for employment; and, in such cases, national unions, have, sooner or later, been forced to organize them. When women are, at last, admitted, opposition to them sometimes continues in an effort to limit them to certain work. For example, with the introduction of the sewing machine, women using the machine were employed as scabs to defeat strikes of the Journeymen Tailors, and a large proportion of clothing in New York City came to be made by female labor. At the National Convention of Journeymen Tailors in 1866, the competition of women was discussed; and, though no conclusive action was taken, the locals were strongly recommended to admit them to membership. Females were, however, to be confined as much as possible to the "custom department"; and only those working in that department were to be allowed to join the union.

Finally, it is the general policy of the trade union to demand that women be paid the same wages as men for the same work. If women perform this work as efficiently as men, such a demand seems just. But often women possess inferior skill. Sometimes, also, employers appear to prefer male to female employees when forced to pay the same wages to both. The enforcement of this policy has, therefore, caused, in some cases, the discharge of women engaged at certain kinds of work.

When women are admitted to membership by national trade unions, they are organized, if possible, into separate locals. Local unions composed wholly of women undoubtedly existed at a very early date. The Journeymen Cordwainers' Society of New York City—a union of boot and shoe workers—organized about 1833 a Ladies' Branch, which, however, came together only as occasion demanded. The female shoe stitchers of Lynn formed in 1846, a Stitchers' League, which was wrecked after a short time by a few malcontents. In 1855, the stitchers of Lynn secretly re-organized for several years; and it was these same stitchers of Lynn who, in 1883, were the first of the boot and shoe workers to apply for a charter from the Knights of Labor. They were organized as Daughters of Labor Assembly, No. 3016; and, in accordance with the policy of the Knights of Labor were allowed to admit, not only stitchers, but also women working at other trades. The women working in the collar factories of Troy, organized, about 1864, a Collar Laundry Union with a membership, which, at one time, reached about four hundred. Several years later, the Female Cap Makers' Union, the Woman's Typographical Union and the Female Parasol and Umbrella Makers' Union were formed in New York City. In 1874, the Tailoresses of New York City created a union independent of the journeymen tailors, but succeeded in organizing only about fifteen hundred out of a possible twenty thousand employed in the ready made clothing industry of that city. In 1870, the National Lodge of the Daughters of St. Crispin was formed; and subordinate lodges of stitchers were organized in various places. In the same year, a convention of the various women's unions in New York State was held at Cooper Institute in New

York City, and an attempt made to form a State Working Women's Association. But the organization died with the adjournment of the convention. The depression which began in 1873, wrought, however, the destruction of all women's organizations in common with the general wreck of most trade unions throughout the country.

Of late years, the movement to form women's unions, as compared to the growth of similar organizations among men, has proceeded but slowly, though with greater success in the West than in the East. In Chicago, an overwhelming majority of workers in twenty-six different trades, with a total aggregate membership of possibly thirty-five thousand, have been organized. The list of unions includes the Lady Cracker Packers, Waitresses, the Laundresses' Union, the Paper Box Makers, the Scrub-women's Union, and embraces, with two important exceptions,—namely the servant girls and the stenographers,—almost every line of feminine industry in Chicago.

When, as in the case of the boot and shoe stitchers, the over-all workers and the hat trimmers, all employees in one branch of a craft are women, the problem of organizing them into a national trade union, together with the journeymen, primarily becomes a division into locals, according to the character of employment. It has been found necessary, however, to create in small places mixed unions of both sexes. Sometimes, also, when the interests of the male and female branches of a trade are closely interwoven, it is convenient to organize them together in one local even in large cities. Thus, while the bookbinders have formed a women's local of stitchers in New York City, yet it has been found necessary to organize the female stampers of New York into the same union with the gold layers.

When women compete with men for the same work, a mixed local is usually formed in order to better enforce the payment to them of the same wages as men, and to maintain other limitations upon their labor. In 1869, the International Typographical Union granted a charter to the female compositors of New York City. But, after several years' experience, it was found that the women were working for a different scale from the male printers.

The charter was, therefore, revoked; and the Typographical Union has never since that time attempted to form separate local unions of women. One notable exception to the general trade union policy is found among the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen. The butchers organize the men employed in the large packing houses into locals according to the department in which they work. The female employees, scattered throughout the various departments, are, however, at Chicago, South Omaha, and other large packing centers, gathered into one local, known as the "Women's Union."

JURISDICTIONAL DISPUTES IN BREWERIES.

By S. BLUM.

