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**THE CANADIAN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT
OF 1907.**

BY VICTOR S. CLARK, PH. D.

INTRODUCTION.

The Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada became a law March 22, 1907, following several prior acts—the last a consolidation, made only a year before, of previous statutes—for the voluntary conciliation, investigation, and arbitration of labor difficulties. The immediate occasion of the new law was a strike of great local interest and public importance in the coal mines of southern Alberta, which the previous autumn had threatened to leave the prairie Provinces without a winter's supply of fuel. Consequently the dominant motive of the act was to prevent strikes that seriously and directly affect the general welfare. The method of the law in such disputes is to prohibit a cessation of industry, under adequate penalties, until the public is officially informed of the grounds of the controversy.

The act differs from the compulsory arbitration laws of Australasia in that strikes and lockouts are not prohibited after an investigation of their causes has been made. The power of well-informed public opinion is then relied upon to prevent or shorten such disturbances. Another important difference is that the provisions of the Canadian law extend only to public utilities—such as steam and electric railways, power and lighting plants, and similar industries—and to mines. Coal mines may perhaps be considered as public utilities, but the extension to metal mines is a departure from the leading theory of the law.

Therefore the act is the logical first step toward government intervention in labor disputes, if a policy of intervention is to be adopted. It recognizes the right of the public to continuous service in indus-

tries established primarily for the general convenience, like its right to continuous military and police protection, and at the same time it preserves the right of workmen and employers to terminate their contracts. It is not, like the compulsory laws of Australasian countries, an attempt to regulate in detail the administration of private business or to control the organization of labor. Yet in requiring a public investigation of certain disputes before permitting a strike, the law goes beyond previous legislation, which became effective only at the option of the parties, and therefore did not constitute true intervention.

The law provides for boards of conciliation and investigation, appointed for each dispute. Each board consists of three members, one selected by the workers, another by the employers, and the third by these two members, or, when they disagree, by the government.

THE LAW AS AN AID TO STRIKE PREVENTION.

As the law is intended to prevent, not to prohibit, strikes and lockouts, and applies to only a limited number of industries, strikes have not ceased entirely in Canada, and occur occasionally even in the industries subject to the act. Four strikes—two in coal mines, one upon a railway, and one among dock laborers—were begun so soon after the act went into force that the workers could fairly plead ignorance of its provisions. In all these cases they resumed work after the law was explained. One lockout in a western coal mine occurred under similar circumstances. The Montreal longshoremen went on a strike in disregard of the act, and the coal miners at Springhill struck after an award had been given. No strikers have been convicted under the penal provisions of the law; but two union officers have been fined for inciting strikes, and one employer has been fined for instituting a lockout.

From March 22, 1907, when the act went into effect, to January 15, 1908, thirty disputes became subject to investigation, though some were settled before a board was appointed or held hearings. One board has been applied for and rendered its decision since the latter date. Five strikes, begun in ignorance or disregard of the law, and one lockout, were ended pending or after investigation, though not in all cases directly by a board. Out of the remaining twenty-five disputes but two resulted in a strike.^(a) Friends of the act claim further that some disputes that otherwise might have resulted in a strike have been settled without a board, because the parties did not want a public investigation.

^a This includes a three days' strike in British Columbia, at the conclusion of a mine award, not mentioned in the official return. After ceasing work three days the men accepted the board's decision. (See Appendix, p. 781.)

It seems, therefore, a fair conclusion that the act has prevented strikes, some of which might have been serious. Opinion differs as to what disputes would have so resulted without the good offices of the boards, and there is no way of deciding this point. An international officer of a railway union, opposed to the law, writes: "There is not one single instance during the past thirty-five years, in this country, much less since the enactment of the Railway Labor Disputes Act, 1903 (which provided for voluntary conciliation), wherein the public has been inconvenienced to any appreciable extent, on account of disputes between railway companies and their employees, that would justify the application of the Industrial Disputes Act, 1907, to them." Nevertheless, in the case of the Canadian Pacific Railway telegraphers, last summer, a very serious strike was threatened, so that the prospective interference with traffic was a matter of much public concern. In the spring of 1908 a troublesome coal mine dispute in Nova Scotia, involving nearly seven thousand men, which many believed would result in a disastrous strike, was settled amicably. In both these cases a settlement might have been secured had no law been in force. But taking the twenty-six disputes that occurred after the provisions of the act were generally known—and this includes the Montreal dockers' strike—the law of averages leads to the belief that more strikes would have followed had they been left to the usual methods of settlement.

INFLUENCE OF THE ACT ON CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT.

Some things are worse than strikes, and if it were certain that the act had affected adversely conditions of employment for the 25,000 men said to be working under board agreements or had prevented normal improvement in those conditions, then, in spite of the strikes prevented, it might be well to repeal the law. At the outset it should be noted that the Canadian act was put in force just before an industrial depression, on the verge of a period of unemployment and falling wages. Therefore in its natal year it was put to a severer test than have been the Australasian laws in the twelve years of their operation. In some cases wages have been lowered, and in others expected increases have been denied. But most of the agreements made under the auspices of the boards have either increased wages or shortened hours of work, and some of them have done both. Such results go further by implication than appears on the surface and show a flexible treatment of wage relations that has not been possible where compulsory arbitration is in force.

Relatively less success has attended the mediation of the boards in mining disputes than in railway negotiations. Possibly the adjust-

ment of piecework rates and the regulation of other conditions peculiar to mines is more difficult for outside authorities than is the adjustment of salaries and wages on railways. Some board decisions have been entirely disregarded by mining companies without bringing on a strike. In more instances the decision of the board has been used as a basis for a settlement by direct negotiation between employers and employees. Indeed, settlements by parties not involved in the original dispute have sometimes been based on board decisions in neighboring mines. (In comparatively few cases has a board's decision been accepted without modification by the parties interested. Instead of indicating a weakness of the act, however, this apparent laxness may be a source of strength, for in most such cases it is fair to assume that the board's decision was in some respect defective, as might be expected unless it were made by experts. To enforce such a decision by law would burden both employees and the industry itself with uneconomic regulations.)

But the negative result in case of mining disputes is more apparent than real. The recommendations of the boards have favored the demands of the men in most instances, and where the final settlement did not coincide with the recommendation, the latter has usually influenced the terms conceded. Merely by preventing strikes the act has in a sense bettered the condition of mine workers. More decisive have been the cases where an agreement directly improving conditions of employment has been secured through a board. A district president of the United Mine Workers writes: "This result (the satisfactory settlement of three coal-mine disputes) is due to the boards of conciliation and investigation appointed under the Industrial Disputes Act of 1907. Agreements were signed by the respective parties * * *. These agreements give the workmen improved conditions of employment and increases of wages varying from 5 to 17½ per cent. I am convinced that the operation of the act, coupled with the tact of [the chairman of the board] averted a serious strike." These agreements were made just after the financial panic of 1907. The most important case in numbers affected that has been heard under the law was the application of the coal miners of Cape Breton—some 7,000 in all—for an increase of wages in the spring of 1908. The representative of the miners upon the board thus comments on its decision: "The award amounts to a substantial victory for the men, and this, too, in the face of a demoralized coal trade in the Eastern States and the consequent weakness of the coal trade in Montreal, where during the past two months efforts have been made by American coal interests to place orders in competition with coal from Cape Breton. The award adds about \$70,000 to the wages to be paid this year. The amount is based upon last year's business, and will be mostly distributed among the classes of lowest paid labor, who were

in the greatest need of an increase." In this case the miners presented the board with a vote of thanks at the conclusion of the settlement.

The disposition of the boards to favor the workers wherever possible is thus described by a large mining employer in British Columbia: "From the beginning [of the board proceedings] it was apparent that if a question involved a close decision, and there was approximately an equal amount in favor of each side, the company would stand absolutely no chance. Our own arbitrator put the case very frankly in telling me that the best we could expect was a recommendation in favor of the wages we had been compelled to concede the union in May, which were exceptionally high. He intimated that there was no chance of an arbitration board's recommending a reduction in wages we had ourselves conceded, regardless of whether or not conditions had changed. Had not the Butte branch of the Western Federation accepted the 50 cents a day reduction provided for in their contract, had not the Rossland and Trail branches voluntarily returned to their old wages, and had not the Boundary mines completely closed down, the arbitration board would unquestionably have recommended the continuance of the present abnormally high wage scale. The facts of the decline in metals, the financial depression, and that a big majority of the mines could not make a dollar at those wages, would not have influenced their decision." This is an instance where a temporary reduction of wages, based on a sliding scale adjusted to the price of metals, was recommended, and the decision of the board was undoubtedly due to the precedent given by reductions voluntarily accepted by miners at other places.

In railway disputes most board recommendations have granted to the workers an increase of wages or other substantial advantages. The number of employees receiving higher wages through such decisions is 3,650. Shorter hours, without an increase of wages, were granted 1,215 carmen. Upon another system 800 carmen, who presented their case in the midst of the season of unemployment following the financial crisis, failed to obtain better wages or shorter hours, though they prevented reductions and secured some improvement in general conditions. A jurisdictional dispute between the engineers and firemen upon the Canadian Northern system was settled without a strike. Clearly, therefore, the board decisions in railway disputes have improved the condition of workers. Whether still better conditions might have been obtained by private negotiations is a matter of argument that an outsider can not pretend to decide. But four of the boards were applied for by employees, who made affidavit that a strike was threatened; and a possible improvement of conditions through a strike must be discounted by the cost of the strike to all parties concerned, including the general public.

Outside of mines and railways the act has been applied as yet in too few cases to justify conclusions as to its effect on conditions of employment in other industries.

In making their recommendations boards have much more leeway than does an arbitration court. In the first place, one agreement is not necessarily a precedent for its successors. It has not the same force as a court award, and therefore each party is less insistent upon establishing in it immutable principles to govern the future relations of employers and employees in the industry. For instance, the unions in Canada have not insisted in all cases upon a standard wage. They have allowed that under certain circumstances a company should be required to pay what it was able, and that where two companies were operating under conditions so different that the profits of one were larger than the profits of the other the wages paid for the same service by one might be higher than those paid by the other. Moreover they have acceded to a flexible adjustment of wages in neighboring towns or districts, based on the supply of labor as well as the cost of living. Expenses are lower at Stratford than at near-by Toronto, but railway machinists are allowed a higher wage at the former place, because the attractions of the larger city make men prefer to work there. The closed shop has not been urged as it has been in New Zealand and Australia, because the unions assume no responsibility under the act, and therefore have no claim in equity from those administering it. So long as employers do not discriminate against union men after a settlement has been made, this issue may lie dormant. But it threatens trouble even under the present law, if unionists are victims of reprisals for conducting cases before the boards. Finally, the boards have been able to avoid taking up matters that relate to the administration of a business rather than to conditions of employment. They have secured the consent of unions to waiving a claim that promotions in a certain occupation should be exclusively by seniority. In a word, the boards have been able to keep down to fundamental issues and to make the coat fit the individual wearer, so to speak, much better than have the arbitration courts of Australasia.

This is in many ways an advantage. When well established as a rule of action, it lessens the number of complaints brought up for official cognizance. By confining attention to material issues, minor causes of irritation between employers and employees—often more difficult to remove than more important differences—are partly avoided. This clarifies the situation for the public. Wages and hours of work, and sanitary conditions of employment, are things that every man can understand, upon which he can form an intelligent opinion, and in which he is likely to take a real interest. The moral support of the public for the right side in a labor dispute is more assured when issues are not too complicated. Nevertheless

the fact can not be overlooked that minor grievances are behind some of the bitterest animosities between employers and workmen. There are times when they have to be considered, and it is well that the law is flexible enough to permit of this being done.

How far the act has affected the condition of workers, by rendering their everyday intercourse with employers more amicable or the reverse, must be left to individual opinion. Many workmen say that a better feeling prevails now than formerly. Some labor leaders assert that petty grievances are accumulating, and that less true friendliness prevails than before the act went into force. Probably conditions vary in different cases in this respect. But the material condition of the workers subject to the act, as indicated by wages and hours of labor, has clearly improved during its operation.

INFLUENCE OF THE ACT UPON INDUSTRY.

The act has been in force but little over a year, and therefore its influence upon industry is as yet difficult to determine. Nor will this influence ever be susceptible of statistical statement. The saving to industry by the prevention of a single railway or coal strike might reach millions of dollars in Canada, and possibly almost as much in the United States—so closely is the business welfare of the two countries related. Ardent supporters of the law can figure up several millions saved by the act the past year, through the avoidance of two threatened railway strikes—and, if we can be sure the strikes would have occurred without the act, the estimate is well grounded. But, as we can not know what might have happened under those circumstances, speculations of this sort are more alluring than valuable.

But another aspect of the influence of the law upon industry is better worth study. Have agreements made under the law hampered the administration of business, unduly increased costs either for the producer or the consumer, or thrown new burdens on any section of the people for the benefit of another section? These questions are very important in case of compulsory arbitration. They are chiefly interesting for their absence in connection with the Canadian law. That they are almost entirely absent is possibly the most important single thing that can be said about that law. It will be a great gain if Canada succeeds permanently in regulating conditions of employment sufficiently to prevent serious strikes, without interfering with processes of production and exchange so as to disarrange the functions of the business organism. As the act stands at present, this end is attained by limiting the application of the law to a few industries, and by limiting its application within the industry to a few essential matters. The latter limitation comes from the policy of administration more than from statutory provisions. Settlements, instead of

being public orders, are private contracts made under public auspices. Consequently the good judgment of all parties is fully consulted, and the boards can not radically interfere with business conditions. So far the act seems not to have affected industry otherwise than by securing greater continuity of operation. No employer complained that the law hampered his business; and it is not reported to have influenced prices.

ADMINISTRATION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE ACT.

Administration covers two matters, general administration by the minister of labor and procedure by the boards. The two important functions of general administration are to decide what disputes shall be investigated—that is, the extensive jurisdiction of the act—and to select members of boards where the disputants fail to do so or to agree upon a chairman. As subsequent procedure and the success of an investigation depend on the personnel of each board, the latter is the most important single act of administration. The appointments made by the government have in some cases been criticised, not on the ground of the bias of the whole board, but in regard to the propriety of some single member's serving. The main objection has been to the appointment of general officers of labor organizations as representatives by the workers. These appointments have been accepted by the government—and are considered expedient by some well-informed employers—on the ground that these men are often experienced negotiators, who can make a settlement that will carry weight with the workers better than any other person. Attorneys for labor organizations and for employing corporations have served as board members for their respective clients, usually with success. All such appointments are thought improper by those who regard the boards as judicial tribunals. But it has not been the policy of the government or the wish of the disputants, as indicated by their appointees, to secure an absolutely nonpartisan board, but rather a board familiar with conditions and having the confidence of the parties represented. However, if two members of a board are nothing more than partisans of their respective sides they morally simply fill a place at the table, for their presence contributes little or nothing to the settlement of the dispute. In practice the chairman is forced in such cases to negotiate for mutual concessions, over their heads, with the principals whom they represent. Therefore for either side to select a mere tool as its representative is really to weaken its case, for it thus deprives itself of a sympathetic arbitrator to secure an advocate, who is usually unauthorized to make the concessions that go with every settlement, and whose final report on the investigation, if no settlement is made, is discounted by his presumed par-

tiality. The chairmen of the boards, whether agreed upon by the other two members or selected by the government, have in nearly every case been above suspicion as to bias, and in all cases men of integrity. When any bias is suspected a board is nearly sure to result in failure. The system of having temporary boards instead of a permanent board or court, as in New Zealand and Australia, possesses the great advantage that unsuitable men are dropped after one experience, but has the weakness that entirely unfitted men may be selected or appointed in any new dispute. The tendency is to select the same board members repeatedly, so that several boards have been identical in different disputes, and one chairman—a professor of economics—has served acceptably on eleven of the twenty-eight boards that have been established.

The procedure adopted by the boards depends on their interpretation of the act. Two opposite lines of interpretation have developed, one looking toward compulsory arbitration and emphasizing the police features of the law, and the other putting a purely conciliatory construction on that measure. Boards adopting the first interpretation have laid more stress upon a judicial inquisition into the causes of a dispute than upon bringing the parties to an amicable settlement. They have relied upon public opinion and penalties to force the parties into an agreement. This method has failed, and if generally adopted would logically lead to increasing the powers of the boards—in order to get some results—and ultimately to compulsory arbitration. Fortunately most boards have recognized that the spirit and intent of the law is conciliation, and that this can best be secured by informal procedure, leaving penalty features of the law in the background, and depending on mutual understanding and good will even more than upon public opinion for a settlement.

Ultimately procedure usually depends upon the chairman of the board. Some of the least successful chairmen have been judges, though judges and lawyers are in other cases the first to grasp the distinction between conciliatory and judicial proceedings. A judge who organizes a board after the fashion of a court, sets it up on a dais, takes testimony according to legal rules of evidence, enforces legal technicalities, and checks up his witnesses by stenographic proceedings—so far as Canadian experience goes—leaves the parties at the end of their negotiations farther apart than at the beginning, and crystallizes tentative issues into insolvable difficulties. The most successful chairmen have been those who conducted their proceedings in the most informal manner, the members of the board and the representatives presenting the case for the two sides sitting around a table, interviewing witnesses rather than examining them, and talking each other into an agreement. The most important dis-

putes considered under the act have been settled without a stenographic report of the meetings and without taking formal testimony.

Success, then, depends almost entirely upon procedure. An experienced board chairman in Canada said: "The most important work is often done outside of regular sessions of the board. We talk to the different parties individually and get to a mutual understanding that way. We never allow the disputants to leave important matters to the board. We insist that they themselves shall agree on main points. Interpretation can be left to the board, which can be reconvened to clear up points previously considered and settled, but under such circumstances a board should not take up new points. Boards ought not to admit matters of administration purely. It is well to have a preliminary discussion before bringing the parties together, and after the hearing we usually wind up the proceedings without bringing them together again for that purpose. During adjournments the chairman may find it of advantage to alter the form of the proposals submitted by the opposing parties without modifying their substance. We find that it is better to let each man talk himself out with as little interruption as possible, for he is more ready to consider proposals after he has aired his grievances and finished stating his own case. Where differences arise as to questions of fact, little or nothing is gained by swearing witnesses. It then becomes a contest between the two parties each to prove itself right, and neither will modify its statements. But discrepancies in informal testimony can generally be traced to a misunderstanding, and when that is made clear the parties agree."

An eminent lawyer, formerly a justice of the Dominion supreme court, who has served on several boards and who is personally familiar with legal procedure in both the United States and England, said: "The great difficulty you would have in operating such a law in the United States is the tendency of your legislators, courts, and lawyers to sacrifice everything to formality. I fear this spirit would affect even nonlegal tribunals like our conciliation boards. You would allow objections to evidence and such technical frivolities to defeat substantial justice. Your big labor leaders understand the matter much better, and I can see the force of their objection to statutory arbitration in the States. Formalities, differences as to admitting evidence, etc.—often in matters of detail and on minor points involving no general principle—breed a lot of ill feeling and prevent conciliation."

Therefore the government in appointing boards, and the most successful boards in conducting proceedings, have interpreted the act as a statute for conciliation by informal methods, looking toward a voluntary agreement between the parties as its object.

OPERATION OF THE LAW IN PARTICULAR CASES.

Opportunity was afforded the writer of attending conciliation proceedings before two boards. In one case the proceedings involved the claims of an international railway union against the Grand Trunk Railway for advances in wages, overtime, and minor changes in conditions of employment. The session occupied one day and was entirely informal. The more important issues, especially those relating to wages, were last considered. After five hours' discussion only two matters remained, including the wage question, that had not been compromised. Thereupon the board rose, and the members labored individually with the parties on the two sides, who had retired to different rooms on the rising of the board, finally inducing them to accept an agreement relating to the points that remained in dispute. The more important railway settlements have not been concluded so easily; but the procedure has been practically the same. In these railway cases the representatives of the two sides have usually been men of influence, commanding the confidence of the parties who selected them, but independent enough to propose and urge compromises upon their own people.

The second board hearing attended was at Glace Bay, Cape Breton, and involved a settlement of labor conditions among 7,000 coal miners. The proceedings lasted over a week and were attended by many miners. One day was taken by the board to visit certain of the principal mines, agreed upon by the disputants, under the guidance of representatives of both sides. The case for the mining companies was presented by the general manager and the mine superintendents and that for the men by a committee headed by the general secretary of the Provincial Workers' Association, the strongest single labor organization in eastern Canada if not in the Dominion. Several days were employed in hearing testimony, all of which was informal. The spirit of the inquiry was to get at the facts, not to disprove or prove any man's statements. Both parties learned things relating to the conditions in the mines that they did not know before. A settlement, said to be satisfactory to both parties, and expected to remain in force for a considerable period, was finally agreed upon. So far as appeared to an outside observer, the effect of the proceedings was to promote good feeling between the parties as well as to bring them to a business understanding.

Failure in regard to a negotiation is relative; for though a settlement may not have been reached, and a strike may even occur after a board has reported, that report may afford a basis for a future settlement. Two of the most notable failures in this relative sense are the Montreal harbor strike and the Springhill coal dispute. The board in the Montreal case was instituted after a strike was actually

under way. The longshoremen have worked for a number of years under an agreement which could be terminated at a certain date each year by either party. Differences arose early in 1907, when the men demanded increased pay for the new season. As Montreal is a closed port during the winter, stevedoring is a seasonal occupation. The Shipping Federation declined to consider the proposals of the men, and without formal action by the union the latter ceased work. What is sometimes called a "runaway" strike occurred, for which the union disclaims responsibility. The employers petitioned for a board under the new law, and this was granted; but before members were appointed the Shipping Federation, which was getting the upper hand of the strike, withdrew its application. Later the union, seeing that it was losing ground, asked for a board, and this request was granted. Employers criticise this action of the government, saying that they had won their battle with the men, and the board afforded the latter an opportunity to fight over the same issue with new procedure. The new board, of which the Archbishop of Montreal was chairman, gave a decision which the men refused to accept, but which was substantially put in force by the Shipping Federation. This decision gave the men an increase of wages about as great as they had asked for in the beginning—and higher than had been voluntarily conceded by employers before the board reported. In a word, a strike in fact—whether technically a strike or not—was begun without appealing to the act; the men went to work, after some concessions by the employers, without the union's declaring the strike off and before a board was appointed; and after a board decision was obtained it was put into effect by employers without being accepted by the union. Apparently the existence of the act had no influence upon the men in regard to striking, and the employers claim that it had no influence in making the men return to work. But the board did afford a means of making public conditions of employment on the wharves, and proposed a settlement which is, in its main features, in actual operation.