The perfect form of industrial union has for its ideal the formation into one organization of all the crafts which make up the industry. Thus the Brewery Workmen and the United Mine Workers claim jurisdiction over all men working in or around the brewery, or mine, regardless of dissimilarities in the technique of work or in the organizations of the separate crafts. There are certain other unions with industrial tendencies which have not succeeded in unifying all the men in the industry; these may be termed amalgamations. The craft union or trade union simply attempts to organize all men in the trade irrespective of the industry in which they work. The industrial is a unification based upon location, the trade union is one based upon technique. These forms are antagonistic and have resulted in jurisdictional controversies.

The Brewery Workmen organized a national union in 1887. At this time none of the unions, with which it has since had disputes, except the Coopers, had effected national organizations. The first dispute was with the coopers. The coopers demanded jurisdiction over all cooperage work around the breweries, to include alike new work and repair work. In the convention of

the American Federation of Labor of 1897, the coopers complained that the Brewery Workmen had been repeatedly upheld in the repair and examination of beer packages and that the coopers claimed the right to perform this work. They further alleged that an unjust boycott had been placed by brewery workmen on ale and porter coming from Albany and Troy. During the year so many disputes had taken place between the two organizations that the American Federation of Labor requested the two organizations to form a joint conference board to settle the matter in conflict. This conference committee was ineffectual, and in the following year the president of the American Federation of Labor appointed a committee to hear evidence and to make recommendations as to which unions should have the right to repair loose cooperage in breweries. This committee recommended that, when there was sufficient cooperage in the breweries to require the employment of a cooper, these workers necessarily belonged to the coopers' union. When the cooperage work did not require the entire time of a cooper, all men who did the work should belong to the Brewery Workmen.

In spite of this decision, the brewery workmen refused to surrender their jurisdiction over to the coopers. The coopers further protested that in some factories the tightening of hoops on loose cooperage packages was being done by members of the Brewery Workmen. This contention was not upheld, as the specified work was implied in the decision of the year before; but it was held that all repairing and all new work should be done by the coopers. Thus the case stands. In the conventions of 1901 and 1902 the protests of the coopers continued, but the decision has remained unchanged. The brewery workmen seem to be gradually forcing the coopers out of the business either by assimilation or by putting new men in their places. The decision of the American Federation of Labor in this case has not been influential in deciding the contest.

Though the dispute with the coopers was the first in which the Brewery Workmen were engaged, it is by no means the most important either in the number of men involved nor in the vigor with which it has been fought. In 1896 the National Union of

Steam Engineers was organized and affiliated with the American Federation of Labor; and two years later the Stationary Firemen organized on national lines. Almost immediately, a jurisdictional controversy arose between these unions and the Brewery Workmen. It is important to consider the controversy in some detail as it brings out very clearly the principles involved and the dangers of these conflicts. In an agreement between the Engineers and Brewery Workmen in 1899, it was agreed that engineers working in breweries should be required to join the engineers' union. This agreement was not lived up to, as the Brewery Workmen not only retained engineers as members but continued to admit them into their organization. In 1900 it was reported that brewery workmen admitted engineers, firemen, machinists, team drivers, coopers and painters as members of their union, thus preventing them from joining the legitimate unions of their trade. These complaints and important struggles led to a decision in all these matters by the grievance committee of the American Federation of Labor.

Despite decisions to the contrary, the Brewery Workmen continued in their attempts to assimilate the firemen and engineers. The struggle reached a climax in St. Louis in 1903. According to a decision rendered at the 1902 convention of the American Federation of Labor, it was provided that the engineers and firemen should have control of their trades and that a committee from the three organizations and the American Federation of Labor should draw up an agreement for the adjustment of future difficulties. This was done in January, 1903. Immediately the Brewery Workmen called a special convention, and so changed the agreement as to make it meaningless. At the Toronto meeting of the executive council of the American Federation of Labor the legality of the decision of the Federation was denied by the Brewery Workmen; but their contention was not sustained. At the same meeting the Firemen and Engineers demanded that the charter of the Brewery Workmen be revoked. The executive council denied this demand but stated that "the causes of the constant strife by strikes and lockouts are due primarily to the unwise course pursued by the United Brewery Workmen's International

Union in rejecting and acting in violation of the advice and decision rendered as the result of the experience of the labor movement." This admonition had no effect, and an organizer of the American Federation of Labor was sent to St. Louis to effect a settlement.