The Springhill coal dispute occurred in a group of coal mines at Springhill, Nova Scotia. These mines have been worked many years and constitute the only important industry in a thriving town of some 6,000 people. Most of the miners are Canadians or British, and are home owners and intelligent men. They belong to the Provincial Workers' Association, a strong local organization not associated with other labor unions. Many strikes have occurred in these mines, though none has been attended with lawlessness. About the time the act of 1907 went into effect the men struck to enforce the closed shop, being under the impression that the new law did not apply to Nova Scotia; but they soon returned to work and were not prosecuted for violating the act.

Soon new difficulties arose in connection with payment for pillar work and other mining operations. The company applied for a board. Unfortunately the chairman, a justice of the provincial supreme court, organized the board as he might a court, enforced rather strict legal procedure, and made the men think that they were at the mercy of legal technicalities and would be denied substantial justice because they were not lawyers. Consequently they only awaited the decision of the board, which was in their favor as to minor points but against them on the main issue, to strike. The strike lasted three months, when the men returned to work on the company's terms. Meanwhile new differences arose, and while the strike was on two new boards held hearings, one of which reviewed a point decided by the previous board. The company for this reason refused to take part in the proceedings. The technical objection was also raised that the board had no authority, as the men who applied for it were on a strike, and therefore not employees of the company. Local politics were involved with the constitution and procedure of the later boards. A fourth board has recently been applied for by men working for the same employers. So far as any real settlement of the labor difficulties at Springhill is concerned, the act has been inoperative. The appointment of a number of boards in quick succession deprived the recommendations of any one board of moral weight. It did not appear that the board decisions had any influence on public opinion. Few people knew what these decisions had been.

Against the two failures or partial failures must be placed the far larger number of successes, where settlements—though not in every case quite satisfactory to all parties—have been accepted. It should be remembered, too, that the law has been in operation only a year; that it has been worked, in many cases, by men inexperienced in arbitrating industrial disputes, and that neither employers nor unions have fully understood the law or their rights and responsibilities under it. Unless very bitter controversies between capital and labor arise the coming year, more difficult to settle than those of the immediate past, it is probable that the act will have relatively greater success in the future.

Employers and employees both show a disposition to appeal to the act, though three-fourths of the applications are from workmen. There is little evidence that the law has, like those of New Zealand and Australia, fostered disputes by making litigation easy. In 1907 the number of disputes in transportation industries was 14, or the same number as the previous year, when no law was in force; difficulties involving longshoremens increased from 1 to 3, but they have averaged about 3 a year since 1900; mining disputes numbered 14, as compared with 13 the preceding year. As the findings of the board will not be accepted by either party if it considers them un-

reasonable, the issues brought up for settlement are usually fair subjects of controversy.

The most valuable feature of the act is that it establishes a regular form of procedure for bringing the parties together before a strike or lockout is declared. Cases are very rare where either party wishes to resort to these extreme measures before conciliatory negotiations, but lack of initiative or mutual distrust often prevents the latter from being undertaken unless they are made necessary and official. The punitive features of the act—for punishing men or employers engaging in strikes and lockouts—are probably relatively less important than they appear to the casual observer. They may be a good thing to have in the background, but it is no criticism of the act that they are not always enforced. The reports of the board will doubtless have some weight with public opinion where a conciliatory settlement fails; but their influence on popular sentiment is possibly overestimated by legislators and industrial theorists. Granted that such a report may have weight in case of a threatened strike exciting great public interest, most cases where the act has been applied in Canada have not commanded that interest, and comparatively few people even knew that a report had been given. In minor disputes and those involving technical issues, such as the regulations to govern railway telegraphers and train dispatchers, the average person can not form an intelligent opinion of the justice of a report. Finally, where very important matters are at stake and the parties are really wrought up over the questions in dispute, a board decision it is not likely to be unanimous. The main reliance of the act must be the greater chance of securing a voluntary settlement under its provisions. But even where an agreement fails, the influence of the board's report will be good. It is not a complete remedy—it will not always induce workmen to refrain from an unjust strike or force employers to grant just concessions—but it will in most cases pave the way to a right settlement.

ATTITUDE OF EMPLOYERS TOWARD THE ACT.

The attitude of both employers and workers toward the act must be discounted somewhat on account of political bias. On party grounds many conservatives disparage, if they do not oppose, the law. Among the liberals there is some indiscriminating praise of the act, and occasionally a tendency to minimize its defects and attribute even honest criticism to party motives. These conditions are not only generally recognized in public discussion, but are obvious to a stranger. A very fair-minded labor leader writes in April, 1908: "My personal opinion is, that after the atmosphere is clear of politics, which may be about October, the Disputes Act will be given credit for all it is worth." These ulterior influences underlying both public and pri-

vate discussion make it more difficult to get a true opinion of the working of the law from either side.

However, all employers agree to the "principle" of the act. They sometimes feel aggrieved by the way it has been administered. In this respect they take precisely the position assumed by most employers in New Zealand and Australia with regard to compulsory arbitration, and use almost the same phrases in discussion. The secretary of the largest association of employers in the Dominion said in a recent address: "Generally speaking, the verdict of employers, so far as I have been able to gather, is favorable to the act. There are, of course, some exceptions, but the consensus of opinion, even where everything did not go the way the employer wanted it, seems to be that the act on the whole is a good thing." No employer was found who was not favorable to the law, as better than no legislation, so far as it applied to railways. Most employers say they prefer to have the law in force in their own business, though there are exceptions to this. All employers interviewed who have had actual experience with the act in the industry they are connected with favor its general policy, if not all its details.^(a)

Some employers—including the largest in Canada—are outright partisans of compulsory arbitration, and would amend the present act to make the awards of the boards binding on both parties. A prominent railway manager said: "I favor the present act because I think it is better than no law. But I would rather see compulsory arbitration, so both sides would have to obey the awards." This attitude may be due to conditions peculiar to Canada as compared with the United States. For instance, a great railway system or mining company operating in sparsely settled country is often at the mercy of its men in case of a strike. In the New West public sympathy is almost certain to be with the employees against a great corporation. Experience with these conditions makes managers favorable to any method of solving labor disputes that will throw the preponderant influence in settling them farther eastward, to more conservative centers. Even in Nova Scotia, where conditions are quite different, some coal-mine employers want compulsory awards. But this is probably due to the local example of a union striking against a board decision. Other amendments suggested by employers and their representatives are mentioned elsewhere.

^a This should be modified by the following statement in a letter received after this report was written, from a prominent mine manager in British Columbia: "It is my opinion that metal mine operators and smelter managers would have preferred that the Lemieux Act had not been passed, as they feel (as is apt to be the case in such acts) that the company will and can be legally and morally bound by its terms, while there is not a great deal of likelihood that the unions will be bound or that the government will enforce fines and punishment upon the laboring men or the unions."

ATTITUDE OF LABOR TOWARD THE ACT.

Only organized labor has been in a position to express an opinion regarding the act. There are five chief bodies of working people concerned directly or indirectly in its provisions. The organized skilled trades of eastern Canada are not directly affected by the law, except in so far as they are employed in connection with railways and other public utilities. Many union officers have little information of the practical working of the act and no intelligent opinion as to its effect on labor interests. But those who have made a study of the subject are favorable to the law. This is especially true of union officers in Montreal and Toronto and of the leading labor representatives in the Dominion Parliament. One of the latter writes: "I am strongly in favor of the principle of the act. I am not, however, wedded to all its provisions. But the act has not been long enough in actual operation to enable me to suggest other amendments than those proposed at the Winnipeg convention of the Dominion Trades and Labor Congress. My impression is that the sentiment in favor of the bill is gradually spreading as the advantages of the act to workmen become more apparent." Similar opinions might be repeated from a score or more other prominent labor leaders, but the above is fairly representative of the sentiment generally found among the organized skilled trades in Ontario, Quebec, and the maritime Provinces.

The leading organizations of railway employees opposed the law at the time of its passage, and still regard it with cold favor. Canadian officers of the international unions of locomotive engineers, firemen, telegraphers, and of the conductors and carmen, both in interviews and correspondence expressed their displeasure at being made subject to the law. Among the rank and file of the members, to judge from a limited number of interviews, this sentiment is not so unanimous. The specific objections are mostly to penalizing strikes begun before an investigation, and they are more fully explained in the comments to sections 56 to 61 of the act which follow. However, eight railway disputes, involving some of the most important unions, have been settled by boards constituted under the act. In fact, the practical value of the law seems to have been more clearly shown in railway difficulties than in any other kind of labor disturbances.

The Provincial Workers' Association of Nova Scotia, which has been mentioned in connection with certain coal-mine disputes, is a composite union, composed chiefly of men working about coal mines, and purely local, though its lodges extend throughout the Province. The organization is criticised by regular trade unionists because of its composite character, in the same way that the principle of organi-

zation of the Knights of Labor is opposed by the strictly trade societies that form the American Federation of Labor. The Provincial Workers' Association is protected by a provincial act allowing its lodges to incorporate by a simple formality, its representatives are usually heard by the Province ministry with regard to local labor legislation, and it wields a large influence in politics. This society adopted a resolution, soon after the passage of the Industrial Disputes Act, in opposition to that measure. When the bill was before the Dominion Parliament a clause was inserted, but afterwards stricken out, providing that where a Province already had an act for the investigation and conciliation of disputes the federal act should not apply. This probably had reference to such an act in Nova Scotia, passed partly through the influence of the Provincial Workers' Association. The sponsors of the local act and other labor leaders opposed to the party in power at Ottawa are reported to have been responsible for the resolution. Labor leaders in Nova Scotia, some of them prominent members of this organization, admit that other than purely trade union or labor motives influenced the convention. However, the Provincial Workers' Association has regularly appealed to the federal law in disputes with employers, and of some twenty or twenty-five members of the organization interviewed none opposed the act in private conversation, and many—including some of the officers—expressed themselves as in its favor. An intelligent coal miner, a member of this order, who has seen the law work under conditions not altogether in its favor, writes: "The more I learn about the Canadian act the more I like it. Strikes are foolish things and come from men's unreasonableness and impatience. The State is the guardian of its people, and does wisely every time it enacts a law that will make it impossible for one class of people to act in any way which must of necessity mean suffering and loss to other people who are not to blame." A leading official of the Provincial Workers' Association writes: "I believe it [the act] is destined to become popular in Canada." These statements are representative of nearly all made by labor men in the maritime Provinces, where the Provincial Workers' Association is far the most important organization.

In the western mining fields there are two not altogether sympathetic associations of workers occupying the same relative position as in the United States—the United Mine Workers and the Western Federation of Miners. The former society was not especially friendly to the law at the time it was passed, but its leaders in Canada are now said to be in favor of its provisions. The members are employed mostly in the Alberta and British Columbia coal mines, where a number of settlements—mostly satisfactory to the union—have been made under the act. The district president has been active in

administering the law, having served on most of the boards in the western coal fields, and attributes many successful settlements to its influence. But local officers said that the sentiment in union meetings showed that the men would prefer not to have the act. An officer whose local was opposed to the law, expressing his private opinion, said: "Speaking as a fair-minded man I am not afraid of the law in any way. I think it can be worked by both sides as a fair law. When an investigation is made nothing can be kept back by either side, so you have sure ground to go ahead on. Many things crop up of very small importance that lead in time to serious trouble; but if they are fairly investigated they can be settled before they cause trouble." Among the United Mine Workers, then, opinion is divided, the rank and file rather opposing the law and the officers in some cases favoring it.

The Western Federation of Miners has had experience with the act, which has been applied to metal miners in northern Ontario and in the western Provinces. At Cobalt, Ontario, officers of this organization have been heavily fined for advising a strike, in violation of the provisions of the law, before an investigation. At the union headquarters in Cobalt, when the camp was visited in March, 1908, the miners were violently hostile to the law, claiming that employers evaded all its provisions—shutting down mines for a day to avoid technical lockouts in order to enforce lower schedules, nagging the men by encroaching on their rights and privileges little by little, and by other aggressions—while the men themselves were held strictly accountable for violations. A few conservative old miners with families and some property, who were perhaps emerging from the wage-earning class, thought well of the law; but labor sentiment seemed to be overwhelmingly hostile.

In British Columbia the Western Federation is officially on record as opposed to the law, and members of the organization interviewed left no doubt as to their sympathy with this attitude. At the district convention at Greenwood, representing practically all the members of the organization subject to the act in western Canada and all the metal miners in British Columbia, held last January, a resolution was unanimously passed calling for the repeal of the law. At a convention of the boards of trade of British Columbia, recently held at Rossland, representatives of the Western Federation refused to suggest amendments to the law, on the ground that it should be wholly repealed. Consequently the almost undivided sentiment of this organization is opposed to the act.

The most influential labor body in Canada is the Dominion Trades and Labor Congress, composed of representatives from the federated trades and United Mine Workers, but not including the Western Federation of Miners, the Provincial Workers' Association, or

the larger railway unions. The congress is probably the best exponent of labor sentiment throughout the Dominion, and carries most weight with political parties. Its president is a member of Parliament. The following report by the executive officers was accepted by the congress:

"The Trades Dispute Investigation Act, 1907." Your executive, after careful consideration, gave its hearty endorsement to the principle of the bill. Organized labor does not want to strike to enforce its demands if the consideration of them can be attained without recourse to that remedy. The strike has been our last resort, and as the bill continued our right to strike, but assured a fair hearing of the demands of the workers, there was nothing to do but to give our support to it. Nor is organized labor blind to the fact that in every great industrial struggle the public have a large interest as well in the result as in the means adopted to reach that result. The least the public are entitled to is a knowledge of the merits of the dispute. This knowledge will be given to them under the procedure outlined in the bill. Your executive believe it will be a happy day when every labor dispute can be settled by the parties meeting together in the presence of an impartial tribunal to discuss their differences. Our great difficulty in the past has been that we could not get a hearing. The act has been tested already in the case of the Machinists and the Grand Trunk Railway Company, and no better tribute could be paid to it than the settlement arrived at in that case, which was reported to your executive at the time of writing this report as being satisfactory to both parties. The arbitration lasted three days, thus meeting the objections of those who, not unnaturally, thought that the delay possible under the bill might be too great to make its provisions of any avail.

The congress indorsed the act by a vote of 81 to 19. The words of the resolution are as follows:

Whereas organized labor has from time to time expressed its disapproval of strikes except as a last resort in industrial disputes; and whereas particularly in disputes connected with public utilities the public have rights that must be respected and considered; and whereas the Lemieux bill is designed to avoid strikes and lockouts in connection with industrial disputes in certain utilities until such time as the merits of the dispute are publicly investigated; and whereas organized labor always courts investigation of its grievances by reason of the justice of its claims and its desire to be fair: *Resolved*, That this Trades and Labor Congress of Canada hereby express its approval of the principle of the Lemieux bill as being in consonance with the oft-expressed attitude of organized labor in favor of investigation and conciliation.

In the debates preceding the indorsement of this resolution the eastern delegates as a rule supported the law, while those from the west in many cases opposed it. Some socialist members based their opposition on the ground that it bolstered up a vicious capitalistic organization of industry. But the arguments that carried most force in opposition to the law were those presented by regular trade-

unionists, who feared the temporary prohibition of strikes might weaken the unions by depriving them of a weapon that is most effective when used suddenly.

It needs to be noted that the principal opposition to the act has manifested itself among the unions to which it most directly applied. The members of the railway orders and the mine workers are interested at first hand, while the members of the federated trades have only the general interest in the law that comes from sympathy with their fellow workers. The latter are not usually employed in mines or upon public utilities. But the Trades and Labor Congress showed that its approval of the act was sincere by voting—59 to 22—in favor of an amendment for bringing all trades under its operation.

In summing up the different attitudes adopted toward the act by different bodies of labor, it seems fair to remark that sentiment in its favor is probably stronger among the rank and file of the workers than among the leaders. Such casual information as one can pick up through talking with the men indicates this. In one list of interviews, including miners and railway men, every one of the workmen—thirteen in number—was favorable to the law. An intelligent member of one of the larger railway orders said: "The better class of men in our organization are favorable to the law. Some men, whose opinion I wouldn't take on anything, are against it. Middle-aged and married men, who have responsibilities, welcome the law."

The hostility of the Western Federation may be due partly to the fact that the law has been applied during a period of unusual depression in metals, when mines have had to make reductions or cease working. Therefore the act may be held responsible for conditions with which it has had nothing to do. Except in this organization the evidence indicates that the attitude of workers becomes more friendly to the act with longer experience. But it would be impossible to say definitely whether or not a popular vote of the working people of Canada, especially of those directly affected by the law, would indorse the act at the present time.

ATTITUDE OF THE PUBLIC TOWARD THE ACT.

No great labor disturbances have recently occurred in Canada to arouse public opinion on the subject of settling industrial disputes, and therefore many people take a passive attitude with regard to the present law. They have very inaccurate ideas of its purpose and provisions. In eastern Canada confidence in the efficacy of the act has been somewhat shaken by the failure to prevent the Montreal dockers' strike in 1907. Many men seem to think that such a law should be enforced—and can be enforced—like any penal statute, and

that the government ought to proceed the same way against a thousand strikers as against a single pickpocket. Even those that recognize this to be impracticable, fail to see that it would not be equitable. But there is no intelligent opposition to the law, and such sentiment as is tangible enough to report is in its favor. There appears to be little doubt that if a serious labor disturbance, inconveniencing the general public, like a great railway or coal strike, should occur, the law would be seized upon by the people as an important thing, and they would vigorously support it. If it proved inadequate to deal with the particular case in hand there would probably be a strong popular demand to increase its stringency. The labor organizations opposing the act possibly underestimate the strength of this sentiment. It seems very unlikely that the Disputes Act can be repealed. That would generally be regarded as a step backward. If the law disappears it will be because of neglect or unwise administration, not because it is opposed by workmen or employers.

Public men and the press are educating the people with regard to the law, and presenting the equity of its provisions to their hearers and readers. Their argument is well presented in the following quotation from the Winnipeg Telegram of September 19, 1907: "The doctrine of the public's interest in labor disputes is one that has come to stay, and the attempt to express it in legislation is one made along right lines. Every man who directs labor or who labors owes a duty to the State, not only outside his labor as a citizen, but in his labor as a unit in an industrial whole. In every country this principle is becoming better recognized. In all likelihood there will be a great deal of more or less experimental legislation before the public's rights are crystallized in their final form. But this will be done eventually, to the great benefit of the public, by protecting it from many useless and foolish wars between employers and employed." This quotation expresses the attitude of the average man, who knows anything of the law, toward its provisions, as accurately as any single statement met with in Canada. Most of those who are practically familiar with labor matters, though not employers or wage-earners, approve the method of the act as well as its general object. The following memorandum of an interview with one of the latter class is also representative: "The law goes about the matter in the right way. Workingmen and employers usually discuss wages and such subjects in meetings composed of men of their own class exclusively, and so wholly from one point of view. But at board sessions they hear the other side, and this is educative. Proceedings are carried on in a free and easy style; facts come out in an orderly manner without any great show of feeling; all this has a good social effect."

CONCLUSION.

So far as can be judged from the experience of a single year, the Industrial Disputes Act has accomplished the main purpose for which it was enacted, the prevention of strikes and lockouts in public service industries. Apparently, it has not affected adversely the condition of workmen or of industries where it has been applied. It is much more applicable to American conditions than compulsory arbitration laws, like those of New Zealand and Australia, because its settlements are based on the agreement of the parties and do not prescribe an artificial wage, often illy adjusted to economic conditions. Employers and the general public in Canada, with a very few exceptions, favor the law. The working people are divided, many of the stronger organizations directly affected by the act being against it. This opposition is based on two grounds, the general distrust with which workmen regard government intervention in labor matters, and a feeling that they can improve their condition more through negotiations backed by sudden strikes than by negotiations backed by deferred strikes, for which the employer may prepare himself in advance. The distrust of government intervention arises from a feeling that the intervening authority usually has a class bias against labor. A workingman said: "The chairman (of a conciliation board) is the whole thing. Unless he has been a workingman he will not understand workmen or have any insight into their condition and ambitions. Therefore the burden of proof that his conditions should be improved or kept up to present standard always rests with the workingman. He has to make things absolutely, convincingly clear to the mind of a chairman who naturally sees things from the other side, in order to get a just decision, even where the chairman tries to be impartial." However, experience with these laws in Australasia and Canada does not show that this fear is well founded. Though chairmen may not see points from exactly the same position as the workingman, they often have social sympathies and theories that dispose them to give him, as presumably the weaker party, the benefit of every doubt, and the result perhaps works out the same as if they saw things from his point of view. Possibly workers do sacrifice something of influence in giving up sudden strikes, but they gain in other ways, especially in having a better alternative to a strike than before. And as part of the general public they profit by the saving of industrial waste through strikes.

But the application of the act to industries should probably be limited—at least for some time to come—to strictly public service industries as defined by the Canadian statute. Less strain would be placed on the act now did it not apply to metal mining.

In the United States constitutional restrictions would prevent a Federal law of such wide application as that of Canada. The idea of compulsory public investigation, and even of prohibiting strikes until such an investigation has been completed, is not new in this country. Fourteen years ago the United States Strike Commission, appointed to investigate the Chicago strike, recommended a permanent strike commission, to deal with disputes affecting interstate commerce, with powers not unlike those granted the boards of investigation and conciliation in Canada. Strikes pending investigation were to be prohibited and the incorporation of unions provided for, though not made compulsory. These recommendations took the following form:

That there be a permanent United States strike commission of three members, with duties and powers of investigation and recommendation as to disputes between railroads and their employees similar to those vested in the Interstate Commerce Commission as to rates, etc.