The Engineers and Firemen stated that for some time prior to August 25, 1903, they had a majority of the men in the trade. They attempted to put agreements into force with the St. Louis Brewers' Association but were refused. The Anheuser-Busch Brewery Company suggested that a meeting be held to meet the representatives of the two unions, and if the Brewers' Association refused to do business with the unions the independent breweries would. When the time set for the meeting arrived the Engineers and Firemen found that the Brewery Workmen were already in conference with the Association. The next day representatives of the Engineers and Firemen visited the individual breweries and demanded that the agreement be signed. When this was refused, the men were called out in the engine and boiler rooms, and their places were taken by members of the United Brewery Workmen. The Brewers' Association took the position that the Brewery Workmen did not consider the decision of the American Federation of Labor as final, and that until the controversy was settled once and for all, the Association would stand neutral. The Association finally agreed to do business with the engineers and firemen, provided the American Federation of Labor would guarantee to fill the places of the Brewery Workmen in the event of a strike by them. The American Federation of Labor, of course, refused to guarantee this, and in consequence no agreement was entered into by the Association with the Engineers and Firemen.

No settlement having been made either of the St. Louis controversy or of the general question of jurisdiction, the case was continued in the 1904 convention of the American Federation of Labor. The Executive Council's recommendations, which were concurred in by the grievance committee and by the Convention itself, included not only firemen and engineers but also teamsters, who in the meantime had formed a national union. The com-

mittee decided that all past agreements and decisions be replaced by the following provision which was to become the basis for working agreements between the organizations :

"All brewery employees now [1904] members of the United Brewery Workmen's Union may remain such provided that all firemen, engineers and teamsters affiliated with it might withdraw without prejudice to themselves. In the future, Brewery Workmen are not permitted to admit any of the above mentioned trades into their organization, on the other hand these trades are supposed to conform to the laws, rules and regulations made by the organization to which the majority of the employees of the brewery belong."

It is notable that this decision has not strengthened the position of the Engineers and Fireman to any greater extent than the decision of 1899. Certainly the end of the controversy is not yet in sight.

We have gone into the details of the dispute because it brings out clearly certain principles involved in all important jurisdictional controversies :

- (1) Jurisdictional controversies lead to scabbing.
- (2) That in deciding disputes the point at issue is to find the legitimate union in the trade and it is thus a phase of the union shop controversy.
- (3) That there are no efficient means yet devised to adjust important controversies satisfactorily.

THE RETIREMENT ASSOCIATION OF THE LETTER CARRIERS.

BY J. B. KENNEDY.

The National Association of Letter Carriers of the United States is composed of letter carriers in the employ of the United States Government. Organized in 1889, the Association has as its primary purposes, first, to unite all letter carriers in the United States, second, to secure their rights as Government

employees, and third, to conduct a national benefit association. The payment of insurance against death has met satisfactorily the needs of letter carriers, but a feeling has existed for some time that the association ought to give protection to members who have become incapable, on account of advancing years, of performing the duties of letter carriers.

At the Denver Convention, held in 1902, the National Association organized a "Retirement Association" for the support of its aged and disabled members. Under the original law, which went into effect on January 1, 1903, the Association issued retirement certificates to members in the sums of \$500, \$400, \$300, and \$200 at monthly premiums of \$6.70, \$5.35, \$4.00, and \$2.70 respectively. On retirement, after having paid thirty annual premiums, or their equivalent, a member was entitled to receive annually the amount of his certificate. The retirement might also take place after thirty years' service, or after thirty years' membership in the Association, or after the age of sixty-five had been reached, provided ten annual premiums had been paid. This "ten annual premium" concession was for the benefit of the old men whose circumstances would not allow them to pay the sum of thirty years' premiums. The concession was to be only for a period of ten years.

Provision was made that, after January 1, 1906, any member of the Retirement Association who should serve as a letter carrier or should continue a member for a stated term of years, and who should become permanently incapacitated, mentally or physically, for any kind of remunerative labor before thirty years' service or before attaining the age of sixty-five, should receive annually from the retirement fund a certain per cent. of the face value of his retirement certificate. The amount was proportioned to the years of service. For five years' membership such a member received fifteen per cent. ; for ten years, thirty per cent. ; for fifteen years, forty-five per cent. ; for twenty years, sixty per cent. ; for twenty-five years, seventy-five per cent.

Members of not less than five years' standing might, after ninety days notice to the chief clerk, withdraw from the Associa-

tion ; and in such event, they became entitled to receive seventy-five per cent. of the annual premiums paid to the Association. Also in case of death within two years of retirement and prior to the payment of not more than twenty-four monthly installments of pension, the Association agreed to pay to the widow or children the annuity provided in the deceased member's certificate until the amount paid should aggregate seventy-five per cent. of all premiums received by the Association.