(a) That, as in the interstate commerce act, power be given to the United States courts to compel railroads to obey the decisions of the commission, after summary hearing unattended by technicalities, and that no delays in obeying the decisions of the commission be allowed pending appeals.

(b) That, whenever the parties to a controversy in a matter within the jurisdiction of the commission are one or more railroads upon one side and one or more national trade unions, incorporated under chapter 567 of the United States Statutes of 1885-86, or under State statutes, upon the other, each side shall have the right to select a representative, who shall be appointed by the President to serve as a temporary member of the commission in hearing, adjusting, and determining that particular controversy.

(c) That, during the pendency of a proceeding before the commission inaugurated by national trade unions, or by an incorporation of employees, it shall not be lawful for the railroads to discharge employees belonging thereto except for inefficiency, violation of law, or neglect of duty; nor for such unions or incorporation during such pendency to order, unite in, aid, or abet strikes or boycotts against the railroads complained of; nor, for a period of six months after a decision, for such railroads to discharge any such employees in whose places others shall be employed, except for the causes aforesaid; nor for any such employees, during a like period, to quit the service without giving thirty days' written notice of intention to do so, nor for any such union or incorporation to order, counsel, or advise otherwise.

But usually such legislation is passed only when the memory of a great and recent industrial conflict has profoundly stirred public opinion. The Australasian legislation followed somewhat tardily the maritime strike of 1890. The Canadian act was passed shortly after the Lethbridge coal strike. After such a law is once on the statute books, however, it usually remains, and in New Zealand, Australia, and Canada it has created a new public attitude toward industrial disputes. This attitude is the result of the idea—readily grasped and generally accepted when once clearly presented—that the public

have an interest in many industrial conflicts quite as immediate and important in its way as that of the conflicting parties. If the American people have this truth vividly brought to their attention by a great strike, the hopeful example of the Canadian act seems likely, so far as present experience shows, to prove a guiding star in their difficulties.

COMMENTS ON THE ACT.

The phraseology of the Canadian law is based largely upon that of the New Zealand Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1900; but the wording must in each instance be interpreted in accordance with its different purpose. Some paragraphs have been borrowed from the previous conciliation laws of Canada. The act differs from the Australasian statutes in four important ways:

- (1) It applies to a limited number of industries.
- (2) It does not provide for the incorporation of unions.
- (3) It requires the appointment of a new board for each dispute instead of a permanent tribunal.
- (4) It does not contemplate compulsory awards.

The limitations of the Canadian act may be seen by comparison of the definitions of the more important terms. The following is from the Canadian act:

1. This act may be cited as The Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907.

PRELIMINARY.

Interpretation.

2. In this act, unless the context otherwise requires—
- (a) "Minister" means the minister of labor;
 - (b) "Department" means the department of labor;
 - (c) "Employer" means any person, company or corporation employing ten or more persons and owning or operating any mining property, agency of transportation or communication, or public service utility, including, except as hereinafter provided, railways, whether operated by steam, electricity or other motive power, steamships, telegraph and telephone lines, gas, electric light, water and power works;

The corresponding provisions of the Australasian acts are as follows:

2. "Employer" includes persons, firms, companies, and corporations employing one or more workers.

* * * * *

"Industry" means any business, trade, manufacture, undertaking, calling, or employment in which workers are employed. (New Zealand act, 1900; Western Australian act, 1902.)

2. "Industry" means business, trade, manufacture, undertaking, calling, or employment in which persons of either sex are employed,

for hire or reward, and includes the management and working of the government railways and tramways, the Sydney harbor trust, the metropolitan board of water supply and sewerage, and the Hunter River and district board of water supply and sewerage, but does not include employment in domestic service. (New South Wales act, 1901.)

4. "Industry" means business, trade, manufacture, undertaking, calling, service, or employment, on land or water, in which persons are employed for pay, hire, advantage, or reward, excepting only persons engaged in domestic service. (Commonwealth bill, 1904.)

The quotations following show the more extensive jurisdiction (over industries) provided by the Australasian acts:

"Employing ten or more persons." The minimum number of applicants that may be chartered as an industrial union, and thus come within the scope of the law, is seven in New Zealand and fifteen in Western Australia. This clause should be read with section 21.

"Mining property" to "power works." The governing principle of the act is revealed in this clause, taken in connection with the provisions for publicity in sections 27 and 28. It is intended to make the investigation of a threatened dispute compulsory only in industries the cessation of which would cause public inconvenience and damage to third parties greater than the prospective advantage to either party to the dispute. The advisability of bringing all mining under the law has been questioned. Coal mining is so necessary to the welfare of the people and the continuance of other industries as to justify extreme measures to prevent a stoppage of production. But metal mining belongs to a different category. A cessation of output does not at once deprive the people of a necessary article of consumption. The violence sometimes attending strikes in metal mines is a secondary feature, for which there are other legal remedies. The application of this clause to silver mines was disputed until confirmed by the following court judgment: "Parliament has seen fit, doubtless for good reasons, some of which readily occur to one, to include silver and other mines in the same category in this act, and they can not be separated in interpreting it." (McGee in *Rex v. McGuire*.) The chairman of a board that had dealt with this industry said: "Silver mines are not truly public utilities, and from that standpoint it was hardly advisable to extend the act to them." A western justice, who had served as chairman in both industries, said: "A settlement in a metal mine is very much more difficult than a settlement in a coal mine. Coal has a fixed value compared with metals, so it is easier to draw up a fair wage scale based on selling price. Practically it is much harder to arrive at a good decision in metal mines."

A proposed amendment to this section, adopted by the Trades and Labor Congress, to extend the operation of the law to all industries, has already been mentioned.

The employees embraced within the Canadian act are defined in the following paragraph:

(d) "Employee" means any person employed by an employer to do any skilled or unskilled manual or clerical work for hire or reward in any industry to which this act applies;

On the other hand, the New Zealand act, 1901, says:

3. "Worker" means any person of any age, of either sex, employed by any employer to do any skilled or unskilled manual or clerical work for hire or reward.

The disputes to which the Canadian act applies are defined as follows:

(e) "Dispute" or "industrial dispute" means any dispute or difference between an employer and one or more of his employees, as to matters or things affecting or relating to work done or to be done by him or them, or as to the privileges, rights and duties of employers or employees (not involving any such violation thereof as constitutes an indictable offense); and, without limiting the general nature of the above definition, includes all matters relating to (1) the wages allowance or other remuneration of employees, or the price paid or to be paid in respect of employment; (2) the hours of employment, sex, age, qualification or status of employees, and the mode, terms and conditions of employment; (3) the employment of children or any person or persons or class of persons, or the dismissal of or refusal to employ any particular person or persons or class of persons; (4) claims on the part of an employer or any employee as to whether and, if so, under what circumstances, preference of employment should or should not be given to one class over another of persons being or not being members of labor or other organizations, British subjects or aliens; (5) materials supplied and alleged to be bad, unfit or unsuitable, or damage alleged to have been done to work; (6) any established custom or usage, either generally or in the particular district affected; (7) the interpretation of an agreement or a clause thereof;

The character of the questions which may come before the New Zealand boards are defined in the following section from the act of 1900:

2. "Industrial matters" means all matters affecting or relating to work done or to be done by workers, or the privileges, rights, and duties of employers or workers in any industry, not involving questions which are or may be the subject of proceedings for an indictable offense; and, without limiting the general nature of the above definition, includes all matters relating to—

(a) The wages, allowances, or remuneration of workers employed in any industry, or the prices paid or to be paid therein in respect of such employment;

(b) The hours of employment, sex, age, qualification, or status of workers, and the mode, terms, and conditions of employment;

(c) The employment of children or young persons, or of any person or persons or class of persons, in any industry, or the dismissal of or refusal to employ any particular person or persons or class of persons therein;

(d) The claim of members of an industrial union of employers to preference of service from unemployed members of an industrial union of workers;

(e) The claim of members of industrial unions of workers to be employed in preference to nonmembers;

(f) Any established custom or usage of any industry, either generally or in the particular district affected.

The above clause determines the intensive jurisdiction (supervision within each industry) exercised by the boards. Western Australia adopted the words of the New Zealand act, omitting the important subclause (e). New South Wales has approximately the same provisions.

Under the Canadian act "(4) claims on the part of an employer" to "or aliens" empowers the boards to investigate claims for the closed shop and make recommendations regarding them. The chairman having widest experience with the act stated that the question had seldom come up, and that he had never admitted it for consideration. Labor men seem not to have pressed this claim, except in a few cases, either because they thought public sentiment would not support them, or because they relied on other measures to secure their end.

"(6) Any established custom or usage; either generally or in the particular district affected." Canadian boards have usually refused to take up questions relating to the detailed conduct of a business; but have recommended general principles to guide employers where the welfare of workers might be affected. Some claims of railway employees have been dismissed, as coming more properly under the jurisdiction of the railway commission. A board chairman said: "The tendency is to broaden issues before public boards where it is to narrow them in private negotiations. We try to confine ourselves to vital matters. We make the settlement as much like a private contract as possible."

Lockouts and strikes are defined by the Canadian act as follows:

(f) "Lockout" (without limiting the nature of its meaning) means a closing of a place of employment, or a suspension of work, or a refusal by an employer to continue to employ any number of his employees in consequence of a dispute, done with a view to compelling his employees, or to aid another employer in compelling his employees, to accept terms of employment,

(g) "Strike" or "to go on strike" (without limiting the nature of its meaning) means the cessation of work by a body of employees acting in combination, or a concerted refusal or a refusal under a common understanding of any number of employees to continue to

work for an employer, in consequence of a dispute, done as a means of compelling their employer, or to aid other employees in compelling their employer, to accept terms of employment;

The definitions of the New South Wales act, 1901, are in the following words:

2. "Lockout" means the closing of a place of employment or the suspension of work by an employer done with a view to compel his employees or to aid another employer in compelling his employees to accept a term or terms of employment.

"Strike" shall mean the cessation of work by a body of employees acting in combination done as a means of enforcing compliance with demands made by them or other employees on employers.

The Commonwealth arbitration bill follows with minor verbal changes the definitions of the New South Wales act. The laws of New Zealand and Western Australia do not define strike and lockout.

The clause "a suspension of work" of the Canadian act is modified by the following clause in section 56: "Nothing in this act shall prohibit the suspension or discontinuance of any industry * * * for any cause not constituting a lockout." In Western Australia a court has held that when an employer discharges all his employees with the intention of engaging an entirely new force this does not constitute a lockout.

The Canadian act continues:

(h) "Board" means a board of conciliation and investigation established under the provisions of this act;

(i) "Application" means an application for the appointment of a board under the provisions of this act;

(j) "Registrar" means the registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation under this act;

(k) "Prescribed" means prescribed by this act, or by any rules or regulations made thereunder;

(l) "Trade union" or "union" means any organization of employees formed for the purpose of regulating relations between employers and employees.

Administration.

3. The minister of labor shall have the general administration of this act.

4. The governor in council shall appoint a registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation, who shall have the powers and perform the duties prescribed.

(2) The office of registrar may be held either separately or in conjunction with any other office in the public service, and in the latter case the registrar may, if the governor in council thinks fit, be appointed, not by name, but by reference to such other office, whereupon the person who for the time being holds such office, or performs its duties, shall by virtue thereof be the registrar.

The corresponding sections of the New Zealand act, 1900, read as follows:

3. The minister for labor shall have the general administration of this act.

4. The registrar shall be the person who for the time being holds the office of secretary for labor, or such other person as the governor from time to time appoints to be registrar.

BOARDS OF CONCILIATION AND INVESTIGATION.

Reference of disputes to boards of conciliation and investigation.

5. Wherever any dispute exists between an employer and any of his employees, and the parties thereto are unable to adjust it, either of the parties to the dispute may make application to the minister for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation, to which board the dispute may be referred under the provisions of this act: *Provided, however, That, in the case of a dispute between a railway company and its employees, such dispute may be referred, for the purpose of conciliation and investigation, under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act.*

“Wherever any dispute exists.” Some employers suggest that when a board has been appointed to consider a dispute, the same board should consider all subsequent disputes between the same parties for a fixed period. This would allow speedier hearings; and later disputes are sometimes the outgrowth of previous settlements, with which such a board would already be familiar. On the other hand, the occurrence of a second dispute soon after the adjournment of a board may indicate that the board was poorly qualified for its task or had encountered the prejudice of one of the parties, either of which would be fatal to conciliation. At present the disputants and the government are left free to reappoint the old board or to name a new one, as the exigencies of the case seem to require.

“Conciliation and Labor Act.” This law provides no penalty for strikes and lockouts pending investigation; but its application in this section is modified by a clause in section 56, which practically obviates this difference between the two laws. With a single exception all railway disputes have been brought under the Industrial Disputes Act.

Minister to appoint boards on application.

6. Whenever, under this act, an application is made in due form for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation, and such application does not relate to a dispute which is the subject of a reference under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act, the minister, whose decision for such purpose shall be final, shall, within fifteen days from the date at which

the application is received, establish such board under his hand and seal of office, if satisfied that the provisions of this act apply.

“Within fifteen days from the date.” A chief advantage of the Canadian law over those of Australia is that it provides for a speedy hearing. On account of the congestion of business before the courts in the latter countries, delays of a year sometimes occur in getting awards.

Members of board.

7. Every board shall consist of three members, who shall be appointed by the minister.

(2) Of the three members of the board one shall be appointed on the recommendation of the employer and one on the recommendation of the employees (the parties to the dispute), and the third on the recommendation of the members so chosen.

The corresponding section of the New Zealand act, 1900, provides:

35. The board of each industrial district shall consist of such unequal number of persons as the governor determines, being not more than five, of whom—

(1) One (being the chairman) shall be elected by the other members in manner hereinafter provided; and

(2) The other members shall, in manner hereinafter provided, be elected by the respective industrial unions of employers and of workers in the industrial district, such unions voting separately and electing an equal number of such members.

“Three members.” Employers have suggested that the boards have five members, in order that nonunion men may have a representative when they are numerous. But the presence of union and nonunion men on the same board might prevent conciliation, and certainly would make the law unpopular with labor interests whose cooperation is essential to its success. Some workingmen, however, favor the larger board on the ground that representatives familiar with different districts could be appointed members.

Procedure for appointment of members of board.

8. For the purposes of appointment of the members of the board, the following provisions shall apply:

(1) Each party to the dispute may, at the time of making application or within five days after being requested so to do by the minister, recommend the name of one person who is willing and ready to act as a member of the board, and the minister shall appoint such person a member of the board.

(2) If either of the parties fails or neglects to duly make any recommendation within the said period, or such extension thereof as the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a member of the board; and such member shall be deemed to be appointed on the recommendation of the said party.

(3) The members chosen on the recommendation of the parties may, within five days after their appointment, recommend the name of one person who is willing and ready to act as a third member of the board, and the minister shall appoint such person a member of the board.

(4) If the members chosen on the recommendation of the parties fail or neglect to duly make any recommendation within the said period, or such extension thereof as the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a third member of the board, and such member shall be deemed to be appointed on the recommendation of the two other members of the board.

(5) The third member shall be the chairman of the board.

The provisions of the New Zealand act, 1900, read as follows:

39. (1) As soon as practicable after the election of the members of the board, other than the chairman, the clerk shall appoint a time and place for the elected members to meet for the purpose of electing a chairman, and shall give to each such member at least three days' written notice of the time and place so appointed.

(2) At such meeting the members shall, by a majority of the votes of the members present, elect some impartial person who is willing to act, not being one of their number, to be chairman of the board.

45. In any case where the registrar is satisfied that for any reason the proper electing authority has failed or neglected to duly elect a chairman or other member of the board, or that his election is void, the governor may by notice in the Gazette appoint a fit person to be such chairman or other member, and, for the purposes of this act, every chairman or other member so appointed shall be deemed to be elected, and shall hold office for the unexpired residue of the ordinary term of office.

"The minister shall * * * appoint a fit person to be third member of the board." This is a controversial clause of the act. Some fear that a designing ministry will use this power for political purposes. In case of an important dispute just before election, involving several thousand miners or railway employees, employers claim that any elective officer is likely to make appointments for the purpose of winning votes. No specific charge that the act had been so used was made, except that in one instance local politics were thought to have influenced the appointment of a board. In eastern Canada this objection was usually presented by employers and in western Canada by employees. In one important dispute a captain of industry went down to Ottawa and returned claiming that he had got his man made chairman. If so, he made a mistake in his selection, for the decision of the board went against him. But had this boast come to the ears of the workers it might have imperiled the success of the negotiations as well as have left much bitterness and distrust of the act afterwards. As a rule, however, the employers are the suspicious ones. A very fair-minded chairman said: "Employers are more suspicious than workmen of government appointees, because

the latter have more votes. The opposition party, when it comes into power, will be more likely to make bad appointments than the present party, because it will not feel the same responsibility for the success of the act. Sometimes one party refuses to agree with the other on a third member of the board in order to justify its refusal to accept the settlement recommended. In other cases one party will refuse to agree because it thinks the government will appoint the man it wants as chairman, and the latter's decision will have more moral weight if he is not recommended by that party." An employer experienced with the act said: "Under our system of government it is impossible to administer the law fairly. Politics will come in and spoil it." A Western Federation member in British Columbia objected: "The board is nearly always made up of a man appointed by the government and a man from each side. The government's man always sides with the capitalists, so it is two to one against the workingman." But a western socialist scouted the idea that politics would seriously interfere with fair board appointments.

A suggestion that the chief justice of the Dominion supreme court, or of the provincial supreme courts, appoint the chairman when the parties failed to do so, was received with different favor by different persons. One premier said the chief justice would not be responsible enough to public opinion. Leading lawyers present at the time favored such a method, claiming that a justice would select impartial and practical men, as he would in business arbitrations. In the west the proposal was not well received even by lawyers. A leading solicitor in British Columbia said: "Most judges being reared and educated in an atmosphere far removed from labor, their minds don't take in a situation from a labor point of view at all. Board appointments should be made, when necessary, by men who have given thought to labor questions. Appointments by a judge or chief justice would be an incentive for the men to strike." An Irish justice, who had served as a board chairman, remarked, with a twinkle in his eye: "It would put the chief justice in an awkward position to have to appoint these boards. Why not leave it to the Archbishop of Canterbury?" A labor official favored making boards permanent and elective.

Employers sometimes have difficulty in getting a qualified representative on the boards. One manager writes: "We had great difficulty in getting anyone to represent us on that board. It seemed as if a mining man of fair business experience would have been the best. We asked several, but, while they did not flatly refuse, yet it was evident that they greatly preferred not to act, probably on account of the prejudice it might excite on the part of their employees should they give a decision favoring the company. We then tried one or two solicitors, none of whom was able to act. No one connected with

mining, no employer of labor, no merchant, doctor, or anyone connected with politics or with political aspirations would ever care to act for a company upon an arbitration board involving wages."

Notification to be given parties of members of board.

9. As soon as possible after the full board has been appointed by the minister, the registrar shall notify the parties of the names of the members of the board and the chairman thereof, and such notification shall be final and conclusive for all purposes.

The New Zealand act of 1900, as amended by the act of 1901, says:

40. (1) As soon as practicable after the election of the chairman, the clerk shall transmit to the registrar a list of the names of the respective persons elected as members and as chairman of the board, and notice of the names of the members and chairman of the board shall be inserted in the Gazette by the registrar.

(2) Such notice shall be final and conclusive for all purposes, and the date of gazetting of such notice shall be deemed to be the date of the election of the board.

Term of office.

10. Every member of a board shall hold office from the time of his appointment until the report of the board is signed and transmitted to the minister.

"Until the report of the board is signed and transmitted." The board ceases to exist when the investigation for which it was appointed is concluded. In Australia and New Zealand the arbitration boards and courts are appointed for fixed terms, and consider all disputes coming up during that period. Public opinion in Canada is not agreed as to which method is the better. The determining considerations causing Parliament to make the boards temporary are thus summarized by a federal official: "It would have been impossible for a single (permanent) board to deal with all the differences that have been referred under the act, scattered as they have been over the country from Nova Scotia to British Columbia." But this objection would apply to a number of permanent boards instead of one. A chairman who has had experience on eleven boards said: "I don't think permanent boards would be as successful as those we have. Under the present arrangement the government can try out men, until it finds those best adapted for its work. At the same time the government can drop a man whenever his usefulness is over. A single bad decision may prejudice one side permanently against a chairman. If the boards were permanent, too, their decisions would have the additional importance of forming precedents, indicating the permanent tendency of the chairman's mind. So one side would begin its case feeling at a disadvantage." A party of workmen appearing before a board said they opposed permanent appointments because the companies would find some way to "grease

the hands" (euphemism for "fix") of the members. A leading public man thought politics would be more likely to affect appointments on permanent boards, as the positions would then be important enough to be solicited by political workers. The attorney of a western miners' organization opposed permanent boards because it would be hard to get rid of bad appointees.