The original plan was a failure. In it, business principles were sacrificed for fraternity. Relief had been provided for the old men particularly, but very few even of these took advantage of the opportunity. The young men refused to enter, because the favorable rates to old men placed a heavy burden upon the younger members. The report of the chief clerk to the Syracuse Convention in 1903, showed that up to September 1, 1903, only eighteen retirement certificates had been issued, of which thirteen were for \$500, two for \$300, and three for \$200. The average age of membership at entrance was fifty-three and the average length of service, twenty-two years. The total receipts of the retirement fund were only \$380.90. On September 1, 1905, the total number of certificates issued had reached twenty-five, with only nineteen outstanding, while the retirement fund had increased to \$2,839.88.

The originators of the Retirement Association were forced to abandon their experimental fraternity scheme and to formulate a plan based more nearly upon business principles. Consequently, at the Portland Convention in September, 1905, Chairman Goodwin and Chief Clerk Wilson of the Retirement Committee proposed a new plan.

Under the new law, which becomes operative on January 1, 1906, the Retirement Association was authorized to offer insurance against disability and insurance against old age. The members of the Association are, therefore, divided into two classes—"annuity members" and "disability members," but those duly qualified may hold both annuity and disability certificates. Any member of the National Association of Letter Carriers may become an "annuity member," but only those

under sixty-five years of age, and in good physical condition may become "disability members." A member retiring from the carriers' service ceases to be entitled to disability relief; on the other hand, retirement from carrier service does not affect the right of a member to an annuity. The plan provides for annuities of one, two, three, four and five hundred dollars to be paid after a certain age.

The cost of an annuity under the new law depends upon two factors :—(a) The length of the period between the date of entry and the commencement of the annuity, (b) The life expectancy at the age when the annuity begins. For example, a member twenty years of age, who desires to begin drawing his annuity at fifty, must pay an annual premium of \$55.92 for each \$100 of annuity. Entering at forty years of age and desiring to begin drawing his annuity at sixty-five, he would be required to pay annual premiums of \$22.92 for each \$100 of annuity.

The disability certificates guarantee an indemnity of eight dollars per week for loss of time resulting from disability caused by accident or disease. No more than twenty weeks' disability benefit may be paid during any one year. The benefit may be drawn at one time or at different times during the year. Should a member, after entry into the Association, become permanently disabled by any chronic disease that may, in the judgment of the board of directors, cause a permanent drain upon the funds of the Association, the said member is to receive the disability allowance for twenty weeks, after which his certificate is to be cancelled. The disability feature as thus defined is not, technically speaking, disability insurance, but rather a sick benefit. There are two rates of assessment for the support of the disability benefit. Up to fifty years of age all members pay fifty cents per month, and all over this age pay seventy-five cents per month, but no one over sixty-five years of age may enter the Association.

The letter carriers have also attempted to secure the aid of the government in providing an old age pension. At the Portland Convention held in September, 1905, a plan was approved under which the Post Office Department of the United States is requested to grant extended leave of absence to "superannuated

or permanently impaired" carriers on condition that they accept forty per cent. of their regular salary, while retired, and that they pay the remaining sixty per cent. to the senior substitute in the office. Under the conditions of this plan, the applicant for retirement must submit himself to the board of examiners who shall, after a physical examination by the physician of the board, determine his eligibility for retirement. The officials claim that this plan would remove the detrimental effect which the employment of old men has upon the efficiency of the service.

THE LABEL OF THE UNITED HATTERS OF NORTH AMERICA.

BY E. R. SPEDDEN.

The board of directors of the Hat Finishers' Association and the Hat Makers' National Union met in 1885, and adopted a union label which they called "The Label of the United Hatters of North America." The label is rectangular in shape, printed on buff paper with perforated edges. It portrays the clasped hands of brotherhood, equality and justice below a figure of the globe of the world. It has the inscription, "The United Hatters of North America." The printing and emblems are arranged in concentric circles; that of the printing is without the circle containing the emblems.

An uniform method of attaching the label is insisted upon by the union. The label is sewed under the band, and the threads of the bow must pass through the label to prove that the label is authentic, and not affixed to hats after they have been made by non-union labor. The label is not allowed on "knock-downs" and is intended to represent good workmanship as well as union labor.