However, the weight of opinion—numerically—was in favor of permanent boards, or at least of a permanent chairman. A railway manager, familiar with the law, thought a permanent chairman with temporary appointees by each party for every new dispute, would combine the advantage of special knowledge of the case in hand with broad experience and a permanent policy in administering the act. Some favor permanent boards as likely to prevent delays, which sometimes attend the appointment of new boards, while others oppose them as likely to cause delays when two or more disputes occur at the same time. Australasian experience indicates that on account of the bunching up of business before any system of permanent boards, they would at times protract rather than expedite proceedings. A mining manager preferred permanent boards, though he foresaw the possibility of delays and of lack of technical knowledge on the part of the members. But he thought that permanent appointees would be selected with greater care and regard for public opinion than appointees for a single dispute. A representative of a railway union, who had conducted proceedings before a board, favored a permanent chairman for each industry, such as coal mining and metal mining, and two chairmen for railways—one for the operating and one for the maintenance department. The secretary of a western miners' union favored permanent boards, selected by workingmen and employers, on the ground that they could become familiar with conditions throughout an entire district and so give better awards than a board that had studied only a local situation. A district president of the United Mine Workers writes: "I think permanent boards should be appointed, especially for the coal trade, as owing to the technical nature of the mass of evidence submitted it is absolutely necessary in order to render a fair decision that the chairman should acquaint himself with the meaning of the terms used in coal mining. This can not be done to advantage under the present method of appointing boards. I feel certain that if a permanent board was appointed in the coal trade, the members would soon become competent to deal with any dispute brought before it. The moral influence of such a board would be great, and in time it would be looked up to by both parties." The solicitor of a mining company who had served on a board said: "I am inclined to favor permanent boards, because we want to get as far away from local prejudices as possible. Business reasons influence people more or less in giving

decisions affecting their own locality. At any rate we should have a permanent chairman, leaving each side to select its representative as at present. It is not a bad thing if these two members are more or less partisans of their sides, if they are familiar with conditions; for then a good deal of business can be threshed out in the private conferences of the board members." The president of two boards, himself a judge, used similar arguments, based on his own experience: "I should like to see permanent boards, like our railway commission. They would become sufficiently familiar with conditions in the industry they represented. There should be a board for each industry, in each section of the country; but it would be better to have it composed of men from outside the district, so that they would have no local ties to influence them or to make either side think they were influenced. But there is an advantage in having the representatives of each side partisans, for they enable the board to get at the real ground of the dispute more quickly." An employer of several thousand men, some of whom are working under an agreement based on a board decision, writes: "I believe a permanent arbitration board or a permanent chairman would be preferable. Could not an arbitration commission be established something on the same lines as the railway commission? * * * I really think it would be better that one arbitrator representing each side should be either a solicitor or officer of the union and the company, or admittedly prejudiced. If the above plan were adopted I would advise that the third man should invariably be chosen from outside the district, preferably in eastern Canada (the writer's interests are in the west), in order that neither he, his family, nor his business should in any way suffer from either side. If * * * there were many cases likely to come up, you might have several such arbitrators, in the same way that you have several district judges." Throughout western Canada similar opinion seems to prevail. The following very reasonable view of this question was given by a gentleman who had watched the operation of the act carefully and had served upon an important board: "I think we shall come to permanent boards eventually, but that temporary boards are better until we have had more experience with the act. It was wise to have temporary boards to break the ground. Ultimately there should be boards either for different districts or for different industries, or for both. After growth and experience we may come to compulsory arbitration. I fancy public opinion will drift round that way, as it did in case of the railway commission. That now regulates the relation of railways to our cities and to private patrons to general satisfaction; and it has practically ended the old squabbles and political intrigues relating to railway privileges, services, and agreements."

A practical embarrassment results from the fact that the transmittal of its report terminates the existence of a board. Often after a settlement has been made and the board has dissolved difficulties arise over the application of the settlement to particular cases. Thus, in case of the Grand Trunk machinists, several rather acute misunderstandings came up as soon as the company began to put the new agreement into force. As a practical solution of the difficulty, the board was reconvened and gave an interpretation of the particular points in question. The statute seems to make no provision for emergencies of this kind. It is understood that a board that has been assembled to interpret its own settlement acts by the consent of the parties, and is not authorized by law or regulations to take up any new point not brought before the board and acted upon at its previous sittings.

Members not to have pecuniary interest.

11. No person shall act as a member of a board who has any direct pecuniary interest in the issue of a dispute referred to such board.

“Direct pecuniary interest.” No Australasian act makes this specific provision, but it is assumed that board and court members will be governed by judicial precedents in cases in which they have an interest. In Western Australia a plumber refused to sit on the arbitration court while a case concerning plumbing was being heard.

In Canada the words have been variously interpreted in public discussion; but the government has not construed them too prudishly. It has confirmed the appointment by the miners of their district president as member of a number of boards. An eminent lawyer, holding retainers from large corporations, has served acceptably on several boards by which the interests of those corporations were directly affected. Other similar appointments have been made. These are criticised on principle, though no complaint is made that unfair decisions have resulted. A railway manager in criticising the selection of such members said: “After the labor people had appointed one of their salaried officers, I chose a man to represent us who I knew would do what I told him to. I had to do that to be even. But the investigators ought to be economic experts, like your census and corporation experts at Washington, and not partisan representatives who serve contrary to the spirit of the act. Employers usually select a big man as their representative, who is not so subservient to his constituents as are the labor representatives, who have no independence. They can’t be independent when they depend on the unions for their daily bread.” A western mine manager said: “I have no use for our boards out here, because they have not been properly constituted. The decisions aren’t fair, and couldn’t be with union officers repre-

senting the miners. Would you appoint John Mitchell to such a board in the United States, if you had to organize a new coal strike commission? I would not allow either party to have any say at all in appointments. The idea of the act is that public opinion shall settle strikes; so our boards are worthless, because they do not command public confidence. They never have more than one unbiased member. Besides we would not disclose business matters or show our books to such boards as have been appointed hitherto, with labor union officers on them; and so how can a board get at facts so as to command public confidence for its decisions?" In the comments on the preceding section of the act quotations from letters and interviews are given showing that other employers think the representative members of the boards should be partisans. This difference of opinion comes from a different interpretation of the act. Those who see an analogy between the boards and law courts naturally criticise such appointments. And if public opinion is really to be the final arbiter of most settlements obtained through boards, this view may be correct. But if the boards are not quasi courts, but negotiating bodies—public facsimiles of the boards that conduct private negotiations between large associations of employers and the great labor organizations of the United States and England—the policy of partisan appointments is well justified. And it is this second conception of the act that has guided the most successful boards and won popularity for the law where formerly there was distrust.

Some of the current discussion of this section of the law is based on a careless reading. A Canadian authority recently remarked in a public address: "The clause forbidding anyone who is directly or indirectly interested in either side to a dispute from serving on the board of investigation is more frequently honored in the breach than in the observance." The clause disqualifies from serving only those who have "direct pecuniary interest"—words that admit of very strict construction.

How vacancy to be filled.

12. Every vacancy in the membership of a board shall be supplied in the same manner as in the case of the original appointment of every person appointed.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

43. (1) Every casual vacancy shall be filled by the same electing authority, and, as far as practicable, in the same manner and subject to the same provisions, as in the case of the vacating member.

Oath of office and secrecy.

13. Before entering upon the exercise of the functions of their office the members of a board, including the chairman, shall make oath or affirmation before a justice of the peace that they will faithfully and impartially perform the duties of their office, and also that,

except in the discharge of their duties, they will not disclose to any person any of the evidence or other matter brought before the board.

The New Zealand act of 1900, as amended by the act of 1901, says:

53. * * * (11) Before entering upon the exercise of the functions of their office the members of the board, including the chairman, shall make oath or affirmation before a judge of the supreme court that they will faithfully and impartially perform the duties of their office, and also that except in the discharge of their duties they will not disclose to any person any evidence or other matter brought before the board. In the absence of a judge of the supreme court, the oath or affirmation may be taken before a stipendiary magistrate or such other person as the governor from time to time authorizes in that behalf.

Clerical and other assistance.

14. The department may provide the board with a secretary, stenographer or such other clerical assistance as to the minister appears necessary for the efficient carrying out of the provisions of this act.

PROCEDURE FOR REFERENCE OF DISPUTES TO BOARDS.

Manner in which application for appointment of board to be made.

15. For the purpose of determining the manner in which, and the persons by whom, an application for the appointment of a board is to be made, the following provisions shall apply:

(1) The application shall be made in writing in the prescribed form, and shall be in substance a request to the minister to appoint a board to which the existing dispute may be referred under the provisions of this act.

(2) The application shall be accompanied by—

(a) A statement setting forth (1) the parties to the dispute; (2) the nature and cause of the dispute, including any claims or demands made by either party upon the other, to which exception is taken; (3) an approximate estimate of the number of persons affected or likely to be affected by the dispute; (4) the efforts made by the parties themselves to adjust the dispute; and—

(b) A statutory declaration setting forth that, failing an adjustment of the dispute or a reference thereof by the minister to a board of conciliation and investigation under the act, to the best of the knowledge and belief of the declarant, a lockout or strike, as the case may be, will be declared, and that the necessary authority to declare such lockout or strike has been obtained.

(3) The application may mention the name of a person who is willing and ready and desires to act as a member of the board representing the party or parties making the application.

“The necessary authority to declare such lockout or strike has been obtained.” The object of this clause is to prevent applications for boards without well-grounded grievances. Speculative applications for awards, sometimes called “manufactured disputes,” cause trouble in Australia and New Zealand under compulsory arbitration. Unions

apply for awards on the gambling chance of getting something, knowing they are not likely to lose any existing privileges, and so expensive and irritating litigation is encouraged. It is doubtful if 10 per cent of the cases brought before compulsory arbitration courts would cause strikes if left unsettled. But this clause in the Canadian act is much criticised. A leading member of a large labor organization said: "Here is a great fault of the law. In our organization there is no power to declare a strike unless a vote of all the members has been taken. To make application for a board we have to declare that a strike will result if the application is not considered. Now, that forces us to authorize a strike in regular form, and to place a power and responsibility in the hands of our executives we would not otherwise give them. It makes it easier to strike if negotiations don't come out as we want them." An officer of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, an order opposed to the law, made this criticism: "As the act stands now it requires us to take a general vote to declare a strike before we can come into conference with our employers. That is a big expense of time, labor, and money. The vote stirs the men up and causes uneasiness and an unsettled feeling throughout the membership and generally along the road. It makes small things look big, and after taking the stand that they will strike over a grievance—perhaps one that might be compromised—the men are more likely to hold out for the settlement they have fixed on beforehand." A large employer writes: "The officers of the union should not necessarily have to secure authority from the union to order a strike in order to comply with the affidavit provided for in the act. If the law be strictly carried out (I do not think it has), a labor leader might be compelled to work the union up to the point of a strike before he could secure the arbitration, and this agitation is not good for either side." There is not the same need for such a clause that there would be if the awards were compulsory. So long as the applicants know that the other side is bound to accept no settlement to which it itself does not voluntarily consent, they are not so likely to make imaginary or trifling grievances the occasion of a dispute.

Signatures to application.

16. The application and the declaration accompanying it—

(1) If made by an employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be signed by some one of its duly authorized managers or other principal executive officers;

(2) If made by an employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, shall be signed by the employer himself in case he is an individual, or a majority of the partners or members in case of a partnership firm or association;

(3) If made by employees members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of its officers duly authorized by a majority vote of the members of the union, or by a vote taken by ballot of the members of the union present at a meeting called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question;

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

98. * * * (1) In the case of an industrial union, by resolution passed at a special meeting of the union and confirmed by subsequent ballot of the members, a majority of the votes recorded being in favor thereof; the result of such ballot to be recorded on the minutes;

"Members of a trade union." This is the extent to which unions are recognized by the act. Some employers would have them required to incorporate, as in New Zealand and Australia, so they might be responsible parties to the contracts made before the boards. But the logical consequence of making only incorporated unions responsible for the working of the law is to grant preference of employment to members of such unions, as has been done in Australasia. Though it has not been the usual policy of the boards to favor the closed shop, the tendency of the law is to promote the organization of labor. The chairman of eleven boards said: "The law is pretty much a dead letter for any but organized labor. It did not work in the Montreal dockers' strike largely because there was no responsible organization. The union was so poorly organized that it did not control its men. There was no one who could sign an agreement that the men would recognize. The work had to be done by mass meetings. You can't work any act under those conditions." A labor member of Parliament writes: "The law amounts to practical recognition of trade organizations." Other workingmen based their approval of the act partly on the ground that it strengthened the unions.

"By a majority vote of the members of the union, or by a vote taken by ballot, etc." This does not provide so fully for obtaining the vote of all members prior to an application as does the paragraph of the New Zealand act just quoted. Either of two methods may be adopted in Canada, both of which are required—one confirming the other—in New Zealand. Nevertheless the secretary of a large employers' association congratulates himself that: "Under the Canadian act it becomes a matter of considerable difficulty for agitators in the union to obtain a snap verdict to strike, particularly if the object is to call for an investigation under the act. * * * So far as the men are concerned, the act is well calculated to postpone hasty action."

(4) If made by employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of their number duly authorized by a majority vote taken by ballot of the employees present at a meeting called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question.

“Some or all of whom are not members of a trade union.” This would allow an application to be made against the will of the union men employed, as, for instance, to prevent discrimination in wages in favor of unionists. But such an emergency is hardly conceivable in actual labor negotiations. It would allow a minority of discontented bolters from a union to bring an application. This possibility is alluded to in the judgment of Justice McGee, in *Rex v. McGuire*, the first important law case involving the act: “If the employees interested can not persuade a majority, perhaps not interested though obstinate, to make an application, what are they to do? Are they to be deprived of a reference and yet compelled to work on indefinitely on terms unsatisfactory to them, from which there is no promise of relief? * * * Such a case may be unprovided for, and if it should arise a solution would doubtless be found outside of legal construction. Discontinuance of work is not necessarily a strike, and membership in a union need not continue.”

“Authorized by a majority vote taken by ballot of the employees present.” One chairman suggests that this clause might be used by a very few employees to create a dispute, and that it should be amended to require the minister of labor to satisfy himself that sufficient cause for a board existed before authorizing its appointment.

Application to be transmitted by registered letter.

17. Every application for the appointment of a board shall be transmitted by post by registered letter addressed to the registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation, department of labor, Ottawa, and the date of the receipt of such registered letter at the department shall be regarded as the date of the receipt of such application.

Party making application to transmit copy to other party to dispute.

18. In every case where an application is made for the appointment of a board the party making application shall, at the time of transmitting it to the registrar, also transmit by registered letter to the other party to the dispute, or by personal delivery, a copy of the application and of the accompanying statement and declaration.

Statement in reply to be made and sent to registrar and to party making application.

19. Upon receipt by either party to a dispute of a copy of the application for the appointment of a board such party shall, without delay, prepare a statement in reply to the application and transmit it by registered letter, or by personal delivery, to the registrar and to the party making the application.

To whom communications transmitting copies of applications and replies between parties are to be sent.

20. Copies of applications or statements in reply thereto, to be transmitted to the other party under any of the preceding sections where the other party is—

(1) An employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the manager or other principal executive officer of the company or corporation;

(2) An employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the employer himself or to the employer in the name of the business or firm as commonly known;

(3) Composed of employees, members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of such union;

(4) Composed of employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union—

(a) Where some of the employees are members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of the union as representing the employees belonging to the union; also

(b) Where some of the employees are not members of a trade union and there are no persons authorized to represent such employees, shall be sent to ten of their number;

(c) Where, under paragraph (4) of section 16, two persons have been authorized to make an application, shall be sent to such two persons.

FUNCTIONS, POWERS, AND PROCEDURE OF BOARDS.

At least ten employees to be affected by dispute.

21. Any dispute may be referred to a board by application in that behalf made in due form by any party thereto: *Provided*, That no dispute shall be the subject of reference to a board under this act in any case in which the employees affected by the dispute are fewer than 10.

“Are fewer than ten.” Clause (c) of section 2 limits the application of the act to employers having at least 10 persons in their service. This section limits the application to disputes involving at least 10 persons, irrespective of the number of employees. The meaning of the latter clause has been questioned. At Springhill the company claimed the board lacked jurisdiction because only 6 men were directly affected by a matter in dispute. The minister of labor ruled: “If the number of employees directly or indirectly affected by a dispute is 10 or more, the dispute may be referred to a board, though the persons to whom it may directly refer are fewer in number than 10. If the failure to effect a settlement in regard to a matter affecting directly only 6 men is likely to result in 10 or more being either immediately or subsequently affected, the reference of such a dispute would, in my opinion, come very properly within the provisions of the act.” This interpretation has been adopted; so that recently a board was appointed to consider the dismissal by the company of the secretary of a street railway union, when that action threatened to result in a strike by the men.

Method of referring disputes to board.

22. Upon the appointment of the board the registrar shall forward to the chairman a copy of the application for the appointment of such board, and of its accompanying statement and declaration, and of the statement in reply, and the board shall forthwith proceed to deal with the matters referred to in these documents.

Duties of board.

23. In every case where a dispute is duly referred to a board it shall be the duty of the board to endeavor to bring about a settlement of the dispute, and to this end the board shall, in such manner as it thinks fit, expeditiously and carefully inquire into the dispute and all matters affecting the merits thereof and the right settlement thereof. In the course of such inquiry the board may make all such suggestions and do all such things as it deems right and proper for inducing the parties to come to a fair and amicable settlement of the dispute, and may adjourn the proceedings for any period the board thinks reasonable to allow the parties to agree upon terms of settlement.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

53. (1) The board shall, in such manner as it thinks fit, carefully and expeditiously inquire into the dispute, and all matters affecting the merits thereof and the right settlement thereof.

* * * * *

(3) In the course of such inquiry the board may make all such suggestions and do all such things as it deems right and proper for inducing the parties to come to a fair and amicable settlement of the dispute, and may adjourn the proceedings for any period the board thinks reasonable, to allow the parties to agree upon some terms of settlement.

“Expeditiously.” A federal official largely occupied in administering the act writes: “Experience has shown that a month is a fair average allowance of time for the entire disposition of a case, from the date at which the application for the establishment of a board is received in the department of labor to the receipt by the minister of labor of the findings of the board.” Some cases have taken considerably longer than this, to the dissatisfaction of workers; but others have been disposed of in much less time. A speedy hearing is essential to the permanent success of such a law.

“The board may make all such suggestions and do all such things, etc.” Many of the persons interviewed thought that this should be mandatory. An official experienced in labor matters said: “The act should be amended to require the members of the board to make individual affidavits that every means of conciliation had been exhausted before authorizing them to proceed to arbitration.” As this subject has been referred to previously, it may be left with a single quotation from an address by a representative of employers: “It is significant that the one or two somewhat glaring instances where the word ‘fail-

ure' has had to be written across the act in Canada are explainable by the fact that the boards of investigation clothed themselves with too much formality, conducted their investigations as they would in a court of law, called on either side in turn for a statement of its case, giving the other side an opportunity to reply, took all the evidence under oath and in the presence of a court stenographer, and then sent the disputants away until they could sift out the evidence themselves and arrive at what they called an award. Such a course might be all right where the disputants are not required to meet again, but where they must continue relations as employer and employee, the only course, it seems to me, is to find some neutral ground upon which both can stand, a ground which will permit of harmonious working relations and be mutually satisfactory to both parties."

Memorandum of settlement to be forwarded to minister.

24. If a settlement of the dispute is arrived at by the parties during the course of its reference to the board, a memorandum of the settlement shall be drawn up by the board and signed by the parties, and shall, if the parties so agree, be binding as if made a recommendation by the board under section 62 of this act, and a copy thereof with a report upon the proceedings shall be forwarded to the minister.

The corresponding section of the New Zealand act, 1900, says:

53. * * * (5) If a settlement of the dispute is arrived at by the parties it shall be set forth in an industrial agreement, which shall be duly executed by all the parties or their attorneys (but not by their representatives), and a duplicate original whereof shall be filed in the office of the clerk within such time as is named by the board in that behalf.

Board to make report of failure of settlement with recommendations.

25. If a settlement of the dispute is not arrived at during the course of its reference to the board, the board shall make a full report thereon to the minister, which report shall set forth the various proceedings and steps taken by the board for the purpose of fully and carefully ascertaining all the facts and circumstances, and shall also set forth such facts and circumstances, and its findings therefrom, including the cause of the dispute and the board's recommendation for the settlement of the dispute according to the merits and substantial justice of the case.

"According to the merits and substantial justice of the case." However, a board usually strikes a balance between expediency and absolute justice in its reports. An officer of a railway union writes that instead of "investigating the merits of the contentions of the parties" the board "reports on the basis of what in its opinion would prevent a strike or lockout." A railway manager said: "The board's decision is arrived at by splitting the difference. It

is not the right thing, the absolutely just thing that is aimed at, but what company and men will accept." But this is the nature of every bargain. As pointed out before, the purpose of the boards is to conclude a contract, not to give judgment.

Form in which recommendation shall be made.

26. The board's recommendation shall deal with each item of the dispute and shall state in plain terms, and avoiding as far as possible all technicalities, what in the board's opinion ought or ought not to be done by the respective parties concerned. Wherever it appears to the board expedient so to do, its recommendation shall also state the period during which the proposed settlement should continue in force, and the date from which it should commence.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

53. * * * (8) The board's recommendation shall deal with each item of the dispute, and shall state in plain terms, avoiding as far as possible all technicalities, what, in the board's opinion, should or should not be done by the respective parties concerned.

(9) The board's recommendation shall also state the period during which the proposed settlement should continue in force, being in no case less than six months nor more than three years, and also the date from which it should commence, being not sooner than one month nor later than three months after the date of the recommendation.

"Shall also state the period." As the agreements signed through the intervention of the boards are voluntary contracts, the time they shall continue in force is a matter for adjustment between the parties. An important railway settlement, made shortly after the financial crisis, is to continue only six months.

"The date from which it should commence." Some labor men think settlements should be uniformly in force from the date an application is made. A representative of the western coal miners says: "I think that in all cases where a decision is given by the board in any matter under dispute, the decision should date back to the date of the application made by either party. This would create in the minds of the employees especially, a feeling that they would be treated fair. Owing to the great distances in our west a considerable time elapses before decisions can be given." However, such a provision might be contrary to the interests of the workers during a period of falling wages.

Report and recommendation to be made to the minister in writing.

27. The board's report and recommendation shall be made to the minister in writing, and shall be signed by such of the members as concur therein, and shall be transmitted by the chairman by registered letter to the registrar as soon as practicable after the reference of the dispute to the board; and in the same manner a minority report may be made by any dissenting member of the board.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

53. * * * (10) The board's report or recommendation shall be in writing under the hand of the chairman, and shall be delivered by him to the clerk within two months after the day on which the application for the reference was filed, or within such extended period, not exceeding one additional month, as the board thinks fit.

47. In all matters coming before the board the decision of the board shall be determined by a majority of the votes of the members present, exclusive of the chairman, except in the case of an equality of such votes, in which case the chairman shall have a casting vote.

"A minority report may be made." Where there is a difference of opinion as to matters of fact a minority report greatly weakens the influence of the board's findings with the public. For instance, in the Hamilton street railway dispute, where the chief issue was the dismissal of the secretary of the union by the company, the board was divided, two members finding that the man was dismissed for violating the rules of the company, and the other that he was innocent of these charges, and therefore inferentially dismissed for his activity in behalf of the union. When the parties can not be brought to an agreement by the board it is usually much harder for the board itself to unite in a single recommendation. In such cases, where matters of general principle are involved, the precedent becomes more important than in an agreement between the parties, the effect of which is only temporary. An experienced chairman remarked that where a board was not unanimous it was better to have three reports instead of two, for then the chairman's report had more influence with both parties.

Filing and distribution of report.

28. Upon receipt of the board's report the minister shall forthwith cause the report to be filed in the office of the registrar and a copy thereof to be sent free of charge to the parties to the dispute, and to the representative of any newspaper published in Canada who applies therefor, and the minister may distribute copies of the report, and of any minority report, in such manner as to him seems most desirable as a means of securing a compliance with the board's recommendation. The registrar shall, upon application, supply certified copies for a prescribed fee, to persons other than those mentioned in this section.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

54. Upon receipt of the board's report or recommendation the clerk shall (without fee) file the same, and allow all the parties to have free access thereto for the purpose of considering the same and taking copies thereof, and shall, upon application, supply certified copies for a prescribed fee.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

21. The minister shall forthwith cause the report to be filed in the office of the department of labor, and a copy thereof to be sent free of

charge to each party to the difference, and to any municipal corporation as aforesaid, and to the representative of any newspaper published in Canada who may apply therefor.

(2) Any other person shall be entitled to a copy on payment of the actual cost thereof.

Publication of report.

29. For the information of Parliament and the public, the report and recommendation of the board, and any minority report, shall, without delay, be published in the *Labor Gazette*, and be included in the annual report of the department of labor to the governor-general.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

22. For the information of Parliament and the public the report shall without delay be published in the *Labor Gazette*, and be included in the annual report of the said department to the governor-general.

"A copy * * * to be sent free of charge to * * * the representative of any newspaper" and "shall, without delay, be published in the *Labor Gazette*." By these provisions for publicity it is sought to influence public opinion in favor of a just settlement of the dispute. That well-informed public opinion is of some importance in securing this result is indicated by the fact that no unanimous board decision has been followed by a strike or lockout; and in only one case was there a strike even when the board divided. A representative of the Western Federation, speaking of a decision he did not approve, said: "The board's report went against the miners; but it was madness to strike, because both the public and the government would have been against the men after the recommendations of the board had been made."

Powers of board to summon witnesses, compel testimony, etc.

30. For the purpose of its inquiry the board shall have all the powers of summoning before it, and enforcing the attendance of witnesses, of administering oaths, and of requiring witnesses to give evidence on oath or on solemn affirmation (if they are persons entitled to affirm in civil matters) and to produce such books, papers or other documents or things as the board deems requisite to the full investigation of the matters into which it is inquiring, as is vested in any court of record in civil cases.

(2) Any member of the board may administer an oath, and the board may accept, admit and call for such evidence as in equity and good conscience it thinks fit, whether strictly legal evidence or not.

The New Zealand act, 1900, is as follows:

53. * * * (2) For the purposes of such inquiry the board shall have all the powers of summoning witnesses, administering oaths, compelling hearing and receiving evidence, and preserving

order, which are by this act conferred on the court, save and except the production of books.

77. * * * (10) The court may accept, admit, and call for such evidence as in equity and good conscience it thinks fit, whether strictly legal evidence or not.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, reads as follows:

23. For the purpose of such inquiry, the board shall have all the power of summoning before it any witnesses, and of requiring them to give evidence on oath, or on solemn affirmation, if they are persons entitled to affirm in civil matters, and produce such documents and things as the board deems requisite to the full investigation of the matters into which it is inquiring, and shall have the same powers to enforce the attendance of witnesses, and to compel them to give evidence as is vested in any court of record in civil cases; but no such witness shall be compelled to answer any question, by his answer to which he might render himself liable to a criminal prosecution.

“The board shall have all the powers.” A chairman who has served on eleven boards in some of the most important disputes referred under the act has never had occasion to use any power conferred in this section. For conciliatory proceedings they are seldom necessary. This and the subsequent sections should be understood as providing reserve measures for extreme cases and not as suggesting or regulating ordinary board procedure.

In New Zealand only the arbitration court can require the production of books.

Form of summons.

31. The summons shall be in the prescribed form, and may require any person to produce before the board any books, papers or other documents or things in his possession or under his control in any way relating to the proceedings.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

77. * * * (3) The summons shall be in the prescribed form, and may require such person to produce before the court any books, papers, or other documents in his possession, or under his control, in any way relating to the proceedings.

Documents not to be made public.

32. All books, papers and other documents or things produced before the board, whether voluntarily or in pursuance to summons, may be inspected by the board, and also by such parties as the board allows; but the information obtained therefrom shall not, except in so far as the board deems it expedient, be made public, and such parts of the books, papers or other documents as in the opinion of the board do not relate to the matter at issue may be sealed up.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

77. * * * (4) All books, papers, and other documents produced before the court, whether produced voluntarily or pursuant

to summons, may be inspected by the court and also by such of the parties as the court allows; but the information obtained therefrom shall not be made public, and such parts of the documents as, in the opinion of the court, do not relate to the matter at issue may be sealed up.

The New South Wales act, 1901, reads as follows:

26. * * * M. * * * No party to an industrial dispute shall be required to produce his books except by order of the president [of the arbitration court], and * * * such books when produced shall not, except by the consent of the party producing them, be inspected by anyone except the president or members of the court, who shall not divulge the contents thereof under penalty of dismissal from office;

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, reads as follows:

26. All books, papers, and other documents, produced before the board, whether voluntarily or in pursuance to summons, may be inspected by the board, and also by such of the parties as the board allows; but the information obtained therefrom shall not be made public, and such parts of the books, papers, and documents as, in the opinion of the board, do not relate to the matter at issue, may be sealed up.

“Books * * * may be inspected by the board.” Employers and employees naturally regard this power from different points of view. A mine manager said he would pay fines rather than produce his books showing contracts with different buyers. Other managers said they would undergo a fine rather than produce books before a board containing labor officials. This feeling is especially evident in the west, where socialism is strong and general sentiment is decidedly in favor of asserting the public's right to natural resources. The tendency there might be for a board, with the support of public opinion, to scale down the profits of mine exploitation to a very low figure. On the other hand, employees want the penalties for not producing books, provided in section 36, increased.

Parties may be compelled to be witnesses.

33. Any party to the proceedings shall be competent and may be compelled to give evidence as a witness.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

77. * * * (11) Any party to the proceedings shall be competent and may be compelled to give evidence as a witness.

Allowance to witnesses.

34. Every person who is summoned and duly attends as a witness shall be entitled to an allowance for expenses according to the scale for the time being in force with respect to witnesses in civil suits in the superior courts in the Province where the inquiry is being conducted.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

77. * * * (5) Every person who is summoned and duly attends as a witness shall be entitled to an allowance for expenses according to the scale for the time being in force with respect to witnesses in civil suits under "The Magistrates' Courts Act, 1893."

"According to the scale * * * in force * * * in the Province." In Nova Scotia where witness fees are very low, workmen complain of losses incurred in attending board hearings. Generally the men have some method of accounting by which the union makes good this loss, but then the expense falls upon the whole body of members. In a large mining dispute probably not less than fifty days' work would be lost in the aggregate by the workmen.

Witnesses in railway disputes to be entitled to free transportation.

35. Where a reference has been made to the board of a dispute between a railway company and its employees, any witness summoned by the board in connection with the dispute shall be entitled to free transportation over any railway en route when proceeding to the place of meeting of the board and thereafter returning to his home, and the board shall furnish to such witness a proper certificate evidencing his right to such free transportation.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

24. * * * (2) Any witness summoned by the board shall be entitled to free transportation over any railway en route when proceeding to the place of meeting of the board, and thereafter returning to his home, and the board shall furnish to such witness a proper certificate evidencing his right to such free transportation.

Penalty for failing to obey summons.

36. If any person who has been duly served with such summons and to whom at the same time payment or tender has been made of his reasonable traveling expenses according to the aforesaid scale, fails to duly attend or to duly produce any book, paper or other document or thing as required by his summons, he shall be guilty of an offense and liable to a penalty not exceeding \$100, unless he shows that there was good and sufficient cause for such failure.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

77. * * * (6) If any person who has been duly served with such summons, and to whom at the same time payment or tender has been made of his reasonable traveling expenses according to the aforesaid scale, fails to duly attend or to duly produce any book, paper, or document as required by his summons he commits an offense, and is liable to a penalty not exceeding £20 [\$97.33], or to imprisonment for any term not exceeding one month, unless he shows that there was good and sufficient cause for such failure.

Contempt of the board.

37. If, in any proceedings before the board, any person willfully insults any member of the board or willfully interrupts the proceedings, or without good cause refuses to give evidence, or is guilty in any

other manner of any willful contempt in the face of the board, any officer of the board or any constable may take the person offending into custody and remove him from the precincts of the board, to be detained in custody until the rising of the board, and the person so offending shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding \$100.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

103. If in any proceedings before the board or court any person willfully insults any member of the board or court or the clerk, or willfully interrupts the proceedings, or without good cause refuses to give evidence, or is guilty in any other manner of any willful contempt in the face of the board or court, it shall be lawful for any officer of the board or court, or any member of the police force, to take the person offending into custody and remove him from the precincts of the board or court, to be detained in custody until the rising of the board or court, and the person so offending shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding £10 [\$48.67].

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

32. If, in any proceedings before the board, any person willfully insults any member of the board, or willfully interrupts the proceedings, or without good cause refuses to give evidence, or is guilty in any other manner of any unlawful contempt in the face of the board, it shall be lawful for any member of the board or constable to take the person offending into custody and remove him from the precincts of the board, and retain him in custody until the rising of the board.

It has been suggested, after a year's experience with the act, that these sections regulating testimony and procedure might be greatly simplified and combined in a single section. They are not so important as in a compulsory law.

View by direction of board—Power to interrogate, examination of factories, etc.

38. The board, or any member thereof, and, on being authorized in writing by the board, any other person, may, without any other warrant than this act, at any time, enter any building, mine, mine workings, ship, vessel, factory, workshop, place or premises of any kind, wherein, or in respect of which, any industry is carried on or any work is being or has been done or commenced, or any matter or thing is taking place or has taken place, which has been made the subject of a reference to the board, and inspect and view any work, material, machinery, appliance or article therein, and interrogate any persons in or upon any such building, mine, mine workings, ship, vessel, factory, workshop, place or premises as aforesaid, in respect of or in relation to any matter or thing hereinbefore mentioned, and any person who hinders or obstructs the board or any such person authorized as aforesaid, in the exercise of any power conferred by this section, shall be guilty of an offense and be liable to a penalty not exceeding \$100.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

103. Any board and the court, and, being authorized in writing by the board or court, any member of such board or court respectively, or any officer of such board or court, or any other person, without

any other warrant than this act, at any time between sunrise and sunset—

(1) May enter upon any manufactory, building, workshop, factory, mine, mine workings, ship or vessel, shed, place, or premises of any kind whatsoever, wherein or in respect of which any industry is carried on or any work is being or has been done or commenced, or any matter or thing is taking or has taken place, which is made the subject of a reference to such board or court;

(2) May inspect and view any work, material, machinery, appliances, article, matter, or thing whatsoever being in such manufactory, building, workshop, factory, mine, mine workings, ship or vessel, shed, place, or premises as aforesaid;

(3) May interrogate any person or persons who may be in or upon any such manufactory, building, workshop, factory, mine, mine workings, ship or vessel, shed, place, or premises as aforesaid in respect of or in relation to any matter or thing hereinbefore mentioned.

And any person who shall hinder or obstruct the board or court, or any member or officer thereof respectively, or other person, in the exercise of any power conferred by this section, or who shall refuse to the board or court, or any member or officer thereof respectively duly authorized as aforesaid, entrance during any such time as aforesaid to any such manufactory, building, workshop, factory, mine, mine workings, ship or vessel, shed, place, or premises, or shall refuse to answer any question put to him as aforesaid, shall for every such offense be liable to a penalty not exceeding £50 [\$243.33].

“Enter”—“inspect”—“interrogate.” These are necessary rights, frequently used; but were they simply privileges they would seldom be denied. Where penalties are required to enforce them, the probability is that the disputants are too embittered, either against each other or against the board, to listen to a board’s decisions. Under the present act, fines would be the prelude to a breach rather than to a settlement.

How parties may be represented before board.

39. Any party to a reference may be represented before the board by three or less than three persons designated for the purpose, or by counsel or solicitor where allowed as hereinafter provided.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

52. * * * (6) An industrial union or association, being a party to the reference, may appear by its chairman or secretary, or by any number of persons (not exceeding three) appointed in writing by the chairman, or in such other manner as the rules prescribe, or by counsel or solicitor where allowed as hereinafter provided.

Parties to be bound by acts of representatives.

40. Every party appearing by a representative shall be bound by the acts of such representative.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

52. * * * (7) Except where hereinafter specially provided, every party appearing by a representative shall be bound by the acts of such representative.

Counsel or solicitors excluded except by consent of parties and of board.

41. No counsel or solicitor shall be entitled to appear or be heard before the board, except with the consent of the parties to the dispute, and notwithstanding such consent the board may decline to allow counsel or solicitors to appear.

The New Zealand act of 1900, as amended by the act of 1901, says:

52. * * * (8) No counsel, barrister, or solicitor, whether acting under a power of attorney or otherwise, shall be allowed to appear or be heard before a board, or any committee thereof, unless all the parties to the reference expressly consent thereto, or unless he is a bona fide employer or worker in the industry to which the dispute relates.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

29. No counsel or solicitor shall be entitled to appear before the board except with the consent of all parties to the difference, and notwithstanding such consent, the board may, if it deems it advisable, decline to allow counsel or solicitors to appear before it.

“No counsel or solicitor shall be entitled to appear.” In New South Wales the parties are allowed to be represented by lawyers, but the court can not assess attorney fees as costs against the losing party. Lawyers in conducting cases naturally bring with them court precedents; they take the position of watchful antagonists rather than of open-minded bargainers, and professional habit and a misconception of their functions cause them to fence for technical advantages and make points against each other in disregard of the conciliatory purpose of their office. Workmen feel at a disadvantage, because money counts in employing counsel.

“The board may decline to allow counsel or solicitors to appear.” This provision is original in Canadian legislation and is a desirable addition. Only in very rare instances, where there is special need for legal representation, will all three parties agree to admit lawyers. This section does not cover the appointment of lawyers as board members. Such appointees sometimes act as counsel for their respective sides. In describing one hearing an employer interested writes: “The solicitor * * * who represented the union (on the board) did not hesitate to make a case for the miners’ union, took full advantage of his right to examine and cross-examine witnesses in the most able way.” Where the chairman is a man of authority and discretion some latitude can be allowed in this respect. But the danger is increased that the board may depart from the investigating attitude and divide within itself.

Members of board to be British subjects.

42. Persons other than British subjects shall not be allowed to act as members of a board.

“Other than British subjects.” This provision, general in the Australasian acts, has been criticised as inapplicable to Canada by both employers and employees. An experienced board chairman said: “It would be better if the law were silent as to the citizenship of board members. They are not judicial officers exercising authority over an industry or a body of men, like an arbitration court, but negotiators to bring about an agreement that depends for its force upon the consent and support of the parties who make it. For this purpose it is often better to have outside arbitrators. Especially in railway disputes, where agreements may affect men working on both sides the international boundary, most of them citizens of another country, it is a narrow requirement that the parties appointed to bring about that agreement shall be British subjects.” Workingmen oppose the provision, and the Trades and Labor Congress, at its last annual meeting, asked that the section be repealed. An eminent Canadian lawyer, formerly a justice of the Dominion supreme court, who speaks from experience as a board member under the act and in previous arbitrations, said in a published interview: “A question worth considering is that the members of boards be confined to British subjects. In case of the selection of a third member it might be desirable to go outside. A reason for this would be to get away from local atmosphere. It is sometimes difficult, also, to get three good men thoroughly familiar with the subject under dispute who are not in some way connected with the matter.” Of course such suggestions have force only so long as the boards are temporary. In Canada there is a sentiment among employers hostile to the interference of American labor officials in Canadian disputes, and Canadian sections of international unions are denounced as foreign organizations.

Presence of parties.

43. If, without good cause shown, any party to proceedings before the board fails to attend or to be represented, the board may proceed as if he had duly attended or had been represented.

“Fails to attend or to be represented.” In one case employers withdrew from proceedings and in other cases they have refused to appear. Workmen urge an amendment compelling parties to represent their case before the board. This would hardly bring the disputants to an amicable agreement, but might in some cases facilitate a public investigation.

Time and place of sittings of board.

44. The sittings of the board shall be held at such time and place as are from time to time fixed by the chairman, after consultation with

the other members of the board, and the parties shall be notified by the chairman as to the time and place at which sittings are to be held: *Provided*, That, so far as practicable, the board shall sit in the locality within which the subject-matter of the proceeding before it arose.

Proceedings to be public unless otherwise determined by board.

45. The proceedings of the board shall be conducted in public: *Provided*, That at any such proceedings before it, the board, on its own motion, or on the application of any of the parties, may direct that the proceedings shall be conducted in private and that all persons other than the parties, their representatives, the officers of the board and the witnesses under examination shall withdraw.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

107. (1) The proceedings of the board or court shall be conducted in public:

Provided, That, at any stage of the proceedings before it, the board or court, of its own motion, or on the application of any of the parties, may direct that the proceedings be conducted in private; and in such case all persons (other than the parties, their representatives, the officers of the board or court, and the witness under examination) shall withdraw.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

33. It shall be in the discretion of the board to conduct its proceedings in public or in private.

“May direct that the proceedings shall be conducted in private.” Persons directly interested in the dispute are never excluded from board meetings unless private evidence, such as books and papers, is being introduced. But some boards do not admit press representatives except with the understanding that current proceedings shall not be published. This is to prevent sensational newspaper discussion likely to prevent conciliatory settlement. Even acrimonious arguments before the board are soon forgotten if not recorded and magnified and commented upon in the press. Parties recede more willingly from what they intended to be irrevocable positions when protected from public charges of inconsistency. One employer criticised all public hearing, saying frankly that they sometimes revealed bad labor conditions, and “what hurts one master hurts all masters.”

Majority of board.

46. The decision of a majority of the members present at a sitting of the board shall be the decision of the board, and the findings and recommendations of the majority of its members shall be those of the board.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

79. The decision of a majority of the members present at the sitting of the court, or, if the members present are equally divided in opinion, then the decision of the president, shall be the decision of the court.

Quorum.

47. The presence of the chairman and at least one other member of the board shall be necessary to constitute a sitting of the board.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

78. The presence of the president and at least one other member shall be necessary to constitute a sitting of the court.

All members of board to be present.

48. In case of the absence of any one member from a meeting of the board the other two members shall not proceed, unless it is shown that the third member has been notified of the meeting in ample time to admit of his attendance.

2. If any member of a board dies, or becomes incapacitated, or refuses or neglects to act, his successor shall be appointed in the manner provided with respect to the original member of the board.

Trivial matters.

49. The board may at any time dismiss any matter referred to it which it thinks frivolous or trivial.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

82. The court may at any time dismiss any matter referred to it which it thinks frivolous or trivial, and in such case the award may be limited to an order upon the party bringing the matter before the court for payment of costs of bringing the same.

Employment of experts.

50. The board may, with the consent of the minister, employ competent experts or assessors to examine the books or official reports of either party, and to advise it upon any technical or other matter material to the investigation, but shall not disclose such reports or the results of such inspection or examination under this section without the consent of both the parties to the dispute.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

101. Whenever an industrial dispute involving technical questions is referred to the board or court the following special provisions shall apply:

(1) At any stage of the proceedings the board or the court may direct that two experts nominated by the parties shall sit as experts.

(2) One of the experts shall be nominated by the party, or, as the case may be, by all the parties, whose interests are with the employers; and one by the party, or, as the case may be, by all the parties, whose interests are with the workers.

(3) The experts shall be nominated in such manner as the board or court directs, or as is prescribed by regulations, but shall not be deemed to be members of the board or court for the purpose of disposing of such dispute.

(4) The powers by this section conferred upon the board and the court respectively shall, whilst the board or the court is not sitting,

be exercisable by the chairman of the board and the president of the court respectively.

The Commonwealth bill, 1904, says:

43. (1) The court may appoint two assessors for the purpose of advising it in relation to any industrial dispute involving technical questions, and the assessors shall discharge such duties as are directed by the court or as are prescribed.

(2) One of the assessors shall be a person nominated by such of the parties to the dispute as, in the opinion of the court, have interests in common with the employers, and the other shall be a person nominated by such of the parties to the dispute as, in the opinion of the court, have interests in common with the employees.

(3) If default is made in nominating either or both of the assessors as required by the court, or if the parties consent, the court may appoint an assessor or assessors without any nomination.

The New South Wales act, 1901, says:

27. The president and each member of the court shall be sworn in the manner and before the persons prescribed before entering upon the hearing of any dispute, not to disclose to any person whatsoever, any matters or evidence relating to any trade secret or to the profits or financial position of any witness or party, and shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding £500 [\$2,433] and dismissal from office for a violation of such oath, and shall at the request of any party or witness hear such evidence in camera.

“May * * * employ competent experts or assessors.” The Australasian provision, that these shall be nominated by the parties, is hardly needed in the Canadian law, where the acceptance of the finding of the board is voluntary.