The label of the Hatters is gradually gaining a greater vogue. In the half year from December 1, 1896, to May 31, 1897, over 3,000,000 labels were used. In 1901 it was reported that the organization was using over 1,000,000 each month. The secre-

tary of the union wrote in August, 1900, that over 25 non-union factories had been unemployed since 1896, the result of the influence of the label. The manufacturers declared in 1898, that they believed that over 95,000,000 labels had been used and the demand for goods bearing the label was steadily on the increase. Up to 1901, over 133,000,000 labels had been put into circulation. The president of the Hatters, in an address before the New York Convention of 1903, stated that the label of the United Hatters had "found its way to all parts of the world in 157,522,694 hats." In January, 1904, 2,000,000 labels were being used each month, and about 80% of the hat manufacturers in this country were using the label on their goods.

The Hatters have adopted a vigorous policy of advertising the label. Thus match-safes bearing a likeness of the label are given away for a certain number of union labels, and in labor parades the label is conspicuously displayed. In 1899 an official was appointed in New York State, solely for the purpose of advertising the label and prosecuting all cases of infringement. One of the results of his work was to detect and prevent the counterfeiting of the Hatters' label by a firm, which admitted its guilt, turned 55,000 labels over to the organization, unionized its factory and consented to pay \$200 damages. About \$30,000 a year has been spent in advertising the label since March 15, 1896, when the present form of the Hatters' label first appeared.

The label is not used on straw, cloth, wool and silk hats. The cap makers have a label of their own, and in silk hats the label of any union does not appear, though the silk hat makers have a union of their own. The largest manufacturers who do not use the label are the Stetson and Knox companies. These factories are non-union, and as such are not given the label, though making a high-class product. This seems to be one of the difficulties of the Hatters in the use of their label. Many factories, some employing all union men, do not use the label either because they do not care to commit themselves as to their attitude towards the union, or because their trade makes no demand for the label.

The union's regulations provide that no manufacturer who

“gets up caps and brims, that is brims and crowns sewed and pasted together, shall under any circumstances be allowed the use of the label.” The minimum wage of \$18 per week for a young man, sanitary conditions of labor and a normal working day are requisite for the use of the label. Only union shops are allowed the label, especially strictly union finishing departments. Any union shop having at least one member in good standing may use the label. The label laws form a division in the constitution and are minute in their specifications.

The Hatters maintain exclusive control of their label. No employer is allowed to share in any way in its expense. The object of such action is to keep the label entirely under the control of the union, and to maintain it apart from any influence outside of the Hatters' organization. “The label shall not be removed from any factory under the jurisdiction of the United Hatters of North America without the consent of the general executive board” (Art. XIII, sec. 2, Constitution of 1900). This provision makes it possible for both sides to be heard in case of any dispute and removes from the jurisdiction of any local board any action which might be the result of hasty or biased opinion. The label is of vital importance to the national union and its use must be subject to the scrutiny of the central body.

Great difficulty has been experienced by the Hatters in preventing the counterfeiting of the label. Forty States and Territories have adopted laws protecting the trade-union label as a registered trade mark. Any infringement is usually punished as a misdemeanor and the parties guilty of counterfeiting are liable to suit for damages. The unions must register their respective labels with the Secretary of State either in copy or in fac-simile. The officers of the Hatters' organization are constantly on the watch for any case of infringement in the form of counterfeit labels, improperly attached labels, labels being used on “knockdowns,” or any use of the Hatters' label on goods other than those finished by the United Hatters.

All sorts of devices are tried by the jobbers to take advantage of the label. Goods are bought from the manufacturers and, when they arrive, they are often stored away and sold as con-

taining the label. When a union man turns down the sweat band and does not find the label, the jobber or retail man has many apologies to offer. The stitching generally gives the clue to any fraud and for this reason, the Hatters demand a uniform method of attaching the label. A so-called "French Label" has worked some ill effects upon the Hatters. This label purports to be the emblem of a French organization and is found in so-called "imported" hats. At present the Hatters are active in their agitation against this label and are meeting with reasonable success.

An interesting phenomenon in connection with the label is the sectional demand for goods bearing it. Pennsylvania is perhaps the State where the largest sale of label goods occurs in the East. This is undoubtedly due to the strong union among the miners and a resultant trade union sympathy and fraternal relation with other forms of labor organizations. The west and middle-western districts also reveal this tendency. In the south the label has comparatively little influence upon sales. The Hatters are, however, vigorously canvassing that section, and with good results.

The object of the label among all unions is to control primarily the trade, and especially to educate the laboring people to purchase only union goods. The Hatters place great emphasis upon these facts. The "boycott" has always been an instrument of doubtful expediency, and the label has been gradually substituted for the "boycott" as a controlling force. "Government by injunction" has always been extremely unpopular, and strikes are dangerous experiments. As a substitute for these, the label has been effective, by influencing the trade, and in aiding the Hatters in many of their disputes with capital.