“Shall not disclose such reports.” No penalty is attached to this provision, as there is in the New South Wales act quoted. The law is criticised by employers for this reason, and the omission partly accounts for the reluctance to exhibit books mentioned in the comments on section 32. But the publicity features of the law require that the board shall be free to reveal any matters essential to a clear understanding of its report.

REMUNERATION AND EXPENSES OF BOARD.

Allowance to members of board.

51. The members of a board while engaged in the adjustment of a dispute shall be remunerated for their services as follows:

(a) To members other than the chairman (i) an allowance of \$5 a day for a time not exceeding three days during which the members may be actually engaged in selecting a third member of the board; (ii) an allowance of \$15 for each whole day's sittings of the board; (iii) an allowance of \$7 for each half day's sittings of the board;

(b) The chairman shall be allowed \$20 a day for each whole day's sittings of the board, and \$10 a day for each half day's sittings;

(c) No allowance shall be made to any member of the board on account of any sitting of the board which does not extend over a half day, unless it is shown to the satisfaction of the minister that such meeting of the board was necessary to the performance of its duties as speedily as possible, and that the causes which prevented a half day's sitting of the board were beyond its control.

Acceptance of gratuities and perquisites by members an offense.

52. No member of the board shall accept in addition to his salary as a member of the board any perquisite or gratuity of any kind, from any corporation, association, partnership or individual in any way interested in any matter or thing before or about to be brought before the board in accordance with the provisions of this act. The accepting of such perquisite or gratuity by any member of the board shall be an offense and shall render such member liable to a fine not exceeding \$1,000.

Actual necessary traveling expenses of members allowed.

53. Each member of the board will be entitled to his actual necessary traveling expenses for each day that he is engaged in traveling from or to his place of residence for the purpose of attending or after having attended a meeting of the board.

Payment of expenses of board.

54. All expenses of the board, including expenses for transportation incurred by the members thereof or by persons under its order in making investigations under this act, salaries of employees and agents, and fees and mileage to witnesses shall be allowed and paid upon the presentation of itemized vouchers therefor, approved by the chairman of the board, which vouchers shall be forwarded by the chairman to the minister. The chairman shall also forward to the minister a certified and detailed statement of the sittings of the board, and of the members present at such sittings.

"All expenses of the board." The total cost of the act during the first year, including all the items mentioned in this section, is reported to have been under \$18,000. The cost of a hearing naturally depends on the time taken to effect a settlement, and varies from \$100 or \$200 to \$1,000. It is not necessarily proportionate to the importance of the dispute.

DUTIES OF THE REGISTRAR.

55. It shall be the duty of the registrar:

(a) To receive and register, and, subject to the provisions of this act, to deal with all applications by employers or employees for a reference of any dispute to a board, and to at once bring to the minister's attention every such application;

(b) To conduct such correspondence with the parties and members of boards as may be necessary to constitute any board as speedily as possible in accordance with the provisions of this act;

(c) To receive and file all reports and recommendations of boards, and conduct such correspondence and do such things as may assist in rendering effective the recommendations of the boards, in accordance with the provisions of this act;

(d) To keep a register in which shall be entered the particulars of all applications, references, reports and recommendations relating to the appointment of a board, and its proceedings; and to safely keep all applications, statements, reports, recommendations and other documents relating to proceedings before the board, and, when so required, transmit all or any of such to the minister;

(e) To supply to any parties, on request, information as to this act, or any regulations or proceedings thereunder, and also to furnish parties to a dispute and members of the board with necessary blank forms, forms of summons or other papers or documents required in connection with the effective carrying out of the provisions of this act;

(f) Generally, to do all such things and take all such proceedings as may be required in the performance of his duties prescribed under this act or any regulations thereunder.

**STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS PRIOR TO AND PENDING A REFERENCE TO A BOARD
ILLEGAL.**

The following six sections contain the penalty provisions which give original character to the act and have excited the most discussion. Opposition to them comes entirely from the labor side, and chiefly from the larger railway orders and mining organizations. The legislative representative at Ottawa for the largest railway unions recommends "the repeal of sections 56, 57, 58, 59, 60 and 61, for the reason that I believe that these sections interfere with the principles of liberty and citizenship we are taught we are entitled to by the constitution of our country." On the other hand the Trades and Labor Congress refused by a decisive vote to recommend the repeal of the same sections. The following opinion of the value of these clauses is interesting because it comes from a person possibly having a larger experience with the direct working of the act than anyone else in Canada:

"Very little reliance can be placed on the penal clauses, and the main reliance must be in convincing people that the act is just and reasonably carried out."

Prohibition of strikes or lockouts prior to or pending reference to board.

56. It shall be unlawful for any employer to declare or cause a lockout, or for any employee to go on strike, on account of any dispute prior to or during a reference of such dispute to a board of conciliation and investigation under the provisions of this act, or prior to or during a reference under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall prohibit the suspension or discontinuance of any industry or

of the working of any persons therein for any cause not constituting a lockout or strike: *Provided also*, That, except where the parties have entered into an agreement under section 62 of this act, nothing in this act shall be held to restrain any employer from declaring a lockout, or any employee from going on strike in respect of any dispute which has been duly referred to a board and which has been dealt with under section 24 or 25 of this act, or in respect of any dispute which has been the subject of a reference under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act.

The New Zealand act of 1900, as amended by the act of 1901, says:

100. In every case where an industrial dispute has been referred to the board the following special provisions shall apply:

(1) Until the dispute has been finally disposed of by the board or the court neither the parties to the dispute nor the workers affected by the dispute shall, on account of the dispute, do or be concerned in doing, directly or indirectly, anything in the nature of a strike or lockout, or of a suspension or discontinuance of employment or work, but the relationship of employer and employed shall continue uninterrupted by the dispute or anything arising out of the dispute, or anything preliminary to the reference of the dispute, and connected therewith.

(2) If default is made in faithfully observing any of the foregoing provisions of this section, every union, association, employer, worker, or person committing or concerned in committing the default shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding £50 [\$243.33].

(3) The dismissal of any worker, or the discontinuance of work by any worker, pending the final disposition of an industrial dispute shall be deemed to be a default under this section, unless the party charged with such default satisfies the court that such dismissal or discontinuance was not on account of the dispute.

“To declare * * * a lockout * * * to go on strike.” The force of this provision depends on the definition of strike and lockout in the second section of the act.

“Prior to.” In the trial of two union officers for inciting a strike prior to a reference, it was urged in defense that the prohibition did not apply unless one of the parties had asked for a board, and that the restrictive provision of the act was intended to take effect only if the machinery of the act was going to be used. This defense was disallowed by the court, it being held that the first object of the law was to secure for the public continuous service, and that its effectiveness for this purpose did not depend on the will of the two parties to the dispute. “There is nothing in the act to show that it is out of regard for the rights of the workmen that the employer is restrained from a lockout or out of regard for the rights of the latter that the former are restrained from a strike.” Parliament had asserted “the right of temporary interference with private liberty of action by the prohibition of lockouts and strikes during the period of actual investigation as justified by the interests of the community.” (McGee in *Rex v. McGuire*.)

"Conciliation and Labor Act." The act is radically modified in principle by being made subject to these provisions of the Industrial Disputes Act.

"For any cause not constituting a lockout or strike." This proviso, necessary for the protection of both workmen and employers, nevertheless affords loopholes for evading the law. A strike is not always a "cessation of work" or "refusal * * * to continue work" (see sec. 2), but may be a refusal to begin work, as for instance after the temporary shut down of a mine or factory, or in case of a seasonal occupation, like stevedoring in Canada or sheep shearing in New South Wales. That is, the economic effect of a strike is produced by the same means, and with the same end in view. Similarly it is difficult to make a legal distinction in practice between a shut down and a lockout. The King Edward mine, at Cobalt, shut down and dismissed its employees on Saturday, and reopened with a largely new force of hands at a lower wage schedule, the following Monday. A mine at Boundary, British Columbia, shut down under somewhat similar circumstances, but for a longer period. A mine manager said frankly: "There is a loophole by which we can avoid giving thirty days' notice of a change of wages (see sec. 57). All we have to do is to shut down for a few days and then resume on a new schedule. When some of us posted a thirty-day notice, the Western Federation asked for a board; when the King Edward shut down no board was asked for."

"Nothing in this act shall be held to restrain any employer from declaring a lockout, or any employee from going on strike." The act stops short of compulsory arbitration. Most Australasian acts contain a clause allowing the arbitration court to fix a penalty in its awards for a violation of any of their provisions. The Commonwealth law unconditionally prohibits strikes and lockouts. In the Canadian Parliament leading Conservative members favored making the present act compulsory. Some Canadians fear and others advocate the law as a step toward compulsory arbitration. In the Cobalt district both workers and employers interviewed wanted compulsory awards. A mine manager said: "The board's decisions should be enforced by law. We don't feel like wasting our time and airing our troubles in public unless something final is to come of it." A New Zealander, who represented the employers on one of the boards, took the same position. A labor representative thought binding decisions would be better and would lessen the number of disputes. At Halifax the general sentiment of employers was the same. A leading official in Nova Scotia, formerly a large industrial employer, said: "I will say boldly that I would make the awards compulsory. If that were understood at the start it would be no hardship to either

party. It is true that the men say the strike is their form of appeal, and they might strike in spite of the law." A labor representative in a Nova Scotia mining district said that the awards should be binding and that compulsory awards could be enforced as well as the other provisions of the law. In conversing with a number of coal miners as they were leaving the pit the same opinion was expressed. In a recent letter a miner writes: "If you pass such a law in the States, make the awards compulsory." A labor editor in eastern Canada doubted if publicity would prevent strikes, and decidedly favored compulsory awards, made by boards of five members permanently appointed in each industry. In western Canada a leading labor man favored binding awards, but only on condition that they be given by permanent boards elected by popular vote.

A rather smaller number, but among them men of exceptional authority in labor matters, took an opposite view. The secretary of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association said the employers he came in touch with were opposed to compulsory arbitration. Western coal operators held the same opinion, one of them stating pertinently that compulsory arbitration encouraged litigation over trivial grievances. The secretary of a coal miners' union opposed binding awards because the chairman is not an expert, and therefore his decision ought not to control conditions of mining. A representative of a railway order thought it unwise to submit matters so vital to the workers to any outside authority. A board chairman of wide experience said: "I do not favor compulsory awards. They tie the hands of a board in getting a settlement, and deprive the decision of its moral weight. There is this difference between a court decision and a board settlement: After a lawsuit the litigants go their way and may never see each other again. Their relations may stop forever at that point. But after an industrial dispute the parties must live and work together under the terms of the settlement. They must interpret the terms of the agreement, as the board does not survive to do that for them. The parties will carry out with good will and in good faith only a decision to which they have both assented." It was pointed out by the same person that in railway disputes a compulsory award made in Canada would not have force on any part of a system that was operated in the United States.

A second modification of this clause of the act has been suggested. It is thus put, in the words of a large employer: "We want an amendment to require that the decisions of the board shall be reported to the department of labor, and shall have been made public by the department, with the objections of either side, for at least ten days before it shall be lawful to strike. Often men would not strike if they knew what an award really meant, but they are misled by misunderstanding the decision or because their leaders, incensed at

not getting all they asked for, urge them into a strike in the first sting of defeat." An employer said that in the public interest, in order to prevent a strike, he had been compelled to make unjustified concessions which the men on sober second thought would not have exacted. But this supports the contention of some labor men that in losing the right suddenly to strike they have lost a valuable weapon. It is true that the miners struck at Springhill against a board decision because, according to their own statement, they misunderstood the award, or, in the words of one of the strikers: "The award did not mean so much as it was said to mean when first published." But a further postponement of the strike privilege would meet strenuous opposition from workingmen. One of their leading representatives said: "At first thought I am against such an amendment. The workmen can't flirt with an award. They must accept it once for all and live up to its provisions. It is with them either strike or not strike. But employers can quibble and delay putting in operation all the details of an award and so prolong friction. In the first place, I am against it because a lockout may be put in force in detail; and in the second place, because a strike must be sudden and immediate, and to postpone it discourages the men and is almost equal to not striking." This argument, by a strong supporter of the act, is the same as that of its opponents against making strikes at any time unlawful. These latter arguments by labor people are presented in the interest of workers alone, in disregard of the interest the general public and other workers may have in preventing the cessation of an industry. They express a sentiment prevailing among the stronger labor organizations that they are weakened in bargaining with their employers by being deprived of the right to strike suddenly. As an officer of an international railway union expressed it: "You all tell us that labor is a commodity, to be sold to the highest bidder. Very well, then you can raise wages only when labor is scarce. You must sell on the top of the market—make your contracts at the best season. Now the law comes in and stops that and makes you sell on a market all the way from a month to four or five months later, when labor conditions may have changed entirely. This change is usually bad for labor, because the company will use every effort to bring in men in the meantime. How would the farmer like a law making him wait six weeks or two months on an average before selling his wheat after the time he thought most favorable for selling it? How would the mine owner or manufacturer like the same kind of a law? The Lemieux act makes us sell our labor after a delay in a market that has been fixed against us. * * * Delays can't be avoided. Most railway cases carry a thirty days' notice, besides the delays that occur in getting a board together and arriving at a decision. Our case was begun by notice of a revision of contracts October 1. The board met Decem-

ber 3 and the decision was given December 20, allowing the company over two and a half months to prepare for a strike." From the men's point of view this particular delay was peculiarly unfortunate, as a financial crisis, bringing on a period of unemployment, occurred in the interim. Other labor officials seem to think workingmen nearly helpless without the ready redress of an immediate strike. One of these writes: "An employer can intrude on the right of an employee in one direction, and, after the usual procedure has been gone through and the act invoked, even though a true remedy were had, the same process can be repeated again and again, in a somewhat different form each time, keeping the employees constantly in trouble so that the resources of their organization would be taxed to the utmost, their treasury impoverished, and perhaps the organization destroyed entirely." In general, the stronger party to the labor bargain, whether employer or workers, clings to the strike or lockout privilege, while the weaker courts government intervention.

The opposition to penalizing strikes is not confined entirely to workingmen. A successful board chairman thought the clauses were unnecessary and made a strike more likely if the board failed to effect a voluntary settlement. A western judge, who had also served as chairman of two boards, expressed practically the same opinion: "If you do enforce the penalties against the men, you injure the effectiveness of the law by making conciliation difficult in all subsequent disputes. The spirit of the law is to conciliate, and that is spoiled if you bring the penalties too strongly to the fore."

Relation of parties to remain unchanged pending proceedings.

57. Employers and employees shall give at least thirty days' notice of an intended change affecting conditions of employment with respect to wages or hours; and in every case where a dispute has been referred to a board, until the dispute has been finally dealt with by the board, neither of the parties nor the employees affected shall alter the conditions of employment with respect to wages or hours, or on account of the dispute do or be concerned in doing, directly or indirectly, anything in the nature of a lockout or strike, or a suspension or discontinuance of employment or work, but the relationship of employer and employee shall continue uninterrupted by the dispute, or anything arising out of the dispute; but if, in the opinion of the board, either party uses this or any other provision of this act for the purpose of unjustly maintaining a given condition of affairs through delay, and the board so reports to the minister, such party shall be guilty of an offense, and liable to the same penalties as are imposed for a violation of the next preceding section.

"Shall give at least thirty days' notice." As no penalty accompanies this clause, workingmen urge an amendment imposing a fine specifically for its violation. The miners of Springhill, where four boards have been applied for within about a year, claim as a prin-

cial grievance that the company changes conditions of employment without notice. In the western coal fields and at Cobalt men have been notified of an immediate reduction of wages. The secretary of the miners' union at the latter place thus sums up the operation of this section from the labor standpoint: "If the employer reduces wages at a moment's notice and (a) the employees stay at work, no lockout or strike is caused and therefore the employer is not liable to penalty; (b) if the employees apply for a board, no provision is made to enable them to collect wages at full schedule; (c) if employees quit, they are subject to penalties even though the employers first broke the law. It is evident that this is one-sided legislation."

"Neither of the parties * * * shall alter conditions of employment with respect to wages or hours." The Trades and Labor Congress wants an amendment to this section to prevent an employer from bringing in strike breakers during an investigation. A company might thus alter the condition of the labor market considerably without directly changing wages or hours of work, and so fortify itself for a possible strike if its claims were not accepted by the board. While the union may likewise employ this time to prepare for a strike—and the Canadian Pacific telegraphers are said to have done so—the delay is probably of more advantage to employers than to employees, if a break is later to occur between the parties.

"For the purpose of unjustly maintaining a given condition of affairs through delay." Mine managers who have virtually locked out their men by shutting down their mines justify this action by the claim that to continue operating during the proceedings before a board might entail heavy losses. This contingency is thus described by a large mining employer: "It would seem as if it would be very much more fair if some additional provision were made in the act to relieve the company from being subject to very serious losses due to their forced operation pending the investigation by the act; that is, assume in the case of the X mines and smelters, where the union had extorted higher wages than I have ever known to exist, namely, \$4 for miners, eight hours' work, and \$3.30 for common laborers on the surface working nine hours. For a time the price of copper was not only less than 13 cents, but it was exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to make any sales of that metal whatever. Their only recourse was to close down. Had the union suspected any such action, however, they might have asked for increased wages, applied for arbitration, and by prolonging the arbitration have forced the mines and smelters in that district to continue operations at fearful losses, which might even bankrupt some of those companies."

Were there permanent boards, provision might be made for brief interlocutory proceedings to determine whether a shut down were justifiable on account of business conditions, or if it constituted in effect

a lockout, and also to ascertain if a continuation of operations during proceedings before the board might jeopardize the solvency of a company. These questions are most important in case of metal mines, which are not strictly public utilities.

Penalty for causing lockout.

58. Any employer declaring or causing a lockout contrary to the provisions of this act shall be liable to a fine of not less than \$100 nor more than \$1,000 for each day or part of a day that such lockout exists.

“Not less than \$100 nor more than \$1,000 for each day.” Workmen object that this penalty is not equal to that imposed on employees for the same offense. In case of a mine or railway employing 100 men, the aggregate fines that may be imposed on an employer range from \$100 to \$1,000 for each day of lockout; but the aggregate fines that may be imposed on workers in the same establishment range from \$1,000 to \$5,000 for each day of strike. The amendment suggested is that an employer be fined in proportion to the number of men he locks out, so the penalty may be equal in each case. The Trade and Labor Congress asked a still more stringent penalty, ranging from \$10 to \$1,000 a day for each employee locked out.

Penalty for going on strike.

59. Any employee who goes on strike contrary to the provisions of this act shall be liable to a fine of not less than \$10 nor more than \$50, for each day or part of a day that such employee is on strike.

“Any employee * * * shall be liable to a fine. The Australasian laws require labor unions to incorporate, so their funds become attachable for penalties. Unions then evade responsibility by resolving against a strike in their corporate capacity, while their members sympathize, support, and engage in a strike as individuals. Nevertheless incorporation hampers financing a general or protracted strike and largely prevents sympathetic assistance from other organizations. Some Canadian employers seem to think incorporation of unions would settle the difficulty of collecting fines. The council of the Montreal Board of Trade, with the dockers' strike fresh in their minds, wrote officially to the minister of labor as follows:

The council feels that under the present conditions such an act could not be made justly or equitably operative as between employer and employee, as while actions could be taken and penalties imposed upon employers it would be, generally speaking, impossible to deal in the same manner with employees, either individually or collectively, individuals being at all times free to come and go and the labor associations which generally represent and direct the employees being in many cases foreign institutions and seldom, if ever, incorporated bodies; that if the bill were so amended as to be made applicable

only as between employers and responsible incorporated bodies the position would be improved.

The secretary of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association says: "The employer who declares a lockout may be promptly arrested and fined, but if his workmen to the number of a thousand go on a strike in violation of the act it is absurd to suppose that they could all be arrested and brought before a magistrate. Moreover, it would be the veriest folly for an employer who is anxious to get his men back to work to have some of their number arrested; for such action would immediately make the parties apprehended appear like heroes and martyrs in the eyes of their fellows."

The solicitor for the United Mine Workers in western Canada said: "It is not practicable to enforce the full penalty against the men if they care to strike. Each man would have to be tried separately. If there were 1,200 men out on strike, and two trials a day, it would take a court three years, attending to this business alone while in session, to clear its docket of these cases."

Penalty for inciting to lockout or strike.

60. Any person who incites, encourages or aids in any manner any employer to declare or continue a lockout, or any employee to go or continue on strike contrary to the provisions of this act, shall be guilty of an offense and liable to a fine of not less than \$50 nor more than \$1,000.

"Incites, encourages, or aids in any manner any employer * * * or any employee." This applies chiefly to violations by workmen, as the employer is usually the sole party responsible for a lockout. The Trades and Labor Congress voted in favor of repealing this section, possibly because it seems directed especially against union officers. But while it would prevent sympathetic strikes, it would also prevent employers from assisting each other in labor difficulties, either financially or by trading contracts. Two union officers have been convicted for advocating a strike, under this section, and fines of \$500 each imposed; but the conviction has not been pressed.

Procedure for enforcing penalties.

61. The procedure for enforcing penalties imposed or authorized to be imposed by this act shall be that prescribed by Part XV of the Criminal Code relating to summary convictions.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

96. * * * (1) Proceedings to recover the penalty by this act imposed in respect of any such offense shall be taken in the court in a summary way under the provisions of "The Justices of the Peace Act, 1882," and those provisions shall, *mutatis mutandis*, apply in

like manner as if the court were a court of justices exercising summary jurisdiction under that act:

The New Zealand act, 1901, says:

16. Proceedings for the enforcement of any industrial agreement, or award, or order of the court may be taken by the inspector of factories of the district, and in any such case it shall not be necessary for a union or association to pass any resolution or take any ballot authorizing such proceedings.