EUROPEAN METHODS OF CONTROL OVER RAILWAY RATES.

BY W. H. BUCKLER.

The treatment of railway companies by the chief European states has assumed four different forms :

(1). In Germany, Austria, Hungary, Russia, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland, the State has either built the railway lines, or has bought out the large companies and now works their lines itself. There may be an occasional exception, such for instance as the Sardinian Railway, in which an independent company still survives. But the seven countries named have on the whole committed themselves to State ownership and operation.

(2). In Spain and Holland the State has reserved the right to modify the tariffs of the railway companies on condition that it shall compensate the companies for any loss of net earnings resulting from an enforced reduction of rates.

(3). England has constituted a special tribunal, the Railway and Canal Commission, before which plaintiffs alleging undue preference, wrong classification, unreasonable rates, or any other contravention of the many Railway and Canal Traffic Acts, can sue the offending company and obtain damages or other redress.

(4). In France, the principal railway lines, the ground occupied by which belongs to the State, have been conceded for a long term of years to six great companies ; these have the privilege of proposing the tariffs, while the State exercises the right of accepting or rejecting such proposals, and without its approval no rate can legally be charged.

The comparative merits or defects of the system of State ownership can only be fairly weighed with reference to the circumstances of a particular country. For instance, the superior military effectiveness of State railways, in consequence of which Germany is able seriously to threaten the French frontier, is an advantage that would not count in the United States. And there are other arguments by which Austria, Hungary, Belgium, and, more recently, Switzerland and Italy, were led to adopt

their respective plans of State ownership, but which in this country would have no weight.

The Spanish and Dutch systems have never been made effective, and the right of those governments to reduce rates is one by which the companies have remained practically untouched ; so that lessons in the art of public control are scarcely to be derived from that source.

The English method resembles our own, and has proved to have similar defects. It is slow, expensive, and ill adapted to deal with the enormous mass of detail necessitated by the railway tariffs of a busy industrial country. The last (16th) report of the Railway and Canal Commissioners shows a list of 103 cases only tried or pending during the previous year. Under certain conditions a rate cannot go into effect without the consent of the commissioners, but no official mechanism exists for validating all rates. The Commission merely pronounces a certain small number of rates to be invalid, provided the shippers thereby affected take the trouble of disputing them. It is true that the English companies are also bound by special "Rates and Charges Acts" passed by Parliament, but the maximum tariffs fixed by these are of little value, since maximum rates soon come to have a mere antiquarian interest. If then we are seeking a plan of thorough regulation, England has not much to teach. We already possess in the Interstate Commerce Commission something analogous to the English system, and the reports of that Commission have demonstrated the defects under which such a system labors.

The French mode of controlling rates is far more thorough than either the English or the American method, and is carried into effect by a highly differentiated organization of government experts well adapted for the work to be performed. It is reasonably free from those features which are supposed to render government control a bane to capital and enterprise, yet it nevertheless succeeds remarkably well in preventing the discriminations and the reckless rate-making of which American railways are constantly accused. It has been thoroughly tested since 1846 in a prosperous democratic country, full of jealous cities

and of keenly competing industries, and now possessing a total railway network of 25,000 miles.

We should bear in mind that in relation to French railway companies the legal powers of the State, being strictly defined in the contracts by which the railway concessions were made, are far more limited than those of our government in relation to our companies. There are other points of difference between our railways and the French which need not concern us here. For instance their concessions are limited in time, having now about 50 years more to run ; the State since 1883 has guaranteed to some of them a minimum dividend ; their construction, equipment and operation are subject to minute State supervision. But for the purpose of our comparison with American railways these differences are not material, since in all things connected with the making of rates, except the one feature of public regulation, the French railway companies closely resemble our own. Each is a great business corporation, controlled by its stockholders, administered by its directors, and organized with the main object of earning the largest possible dividend on its shares.

A Reprint of Economic Tracts

SECOND SERIES

In consequence of the favorable reception accorded the reprint of four economic tracts of the nineteenth century in 1903-4, the Johns Hopkins Press invites subscriptions to a similar reprint of four important economic tracts of the seventeenth century. Should sufficient encouragement be received to warrant the enterprise, it is proposed to issue the tracts consecutively under the editorial direction of J. H. Hollander, Ph. D., Professor of Political Economy in the Johns Hopkins University.

The proposed series will consist of the following tracts :

- (1) A Discourse of Trade. By Nicholas Barbon. London, 1690. (Ready.)
- (2) Several Assertions Proved, in order to create another species of money than gold and silver. By John Asgill. London, 1696.
- (3) Discourses upon Trade, principally directed to the cases of the interest, coynage, clipping, increase of money. By Dudley North. London, 1691.
- (4) England's Interest Considered, in the increase of the trade of this kingdom. By Samuel Fortrey. Cambridge, 1663.

Each tract will be supplied with a brief introductory note and necessary text annotations by the editor. The general appearance of the title page will be preserved and the original pagination will be indicated.

The edition will be limited to five hundred copies. With a view to serving the largest scientific usefulness, the subscription for the entire series of four tracts has again been fixed at the net price of One Dollar (5 shillings—5 marks—6 francs). Subscriptions for the series should be sent to

THE JOHNS HOPKINS PRESS,
Baltimore, Md.

First Series of Reprints of Economic Tracts.

Of the first series of reprints, a limited number can yet be obtained at the price of One Dollar and a Half (\$1.50) net, for the series. The first series can only be supplied in conjunction with a subscription to the second series. As the edition approaches exhaustion, the price is likely to be further increased. The first series consists of the following tracts :

1. Three Letters on 'The Price of Gold.' By David Ricardo, 1809.
2. An Inquiry into the Nature and Progress of Rent. By T. R. Malthus, 1815.
3. Essay on the Application of Capital to Land. By Sir Edward West, 1815.
4. A Refutation of the Wage-Fund Theory. By Francis D. Longe, 1866.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY STUDIES

IN

Historical and Political Science

(Edited by H. B. ADAMS, 1882-1901)

J. M. VINCENT, J. H. HOLLANDER, W. W. WILLOUGHBY,
Editors.

TWENTY-FOURTH SERIES, 1906.

The University Studies will continue to publish, as heretofore, the results of recent investigations in History, Political Science, and Political Economy. The cost of subscription for the regular Annual Series, comprising about 600 pages, with index, is \$3.00. Single numbers, or special monographs, at special prices.

For the year 1906, the titles given below are now announced; other numbers will follow from time to time.

SPANISH AMERICAN DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS PRECEDING THE WAR OF 1898. By H. E. Flack. 50 cents.
THE FINANCES OF AMERICAN TRADE UNIONS. By Aaron M. Sakolski.
LABOR FEDERATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES. By William Kirk.
DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES AND RUSSIA. By John C. Hildt.
STATE RIGHTS IN NORTH CAROLINA, 1776-1870. By H. M. Wagstaff.
TRADE AGREEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES. By Frederick W. Hilbert.
THE APPRENTICE AND AMERICAN TRADE UNIONS. By James M. Motley.
FIVE CENTURIES OF SUMPTUARY LAW IN EUROPE. By J. M. Vincent.

Annual Series of Studies in Historical and Political Science, 1883-1905.

SERIES I.—LOCAL INSTITUTIONS. 479 pp. \$4.00.
SERIES II.—INSTITUTIONS AND ECONOMICS. 629 pp. \$4.00.
SERIES III.—MARYLAND, VIRGINIA AND WASHINGTON. 595 pp. \$4.00.
SERIES IV.—MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT AND LAND TENURE. 600 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES V.—MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT, HISTORY AND POLITICS. 559 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES VI.—THE HISTORY OF CO-OPERATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 540 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES VII.—SOCIAL SCIENCE, MUNICIPAL AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. —(Not sold separately.)
SERIES VIII.—HISTORY, POLITICS, AND EDUCATION. —(Not sold separately.)
SERIES IX.—EDUCATION, POLITICS, AND SOCIAL SCIENCE. —(Not sold separately.)
SERIES X.—CHURCH AND STATE, COLUMBUS AND AMERICA. 630 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XI.—LABOR, SLAVERY, AND SELF-GOVERNMENT. 574 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XII.—INSTITUTIONAL AND ECONOMIC HISTORY. 626 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XIII.—SOUTH CAROLINA, MARYLAND, AND VIRGINIA. 606 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XIV.—BALTIMORE, SLAVERY, AND CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY. 588 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XV.—AMERICAN ECONOMIC HISTORY. 618 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XVI.—ANGLO-AMERICAN RELATIONS AND SOUTHERN HISTORY. 624 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XVII.—ECONOMIC HISTORY: MARYLAND AND THE SOUTH. 600 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XVIII.—TAXATION IN SOUTHERN STATES: CHURCH AND EDUCATION. 582 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XIX.—DIPLOMATIC AND CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY. 650 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XX.—COLONIAL AND ECONOMIC HISTORY. 622 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XXI.—INDIANA, NORTH CAROLINA AND MARYLAND. 580 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XXII.—SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL HISTORY. 651 pp. \$3.50.
SERIES XXIII.—COLONIES, REVOLUTION, RECONSTRUCTION. 700 pp. \$3.50.