Suits for violating the act are usually brought by the injured parties, though it is discretionary with the minister of labor to make Crown cases of them. But officials will seldom interfere if the parties directly affected are not sufficiently interested to do so. Some labor men think all cases should be brought by the government, as the present arrangement gives an advantage to the side having the longer purse. Speaking of this question, a federal official experienced with the act writes: "It is apparently assumed that if neither party to a given dispute is sufficiently interested to invoke the machinery of the act, no particular grievance can be felt by either. This is similar to the law of trespass or of libel. It must be admitted, however, that this does not meet the whole case; one party or the other, in the case of the infringement of the act, may feel a decided grievance, yet may wish to throw on the government the responsibility of taking the necessary steps to enforce the act."

SPECIAL PROVISIONS.

Recommendation of a board binding in certain cases.

62. Either party to a dispute which may be referred under this act to a board may agree in writing, at any time before or after the board has made its report and recommendation, to be bound by the recommendation of the board in the same manner as parties are bound upon an award made pursuant to a reference to arbitration on the order of a court of record; every agreement so to be bound made by one party shall be forwarded to the registrar who shall communicate it to the other party, and if the other party agrees in like manner to be bound by the recommendation of the board, then the recommendation shall be made a rule of the said court on the application of either party and shall be enforceable in like manner.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

57. At any time before the board's recommendation is filed, all or any of the parties to the reference may by memorandum of consent in the prescribed form, executed by themselves or their attorneys (but not by their representatives), and filed in the office of the clerk, agree to accept the recommendation of the board, and in such case the board's recommendation, when filed, shall operate and be enforceable in the same manner in all respects as an industrial agreement duly executed and filed by the parties.

"In the same manner as parties are bound upon an award made pursuant to a reference to arbitration on the order of a court of

record." This is the only instance in which an award is enforced by the government, and the enforcement is based upon an agreement between the parties, in the nature of a contract, and not, as in the compulsory laws, upon the authority of a court issuing its own orders irrespective of the will of the parties affected.

In such cases the court would presumably interpret the award. The lack of an interpreting authority is a weakness in the act. The board may provide in the settlement for a conciliation committee to smooth over difficulties arising in the application of its decision; but this is not always enough. An international labor officer writes: "I have now before me a report * * * setting forth the discipline which has been meted out for trivial and trumped up offenses to eleven men on lines in the vicinity and east of Montreal, four of whom have been dismissed, which clearly indicates that the company is attempting to retaliate upon us on account of the bitter feeling that was engendered during the negotiations before the board of conciliation. It is the more pronounced in view of the fact that these dismissals are all either prominent officers or members of our organization. In addition to this, it is further clearly pointed out to us by other sources of information that the company entertains very bitter feelings against our organization, on account of our aggressiveness before the board, and that they intend to make reprisals upon our ranks." Where such a spirit prevails or is suspected, there has evidently been no true conciliation, and the act has failed of its purpose in the first application. But if there were an authority to consider such cases, without making them the occasion of an entirely new reference, aggressions by either side would be less likely to occur. This seems to be the chief advantage in having the parties refer their settlement entirely to the board, as provided for in this section.

Application of provisions of this act to any dispute on joint application of parties.

63. In the event of a dispute arising in any industry or trade other than such as may be included under the provisions of this act, and such dispute threatens to result in a lockout or strike, or has actually resulted in a lockout or strike, either of the parties may agree in writing to allow such dispute to be referred to a board of conciliation and investigation, to be constituted under the provisions of this act.

(2) Every agreement to allow such reference shall be forwarded to the registrar, who shall communicate it to the other party, and if such other party agrees in like manner to allow the dispute to be referred to a board, the dispute may be so referred as if the industry or trade and the parties were included within the provisions of this act.

(3) From the time that the parties have been notified in writing by the registrar that in consequence of their mutual agreement to refer the dispute to a board under the provisions of this act, the

minister has decided to refer such dispute, the lockout or strike, if in existence, shall forthwith cease, and the provisions of this act shall bind the parties.

“And if such other party agrees in like manner.” This has happened in a single instance, involving a large cotton mill, where the board obtained a satisfactory settlement. In other cases one party has applied, but the stronger side has refused to come under the act.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Courts not to recognize reports of or testimony before a board, except in prosecutions for perjury.

64. No court of the Dominion of Canada, or of any Province or Territory thereof, shall have power or jurisdiction to recognize or enforce, or to receive in evidence any report of a board, or any testimony or proceedings before a board, as against any person or for any purpose, except in the case of the prosecution of such person for perjury.

Technicality not to invalidate proceedings.

65. No proceeding under this act shall be deemed invalid by reason of any defect of form or any technical irregularity.

Payment of services under act.

66. The minister shall determine the allowance or amounts to be paid to all persons other than the members of a board, employed by the government or any board, including the registrar, secretaries, clerks, experts, stenographers or other persons performing any services under the provisions of this act.

Prosecutions under act to be reported to registrar.

67. In case of prosecutions under this act, whether a conviction is or is not obtained, it shall be the duty of the clerk of the court before which any such prosecution takes place to briefly report the particulars of such prosecution to the registrar within thirty days after it has been determined, and such clerk shall be entitled to a prescribed fee in payment of his services.

Minister may make, alter, and amend regulations.

68. The governor in council may make regulations as to the time within which anything hereby authorized shall be done, and also as to any other matter or thing which appears to him necessary or advisable to the effectual working of the several provisions of this act. All such regulations shall go into force on the day of the publication thereof in The Canada Gazette, and they shall be laid before Parliament within fifteen days after such publication, or, if Parliament is not then in session, within fifteen days after the opening of the next session thereof.

Expenses.

69. All charges and expenses incurred by the government in connection with the administration of this act shall be defrayed out of such appropriations as are made by Parliament for that purpose.

Report to Parliament.

70. An annual report with respect to the matters transacted by him under this act shall be made by the minister to the governor-general, and shall be laid before Parliament within the first fifteen days of each session thereof.

APPENDIX.

PROCEEDINGS UNDER THE CANADIAN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT, 1907, MARCH 22, 1907, TO JANUARY 15, 1908.

The following statements are from a report entitled "Copy of return to Parliament relating to the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, showing the proceedings under the act, from March 22, 1907, to January 15, 1908:"

SUMMARY OF PROCEEDINGS UNDER THE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT, 1907, FROM MARCH 22, 1907, TO FEBRUARY 15, 1908.

Applications concerning disputes in mines and public utilities.					Application concerning disputes in industries other than mines and public utilities.	Total references under act.
29					1	30
Concerning mines and smelters.		Concerning transportation and communication.			Disputes referred by consent of parties concerned.	30
18		11				
Coal mines. "15	Metalliferous mines. 3	Railways. "8	Shipping. 2	Street railways. 1		
Strikes averted or ended.....	"13	3	8	2	1	28
Strikes not averted or ended..	"1	0	0	0	0	"1
	14	3	8	2	1	29

^a In the case of three of these applications the disputes were settled before the board had been constituted.

^b The boards were distributed among the various classes of railway employees as follows: Locomotive engineers, 1; machinists, 1; carmen, 2; firemen and engineers, 1; freight handlers, 1; telegraph operators, 2.

^c There are still pending in connection with the various applications for investigations, viz, 2 in the case of coal mining disputes, 1 in the case of railways, and 1 in the case of street railways.

^d Only one strike occurred in cases when a dispute had been referred to a board, but in one instance a second board established to investigate other differences between the same parties was in session when the strike was declared. Hence the difference of 1 between the sum of the figures in this column and the figures at the head of the column.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF

A.—MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMU

Coal mines.

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1907. Apr. 8	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees. ^(b)	Employees. ^(c)	Springhill, N. S.	1,700	Concerning employment of nonunion workmen.
Apr. 9	Canada West Coal and Coke Co. and employees. ^(b)	do	Taber, Alta.	150	Concerning hours of labor.
	Western Coal Operators Association and employees: ^(b) Canadian American Coal and Coke Co.	do	Frank, Alta.	250	Concerning terms of joint agreement, including wages schedule and other conditions of employment.
	Crow's Nest Pass Coal Co.	do	Fernie, Coal Creek, Michel, B. C.	1,800	
	International Coal and Coke Co.	do	Coleman, Alta.	370	
	West Canadian Collieries (Limited).	do	Lille and Bellevue.	350	
	Breckenridge and Lund Coal Co.	do	Lundbreck, Alta.	125	
	H. W. McNeill Coal Co.	do	Canmore, Alta.	300	
May 8	Pacific Coal Co.	do	Bankhead, Alta.	400	
	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees.	do	Springhill, N. S.	1,700	Concerning payment for work in counter levels and stone in pillar work.
May 27	Alberta Railway and Irrigation Co. and employees of coal mines.	do	Lethbridge, Alta.	400	Concerning conditions of employment.
July 12	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees.	do	Springhill, N. S.	1,700	Concerning wages and other conditions of employment.

^c C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

^b It is important to note in connection with these disputes that the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act was not assented to till Mar. 22, 1907. It was some weeks later before copies of the act were available for distribution. Its provisions in consequence were not fully known by the parties at the time these disputes occurred.

CONCILIATION AND INVESTIGATION.

CONCILIATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC-SERVICE UTILITIES.

Coal mines.

Names of members of board. ^(a)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
	1907.	1907.	1907.	
				On Apr. 1 employees went on strike. It was alleged by employers that they were under impression that the mines of Nova Scotia were exempt from provisions of act. When it was explained act applied to all Canada, employees returned to work Apr. 3. Difficulty amicably settled. No board constituted.
				On Apr. 1 employer locked out employees. Employer alleged that this was done in ignorance of provisions of act. When informed of provisions of act by department, mines were reopened on Apr. 13. Subsequently an amicable settlement was effected through intervention of Mr. J. D. McNiven, fair wages officer of department. No board constituted.
Sir Wm. Mullock, C; ^(d) J. L. Parker, E; L. P. Eckstein, M.	Apr. 22	Apr. 30 May 6	May 29	Employees went on strike in the several mines, while proceedings were pending in connection with the establishment of the boards of conciliation and investigation, in consequence, it was alleged, of misunderstandings which arose through ignorance of the provisions of the act. The deputy minister of labor left for Fernie on Apr. 19 to explain to the parties the provisions of the law. While in Fernie the parties consented to his intervention as a conciliator under the Conciliation Act 1900 and an agreement was effected on May 4. The boards convened at Fernie on Apr. 30, but adjourned proceedings pending investigations by the deputy minister. On May 6 the boards reconvened to receive from the parties a formal statement that the differences had been adjusted, a further cessation of work being thereby averted. An important feature of the settlement was the establishment of a standing committee of conciliation between the employers and employees, to which future differences were to be referred.
Sir Wm. Mullock, C; ^(d) F. B. Smith, E; L. P. Eckstein, M.				
Justice Graham, C; ^(e) P. S. Archibald, E; R. B. Murray, M.	May 17	May 23, 24, 29 July 3, 4.	July 13	Board being unable to effect a settlement by conciliation, presented a report signed by the chairman and Mr. Archibald. Minority report was presented by Mr. Murray. The recommendations of the board were not accepted by the employees. The strike which was threatened prior to the application for board on May 8 was averted for the time being and took place on Aug. 1, continuing until Oct. 31, when the employees returned to work on the conditions recommended in the report of the board.
				Amicable settlement, including agreement as to conditions of employment and establishment of a standing committee of conciliation effected between parties while board was in process of constitution, strike being thereby averted.
Judge Patterson, C; ^(e) P. S. Archibald, E; R. B. Murray, M.	July 27	July 31, Aug. 1, Sept. 9, 12.	Sept. 21	Employees declared a strike on Aug. 1 in reference to question of payment of stone in pillar work, having refused to accept the recommendations of the board appointed May 17 to deal with this subject. In virtue of this strike proceedings before the board were suspended until Sept. 9, when the board sat for two days and presented an interim report. The strike ended on Oct. 31, the employees returning to work on the conditions recommended in the report of the first board.

^a Applications for a board were received also from the employers, parties to this dispute.^d Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 4, of the act, in the absence of a joint recommendation by the two members first appointed.^e Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 3, of the act, on the joint recommendation of the two members first appointed.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF CONCILI

A.—MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNI

Coal mines—Concluded.

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1907. Sept. 16	Hosmer mines and employees.	Employees.	Hosmer, B. C.-----	100	Concerning wages and other conditions of employment.
Sept. 18	Hillcrest Coal and Coke Co. (Limited) and employees.	-----do-----	Hillcrest, Alta.-----	70	-----do-----
Nov. 5	Canada West Coal and Coke Co. and employees.	-----do-----	Taber, Alta.-----	150	Concerning wages, hours, and other conditions of employment.
	Domestic Coal Co. and employees.	-----do-----	-----do-----	50	-----do-----
	Duggan Huntrods & Co. and employees.	-----do-----	-----do-----	40	Concerning wages, hours, and other conditions of labor.
Nov. 12	Strathcona Coal Co. and employees.	-----do-----	Edmonton, Alta.-----	40	Concerning wages, hours, and other conditions of employment.
Nov. 21	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees.	-----do-----	Springhill, Alta.-----	1,700	Concerning wages and other conditions of labor.
1908. Jan. 29	Dominion Coal Co. (Limited) and members of the Provincial Workmen's Association.	-----do-----	Dominion, C. B.-----	7,000	-----do-----
Feb. 10	John Marsh, John Hewells, Stevens Bros., coal mine operators, dealt with as a whole.	-----do-----	Woodpecker, Alta.-----	-----do-----	-----do-----

Metalliferous mines.

1907. Apr. 21	Canadian Consolidated Mining and Smelting Co. and employees.	Employees.	Moyie, British Columbia.	400	Concerning wages and hours.
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^a C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

^b Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 4, of the act, in the absence of a joint recommendation by the two members first appointed.

ATION AND INVESTIGATION—Continued.

CATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC-SERVICE UTILITIES—Continued.

Coal mines—Concluded.

Names of members of board. (a)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Judge Wilson, C; (b) F. B. Smith, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	1907. Sept. 30	1907. Oct. 14, 15, 16, 17.	1907. Oct. 21	The board presented a unanimous report, which, though not formally accepted by the parties, formed the basis of an agreement subsequently reached by them, and reported to the department, a strike being thereby averted.
Hon. C. W. Fisher, C; (b) J. R. McDonald, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Sept. 24	Oct. 7	Nov. 4	The report of the board was accompanied by a minority report by Mr. Sherman. Though neither report was formally accepted by the parties, a settlement was reached in consequence of the inquiry by the board and a strike thereby averted.
Mr. Justice Stuart, C; (b) S. A. Jones, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Nov. 20	Dec. 5, 6	Dec. 20	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board, dating from Dec. 9, 1907, until Mar. 31, 1909, a strike being thereby averted.
Mr. Justice Stuart, C; (b) R. Duggan, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Nov. 20	Dec. 5, 6, 7.	Dec. 23	Do.
Mr. Justice Stuart, C; (b) J. Shorthouse, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Nov. 20	Dec. 5, 6, 7.	Dec. 28	Do.
G. Montgomery, C; (c) F. L. Otter, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Dec. 2	Dec. 18, 20.	Dec. 28	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board, dating from Sept. 23, 1907, until Mar. 31, 1909, a strike being thereby averted.
Judge Patterson, C; (b) R. B. Murray, M; Hiram Donkin, (d)	Dec. 24	1908. Jan. 8, 9, 10, 11, 16.	1908. Jan. 22	The board presented a unanimous report, which the employees expressed a willingness, and the company an unwillingness, to accept. A further cessation of work has not taken place.
J. Dix Fraser, E; Dr. A. Kendall, M. P. P., M.				Board not fully constituted on date of return, Feb. 15.
W. E. Bullock, E.				Do.

Metalliferous mines.

Judge Wilson, C; (c) J. A. Harvey, E; S. S. Taylor, M.	1907. Sept. 23	1907. Oct. 10 to Dec. 17, intermittently.	1907. Dec. 23	The board, after an exhaustive inquiry into mining conditions in British Columbia, presented a unanimous report, the recommendations of which were of general application to the metalliferous industry in the Province of British Columbia. A settlement based on these recommendations was effected between the company and its employees, and a strike thereby averted. The inquiry, moreover, had the effect of influencing the settlement of other differences in the industry in other parts of the Province. (See note p. 638.)
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^a Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 3, of the act, on the joint recommendation of the two members first appointed.

^d Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 2, of the act, in the absence of a recommendation from the party concerned.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF CONCILI

A.—MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNI

Metalliferous mines—Concluded.

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1907. Dec. 9	McKinley-Darragh Mining Co. (Limited) and its employees.	Employees.	Cobalt, Ontario.....	120	Concerning wages and hours.
1908. Jan. 9	Temiskaming and Hudson Bay Mining Co. (Limited) and employees of said company.	do.....	do.....	50	do.....

Railways.

1907. Apr. 20	Grand Trunk Railway Co. of Canada and machinists.	Employees.	Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Stratford, etc.	400	Concerning schedule involving wages, hours, apprenticeship, reinstatement of former employees.
June 27	Grand Trunk Railway Co. of Canada and its locomotive engineers.	Employer	do.....	1,300	Concerning schedule of wages and rules.
Sept. 5	Canadian Pacific Railway Co. and railroad telegraphers.	Employees.	On all lines of C. P. R. in Canada.	1,656	Concerning schedule of wages and rules of employment.
Nov. 19	Grand Trunk Railway Co. and railroad telegraphers.	Employer	Montreal.....	300	Concerning wages and other conditions of employment.
July 10	Intercolonial Railway of Canada and freight handlers in its employ at Halifax, Nova Scotia.	do.....	Halifax, N. S.....	205	Concerning wages and classification of employees.
Nov. 22	Canadian Pacific Railway Co. and carmen employed by company on western lines.	do.....	Western lines.....	1,215	Concerning wages and hours.
Dec. 19	Canadian Northern Railway and firemen, enginemen, and hostlers in its employ.	Employees.	Winnipeg and territory along Canadian Northern Railway.	359	Concerning relations of union to employer.

* C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

^b Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 3, of the act, on the joint recommendation of the two members first appointed.

ATION AND INVESTIGATION—Continued.

CATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC-SERVICE UTILITIES—Continued.

Metalliferous mines—Concluded.

Names of members of board. (a)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Prof. A. Shortt, C; (b) E.O. Kingswell, E.	1907. Dec. 21	1908. Jan. 1, 2	1908. Jan. 22	A unanimous report was presented by the board, making recommendations for the settlement of the dispute. The findings of the board were not formally accepted by the parties, but the investigation by the board is believed to have been beneficial to the camp as a whole, and the strike, which was declared to be impending at the time application was forwarded to the minister, has been averted up to the present time, Feb. 15.
Prof. S. S. Maclean, C; (c) M.F. Pumaville, C. B. Duke, M.	1908. Jan. 31	Feb. 5, 6, 7.	-----	Report not received at date of return, Feb. 15.

Railways.

Prof. A. Shortt, C; (c) W. Nesbitt, E; J. G. O'Donoghue, M.	1907. May 4	1907. May 16, 17, 18.	1907. May 21	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board for period of one year from May 1, strike being thereby averted.
Prof. A. Shortt, C; (c) W. Nesbitt, E; J. Cardell, M.	July 18	July 23, 24, Aug. 12, 13.	Aug. 16	Differences adjusted, and agreement for three years concluded before board, a strike being thereby averted.
Prof. A. Shortt, C; (b) W. Nesbitt, E; J. G. O'Donoghue, M.	Sept. 16	Sept. 27 to Oct. 10.	Oct. 12	Differences adjusted, and an agreement concluded before board, dating from Oct. 1, a strike being thereby averted.
-----do-----	Nov. 30	Dec. 4, 5, 6, 7, 12, 1907, Jan. 13, 1908.	1908. Jan. 23	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board, dating from Jan. 1, 1908, a strike being thereby averted.
Prof. W. Murray, C; (b) Henry Holgate, E; R. E. Finn, M.	July 22	July 31, Aug. 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8.	1907. Aug. 12	On June 29 employees went on strike, and when informed that provisions of act applied, both parties agreed to refer the differences under the act, and employees returned to work. On the request of the parties proceedings were subsequently adopted under the Conciliation and Labor Act, and a settlement effected, the terms of which were made applicable to the company's employees at St. John, New Brunswick, as well as at Halifax, Nova Scotia, and further cessation of work was thereby averted.
Prof. Odium, C; (b) J. H. McVetty, M; A. M. Nanton, E.	Nov. 26	Dec. 2 to 19.	Dec. 23	The board presented a unanimous report recommending a basis of settlement which was subsequently, in correspondence with the department, accepted by both parties, and a strike thereby averted.
Prof. A. Shortt, C; (c) H. H. Richardson, E; J. G. O'Donoghue, M.	1908. Jan. 8	1908. Jan. 18	1908. Jan. 25	Differences amicably adjusted before the board, and a strike thereby averted.

(a) Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 4, of the act, in the absence of a joint recommendation by the two members first appointed.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF CONCILI

A.—MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNI

Railways—Concluded.

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1908. Jan. 8	Grand Trunk Railway Co. and car men in its employ.	Employees.	G. T. R. system-----	800	Concerning wages and conditions of labor.

Street railways.

1908. Jan. 31	Hamilton and Dundas Railway Co. and Hamilton Radial Railway Co.	Employees.	Hamilton-----	120	Concerning relations of union to employing companies.
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Shipping.

1907. May 15	Shipping Federation of Canada and longshoremen of Montreal.	Employers.	Montreal, Quebec-----	1,500	Demand for increase in wages.
May 25	Shipping Federation of Canada, Canadian Pacific Railway Co. and longshoremen of Montreal.	-----do-----	-----do-----	1,600	-----do-----
May 31	Furness Withy Co., Cunard & Co., Pickford, Black & Co. and longshoremen.	-----do-----	Halifax, N. S.-----	500	Concerning wages. Increase of 5 cents per hour demanded by men, 2½ cents offered by companies, but refused.

a C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

ATION AND INVESTIGATION—Continued.

CATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC-SERVICE UTILITIES—Concluded.

Railways—Concluded.

Names of members of board. (a)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Prof. A. Shortt, C; (b) Wallace Nesbitt, E; J.G.O'Donoghue, M.	1908. Jan. 28	1908.	1908.	Report not received at date of return, Feb. 15.

Street railways.