The set of twenty-three series of Studies is now offered, uniformly bound in cloth, for library use, for \$80.00 net.

Orders should be addressed to THE JOHNS HOPKINS PRESS, BALTIMORE, MARYLAND.

THE JOHNS HOPKINS PRESS OF BALTIMORE.

- American Journal of Mathematics.** FRANK MORLEY, Editor. Quarterly. 4to. Volume XXVIII in progress. \$5 per volume. (Foreign postage, fifty cents.)
- American Chemical Journal.** IRA REMSEN, Editor. Monthly. 8vo. Volume XXXV in progress. \$5 per year. (Foreign postage, fifty cents.)
- American Journal of Philology.** B. L. GILDERSLEEVE, Editor. Quarterly. 8vo. Volume XXVII in progress. \$3 per volume. (Foreign postage, fifty cents.)
- Studies in Historical and Political Science.** J. M. VINCENT, J. H. HOLLANDER, W. W. WILLOUGHBY, Editors. Monthly. 8vo. Volume XXIV in progress. \$3 per volume. (Foreign postage, fifty cents.)
- Johns Hopkins University Circular.** Monthly. 8vo. \$1 per year.
- Johns Hopkins Hospital Bulletin.** Monthly. 4to. Volume XVII in progress. \$2 per year. (Foreign postage, fifty cents.)
- Johns Hopkins Hospital Reports.** 4to. Volume XIII in progress. \$5 per volume. (Foreign postage, fifty cents.)
- Contributions to Assyriology and Semitic Philology.** PAUL HAUPT and FRIEDRICH DELITZSCH, editors. Volume VI in progress.
- Memoirs from the Biological Laboratory.** W. K. BROOKS, Editor. Volume VI in progress.
- Modern Language Notes.** A. M. ELLIOTT, Editor. Monthly. 4to. Volume XXI in progress. \$1.50 per volume. (Foreign postage, twenty-five cents.)
- American Journal of Insanity.** HENRY M. HURD, Editor. Quarterly. 8vo. Volume LXII in progress. \$5 per volume.
- Terrestrial Magnetism and Atmospheric Electricity.** L. A. BAUER, Editor. Quarterly. 8vo. Volume XI in progress. \$2.50 per volume. (Foreign postage, twenty-five cents.)
- Reprint of Economic Tracts.** J. H. HOLLANDER, Editor. First series, \$1.50. Second series, in progress, \$1.00.
- Report of the Maryland Geological Survey.**
- Report of the Johns Hopkins University.** Presented by the President to the Board of Trustees.
- Register of the Johns Hopkins University.** Giving the list of officers and students, and stating the regulations, etc.
-

- ROWLAND'S PHOTOGRAPH OF THE NORMAL SOLAR SPECTRUM.** Ten plates. \$20.
- PHOTOGRAPHIC REPRODUCTION OF THE KASHMIRIAN ATHARVA-VEDA.** M. Bloomfield, Editor. 3 vols. Folio. \$50.
- POEMA DE FERNAN GONÇALEZ.** Edited by C. Carroll Marden. 284 pp. 8vo. \$2.50, net.
- THE TAILL OF RAUF COLLYEAR.** Edited by William Hand Browne. 164 pp. 8vo. \$1.00, net.
- A NEW CRITICAL EDITION OF THE HEBREW TEXT OF THE OLD TESTAMENT.** Paul Haupt, Editor. Prospectus on application.
- STUDIES IN HONOR OF PROFESSOR GILDERSLEEVE.** 527 pp. 8vo. \$6.
- THE PHYSICAL PAPERS OF HENRY A. ROWLAND.** 716 pp. 8vo. \$7.50.
- BALTIMORE LECTURES ON MOLECULAR DYNAMICS AND THE WAVE THEORY OF LIGHT.** By Lord Kelvin. 716 pp. 8vo. \$4.50, net.
- THE OYSTER.** By W. K. Brooks. 225 pp. 8vo. \$1.
- ECCLESIASTES: A NEW METRICAL TRANSLATION.** By Paul Haupt. 50 pp. 8vo. 50 cents.
-

Communications should be addressed to The Johns Hopkins Press.