Wm. Bell, E; J.G.O'Donoghue, M.				Report not received at date of return, Feb. 15.
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Shipping.

Archbishop Bruchesi, C; (b) G.W. Stephens, E; Jos. Ainey, M.	1907. June 7	1907. June 11, 12, 13.	1907. June 17	On May 13 employees went on strike, notwithstanding provisions of act, and employers on May 18 withdrew application for board. On May 15, Mr. F. A. Acland, secretary of the department, went to Montreal to explain the provisions of the act to the parties to the dispute. As a result of Mr. Acland's intervention, the employees returned to work and agreed to refer the dispute under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, and a formal application was made by the employees for the establishment of a board. A unanimous report was made by the members of the board and an agreement recommended covering conditions of employment for the seasons of 1907 and 1908. The union did not formally accept the recommendations of the board, but the members, with the exception of a few, signed individual agreements to the employers, based on the recommendations of the board, and a further cessation of work during the season was thereby averted.
James Hall, E.; Phillip Ring, M.				On May 28 employees went on strike, alleging subsequently that they had no knowledge of the existence of the provisions of the act. Mr. V. Du Breuil, fair-wages officer of the department, was sent to Halifax to explain the provisions of act. A board was requested as a result of the explanations given, and while being constituted the dispute was amicably settled, Mr. Du Breuil lending the good offices of the department as a conciliator. A further cessation of work was thereby averted, as was also the necessity of further proceedings in connection with the establishment of the board.

^b Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 3, of the act, on the joint recommendation of the two members first appointed.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF CONCILI

B.—INDUSTRIES OTHER THAN MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1907. Aug. 26	Montreal Cotton Co. and employees.	Employees.	Valleyfield, Quebec....	2,200	Conditions and wages.

^a C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

^b Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 4, of the act, in the absence of a joint recommendation by the two members first appointed.

^c This dispute was referred to a board of conciliation and investigation under section 63 of the act, which provides that "in the event of a dispute arising in any industry or trade other than such as may be included under the provision of this act, and such dispute threatens to result in a lockout or strike, or has actually resulted in a lockout or strike, either of the parties may agree in writing to allow such dispute to be referred to a

ATTION AND INVESTIGATION—Concluded.

AND COMMUNICATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC UTILITIES.

Names of members of board. (a)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Mr. Justice Fortin, C; (b) Duncan McCormick, E; W. Paquette, M.	1907. Sept. 4	1907. Sept. 5, 10, 11, 16.	1907. Sept. 24	The employees went on strike on Aug. 13. and the good offices of the department were requested with a view to effecting a settlement. Mr. F. A. Acland, secretary of the department, and Mr. V. Du Breuil, fair-wages officer, visited the scene of the dispute and explained the provisions of the act to the parties, with special reference to the sections enabling a dispute in any industry other than that of a mine or public utility to be referred, by mutual agreement between the disputing parties, to a board of conciliation and investigation. As a result of the explanations and efforts at conciliation on the part of the officers of the department, an application for a board was forwarded to the minister, the employees in the meantime returning to work on Aug. 26. The board was duly established, with the result that the differences were adjusted and an agreement concluded before the board, dating from Sept. 17, 1907, to be effective until May 4, 1908, and thereafter until either side was given a written notice of cancellation of the same. A feature of the agreement was the establishment of a permanent committee of conciliation, to which it was agreed that all subsequent disputes should be referred. (c)

board of conciliation and investigation, to be constituted under the provisions of this act," etc. Applications referring to disputes in this class of industry were received also in the cases of W. A. Marsh & Co., boot and shoe manufacturers, Quebec; the Rosamond Woolen Company, Almonte, Ont.; the Eastern Townships Manufacturing Company, St. Hyacinthe, Quebec; L'Association Internationale des Ouvriers en Fourrures, Montreal; the Davidson Manufacturing Company, Montreal, and A. Gravel Lumber Company, Etchemin, Quebec; but the parties concerned not agreeing to refer their differences for adjustment according to the provisions of the act, no action was taken by the minister.

FORM OF APPLICATION FOR APPOINTMENT OF A BOARD OF CONCILIATION AND INVESTIGATION UNDER THE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT, 1907.

_____ (locality and date).

To the Registrar, Boards of Conciliation and Investigation, Department of Labor, Ottawa.

The undersigned hereby make application to the minister of labor for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, to which a dispute between the parties named in the accompanying statement may be referred under the provisions of the said act, and submit the statement and statutory declaration prescribed under the act as necessary in making such application. (a)

(a) STATEMENT.

Locality of dispute _____; trade or industry _____.

The parties to the dispute: (i) Employer _____ (designate the individual, company, or companies involved); (ii) Employees _____ (designate in general terms the employees involved, by classes of employment, for example. If members of a union give name of union).

Approximate estimate of number of employees affected or likely to be affected:

	Directly.	Indirectly.
Males 21 years or over _____	_____	_____
Males under 21 years _____	_____	_____
Females _____	_____	_____
Total _____	_____	_____

Nature and cause of dispute, including claims and demands by either party upon the other to which exception is taken: _____ (If space allotted is insufficient, details of this statement may be continued on a supplementary sheet.)

Outline of efforts made by parties concerned to adjust the dispute: _____ (If space allotted is insufficient, details of this statement may be continued on a supplementary sheet.)

Person recommended as member on board of conciliation and investigation: (b) Name in full _____, address _____.

This application is made on behalf of the _____ (designate whether on behalf of employer or employees).

Signatures of parties making application: (c)

Name _____, address _____.

Name _____, address _____.

Authority _____ (state where, by whom, and when authority was given for making this application, also wherein conditions of section 16, quoted below, (c) have been complied with).

"The application shall be made in writing in the prescribed form, and shall be in substance a request to the minister to appoint a board to which the existing dispute may be referred under the provisions of this act.

"The application shall be accompanied by a statement setting forth (1) the parties to the dispute; (2) the nature and cause of the dispute, including any claims or demands made by either party upon the other, to which exception is taken; (3) an approximate estimate of the number of persons affected or likely to be affected by the dispute; (4) the efforts made by the parties themselves to adjust the dispute." (Section 15, subsecs 1 and 2 (a).

"Each party to the dispute may at the time of making application, or within five days after being requested so to do by the minister, recommend the name of one person who is willing and ready to act as a member of the board, and the minister shall appoint such person a member of the board.

"If either of the parties fails or neglects to duly make any recommendation within the said period, or such extension thereof as the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a member of the board, and such member shall be deemed to be appointed on the recommendation of the said party." (Section 8, sub-secs. 1 and 2.)

"The application and the declaration accompanying it—

"If made by an employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be signed by some one of its duly authorized managers or other principal executive officers;

"If made by an employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, shall be signed by the employer himself in case he is an individual, or a majority of the partners or members in case of a partnership firm or association.

"If made by employees members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of its officers duly authorized by a majority vote of the members of the union or by a vote taken by

(b) STATUTORY DECLARATION. ^(d)

CANADA, PROVINCE OF _____, COUNTY OF _____, to wit:

I, _____, of the _____ of _____, in the _____ of _____ (if more than one declarant), and I, _____, of the _____ of _____, in the _____ of _____ (where necessary fill in the blank spaces as indicated), do (severally) solemnly declare (each of us for himself declares) as follows, that is to say: That, to the best of _____ (my or our) knowledge and belief, failing an adjustment of the dispute herein referred to, or a reference thereof by the minister of labor to a board of conciliation and investigation under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, a _____ (strike or lockout) will be declared, and that the necessary authority to declare such _____ (strike or lockout) has been obtained.

And _____ (I, or each of us) make(s) this solemn declaration conscientiously believing it to be true, and knowing that it is of the same force and effect as if made under oath, and by virtue of the Canada Evidence Act.

Signatures:

Declared _____ (by the said) _____ and _____, before me at _____, in the county of _____, this _____ day of _____, A. D. 19____.

_____ a commissioner, etc.

(To be declared before a commissioner for taking affidavits or any other functionary authorized by law to administer an oath.)

NOTE.—The attention of the party making this application is directed to the following sections of the act:

“Every application for the appointment of a board shall be transmitted by post by registered letter addressed to the registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation, department of labor, Ottawa, and the date of the receipt of such registered letter at the department shall be regarded as the date of the receipt of such application. (Section 17.)

“In every case where an application is made for the appointment of a board the party making application shall, at the time of transmitting it to the registrar, also transmit by registered letter to the other party to the dispute, or by personal delivery, a copy of the application, and of the accompanying statement and declaration.” (Section 18.)

“Copies of applications or statements in reply thereto to be transmitted to the other party under any of the preceding sections where the other party is—

(1) An employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the manager or other principal executive officer of the company or corporation;

(2) An employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the employer himself or to the employer in the name of the business or firm as commonly known;

(3) Composed of employees, members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of such union;

(4) Composed of employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union—

(a) Where some of the employees are members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of the union as representing the employees belonging to the union; also

(b) Where some of the employees are not members of a trade union and there are no persons authorized to represent such employees, shall be sent to ten of their number;

ballot of the members of the union present at a meeting called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question;

“If made by employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of their number duly authorized by a majority vote taken by ballot of the employees present at a meeting duly called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question.” (Section 16, sub-secs. 1-4.)

“The application shall be accompanied by a statutory declaration setting forth that, failing an adjustment of the dispute or a reference thereof by the minister to a board of conciliation and investigation under the act, to the best of the knowledge and belief of the declarant, a lockout or strike, as the case may be, will be declared, and that the necessary authority to declare such lockout or strike has been obtained.” (Section 15, sub-sec. 2 (b).)

(c) Where, under paragraph (4) of section 16, two persons have been authorized to make an application, shall be sent to such two persons. (Section 20.)

The attention of the party receiving a copy of this application is directed to the following section of the act:

“Upon receipt by either party to a dispute of a copy of the application for the appointment of a board such party shall, without delay, prepare a statement in reply to the application and transmit it by registered letter or personal delivery, to the registrar and to the party making the application.” (Section 19.)

(See also section 20 quoted above.)

WHAT IS DONE FOR THE UNEMPLOYED IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES. (a)

BY W. D. P. BLISS.

SYNOPSIS OF REPORT.

In studying what has been done and is now being done for the unemployed in foreign countries three general classes are here considered: The employable, the unemployable, and the vagrant, incorrigible, or more or less vicious. The employable are divided into two groups—those who are out of work and have no prospect of returning to their former employment, and those who are out of work but whose regular employment is only temporarily interrupted.

The most important agencies for providing work for the unemployed who are employable, but have no prospect of returning to their former positions, are the public employment bureaus. These are largely developed in a number of European countries, but especially in Germany, where they have grown rapidly in the last twenty years, both in numbers and in efficiency. Private employment bureaus of various kinds are also found in most of the countries studied. Apart from employment bureaus, other efforts made by European governments to find new positions for the unemployed of this class consist in attempts either to colonize them across the seas in their own colonial possessions or dependencies or in some way to get them in the home country "back to the land."

In connection with the temporarily out of work, consideration is given to trade union out-of-work benefits; under this are included the attempts, mainly in Switzerland, at insurance against unemployment and the "Ghent" system, now largely developed throughout Belgium and spreading into other countries, notably France, whereby the municipal or communal, or in some cases the provincial or general, government may supplement the trade union out-of-work benefit by adding to it an equal sum. The subject of temporary relief works is considered and the experience of Great Britain, Germany, and France is given. In Germany and to a less extent in France the

^a Compare article on "Free public employment offices in the United States," by J. E. Conner, published in Bulletin No. 68 of the Bureau of Labor.

provision of municipal relief works has come to be the rule almost every winter in all the large and not a few of the smaller cities.

“Home shelters” for the workmen traveling in search of work are considered, mainly for Germany and Switzerland, where they have been most developed, as apart from ordinary charitable shelters and lodging houses for the poorer artisan class at large. In Germany, Switzerland, and German Austria the so-called “Herbergen” or “Herbergen zur Heimat” (home shelters), are organized into a general system of homes or hotels for workingmen, and especially for those who are traveling in search of work, in all the larger cities and towns. Here, under helpful influences, workmen can find lodging for a night or two either by paying a small sum or, if unable to pay, by doing a little work in the morning. They are in all cases private institutions, maintained in many cases by the trade unions, or, not infrequently, by religious societies.

Connected with these home shelters there has been developed, particularly in southern Germany and a few other portions of the German Empire, a system of smaller relief stations (*Verpflegungsstationen*) under government administration or support. These relief stations are already organized in many portions of the Empire, in such numbers as to be within walking distance of each other and all are connected by telephone. A workman traveling in search of work can go from shelter to shelter and at every point learn in which direction he can look for work with the most hope of success. The man who patronizes these stations is compelled to have and show at every shelter at which he applies a little book showing his occupation, last place of employment, reason for discharge, etc. His being at each place of shelter is carefully noted and it is indicated to which shelter he will next apply. All is under complete governmental or police control; and if the worker, securing work, departs from his appointed route or has recourse to begging, or in any way violates the rules governing the relief shelters, he can be and is arrested. If unable to pay for his shelter, he is required to work in the morning and travel in the afternoon, and the time in which he can stay at any one shelter is strictly limited. Legislation has been enacted in Prussia looking to the establishment of this system all over that kingdom. In the cantons of Switzerland, which have accepted the system, and in considerable portions of Germany itself, it is claimed that tramps or irresponsible vagrants have been almost wholly removed from the community. Important help is given to this system by the nationalized railroads, which carry at half price or one-third price all those certified by the authorities to be legitimately looking for work.

Regarding the unemployable, the most notable efforts for this important class are the so-called “labor colonies” of Germany and the less known, but in some ways the more efficient, colonies in Switzer-

land. The German labor colonies which have grown rapidly, so that there are now thirty in various parts of the Empire, are agricultural colonies, maintained almost wholly by private philanthropy, administered mainly by a religious association, where any workman unable to find work can find shelter so long as he conforms to the rules and regulations of the colony. He is free to go at any time, but while in the colony he must do the work assigned to him and conform to the rules of the colony. The actual criminals are sent to penal establishments. The better grading of various classes of labor colonies for various classes of the unemployed is the aim of the Swiss colonies, most of which, however, are yet in their beginnings. Such colonies are being attempted in England and elsewhere.

Akin to these labor colonies are the penal colonies, notably of Belgium, Switzerland, and Holland, to which are sent those arrested for begging, persistent idleness, and other minor offenses. The colony at Merxplas, Belgium, is the largest penal establishment in the world. The convicts engage in almost every line of industry. Most of the work is for the consumption of the colony itself and little is sold in the ordinary market, so that it is claimed that the competition with free labor is reduced to a minimum. The colony is under military discipline, and little more is claimed for it than that with the cheapest cost it removes from the community a large class whose presence in the community would be harmful. The penal colonies of Switzerland are much smaller. They are mainly agricultural colonies and well administered, particularly in the case of Witzwyl, in connection with which a series of small agricultural or industrial colonies has been established, to which different classes of those freed from Witzwyl can be sent to prepare them for entry into the ordinary occupations.

Description is given of Bethel, the well-known colony of mercy for epileptics and others in special need, and of a few other special and more or less similar establishments.

INTRODUCTORY DEFINITIONS AND STATEMENTS.

It is necessary in the beginning to know what is meant by the unemployed. The word has been used in many senses, especially in the United States. In this inquiry it is used to mean all those without work who need work, either for a longer or shorter time—at least so far as their need is economic and industrial.

It is necessary to use the word in its largest sense in order to face the problem in all its aspects. The various classes of men and women out of work need and must have very different kinds of treatment. These various classes are so closely and so inseparably interblended—one class so continually merging into another—that no single portion of the problem can be omitted without reacting upon the suc-

cessful solution of every other portion. Failure upon this point has been possibly the one most fruitful source of the lack of success, particularly in the United States and Great Britain, in the efforts that have been made for certain of the out-of-work classes. The necessity for treating the problem in all its phases will become more apparent in the course of the investigation, but first as attention is given to the various partial ways in which the term unemployed has been used.

Some writers use the word unemployed in a limited sense, dealing only with the single phase of unemployment represented by that class who under prosperous times would be fully employed and who during the time mentioned were seeking employment. Even in the most prosperous times there is always a certain number without employment, and this number must be added to those above defined as the unemployed in order to find the complete number of those without work in times of special need. If this addition is not made, those even in times of prosperity without work will come in to swamp the efforts made for the unemployed in the partial sense.

Other writers have used the term to mean only those who desire work. The tramp or vagrant who does not work mainly because he will not work they do not reckon among the unemployed. The object of making this distinction seems to be to differentiate between those whom the writers consider to deserve sympathy and aid in finding work and those on the other hand who constitute a class very much to be condemned and who should be severely treated. Yet an investigation of the life history or the prenatal history and early environment of the work-shunning tramp might reveal a class to be pitied even more than the class that has not yet fallen low enough to lose the desire for work—a class needing aid and help (although possibly in the form of very stern treatment) more, perhaps, than any one class in the community. It is not possible to arrive at any adequate conclusions of how to employ the unemployed if those who do not desire employment are left out of consideration; for in actual life those who do not work because they will not are commingled at every step with those who desire work, and not seldom the two natures are somewhat developed in the same person. The whole problem of employing the unemployed often turns upon this very point.

Once more, some writers and more readers seem to understand by unemployed only the exact opposite of the foregoing. They take it for granted that any can find work who will, and that therefore if anybody is without work, it is because he will not work, or at least because of some fault which he has developed, and for which he is morally responsible. To them there are no unemployed except those who will not work. Few students of social facts take this view.

However much the number of those unemployed through no fault of their own may have been exaggerated by some, no one can doubt but that, in the present ordering of society, with its sudden economic changes, there are such. The invention of a machine, the consolidation of plants, the shutting down of mills, shops, or mines, the change of a railroad rate, the termination of an important contract, the failure of some crop or of some supply, even the caprice of fashion or the overstocking of a market—these and a hundred other things may cause thousands of operatives to be at least temporarily out of work, for reasons for which they are no more to blame than the tides for following the phases of the moon. To call all the unemployed willing idlers or shiftless incapables is to ignore facts and to insult many a worthy but unfortunate honest workman. It is to dodge rather than to face a problem.

Nor is there any more ground for limiting the term as is sometimes practically done to the unemployed among the artisan and manual-labor class. The unemployed clerk, accountant, journalist, or professional man is often in a much more serious and critical condition than the artisan or manual laborer who finds himself without work. If the brain worker is ruled out of the question, it means that often a very needy case is ruled out, and an important factor that is not ruled out in life and that continually enters in to confuse and augment the difficulties of the situation. To find work for the brain worker is sometimes harder than to find work for the manual laborer.

Nor is there any sex limitation to the word. An unemployed man may, in the final analysis, be a much more serious social factor than an unemployed woman, because usually man is the chief breadwinner of the family and of the community, and yet, when a woman does need work and either can not or will not find it, she is often in a more pitiable and a more dangerous, even desperate, condition than an unemployed man. The woman who is idle either by disposition or by circumstance can not be eliminated from the problem of the unemployed.

Unemployment therefore means the being out of work, for any cause whatsoever, through fault or through misfortune, for a longer or a shorter time, by any class or condition of persons in economic need of work.

Second only to the necessity of including in the problem all of its elements is the almost equal necessity in actual treatment of very carefully discriminating between the different classes of the unemployed and of treating each separate class differently, according to its exact and, frequently, its very divergent needs.

The failure to do this has probably been the second most frequent cause of failure in working out the problem. To treat a drunken, burned-out weakling like a strong skilled man temporarily out of

work is almost as serious a sociological blunder as to treat the honest, skilled, and willing artisan out of work through no fault of his own, like the tramp who comes begging for a nickel to quench his fevered thirst. Yet the history of labor is full of instances of industrial and other endeavors which have failed because they have taken for granted that everybody knew how and desired to work, and more frequent are the instances of well-meant systems which have begun by driving away the most hopeful class of the unemployed by insulting them and by lumping all the unemployed in one class and under conditions suited only to the most degraded and the most inefficient. Either course is fatal to success. To distinguish may be said to be the very first practical step toward the solution of the problem. Years ago it was said by John Burns, now president of the British Local Government Board:

Until the differentiation of the laborer from the loafer takes place, the unemployed question can never be properly discussed and dealt with. Till the tramp, thief, and ne'er-do-well, however pitiable he may be, is dealt with distinctly from the genuine worker, no permanent benefit will result to any of them. The gentleman who gets up to look for work at midday, and prays that he may not find it, is undeserving of pity. I have seen the most genuine and honest men at meetings mixed up with the laziest and most drunken scoundrels.

But this need of differentiation is so obvious that it has but to be stated to be understood. The difficulty is that it is not so easily carried out in practice.

As before stated, the unemployed may be divided into three general classes: (1) The employable; (2) the unemployable; and (3) the vagrant, incorrigible, or more or less vicious class.

By the employable are meant those out of work, either for a longer or shorter time, who are able and willing to do work of some economic value.

By the unemployable are meant those out of work, who, though willing to work, are by reason of deficiency, mental or physical, through their own fault or other circumstances, unable to do, at least permanently, work of appreciable economic value.

By the vagrant, incorrigible, or more or less vicious are meant those able to work, who, for one reason or another, are not willing to do permanent honest labor.

It will be obvious from these distinctions, that they are capable of and demand numerous subdivisions, and also that the three classes more or less continually merge into one another. Not seldom the three characteristics are to be found somewhat mixed in the same person. There are men, according to their moods, employable, unemployable, and vagrant. There are other persons of character either so unpronounced or so complex that it is almost impossible to say to

which class they belong. The three classes may be combined in many other ways, which increases the difficulty of the problem. Nevertheless, as will be seen, the general differentiation of these three main classes is primal, and is absolutely requisite to success in the solution of the question.

A further differentiation, however, must be made.

The first class, the employable, must be subdivided into those who are out of work because of loss of position and those who are temporarily out of work, but may expect after a time to have work at their former positions. These two classes are in very different situations. As previously said, men may lose their positions by reason of the invention of a new machine, which renders their skill no longer economically necessary, or through the consolidation of plants, resulting in the permanent shutting down of the factory, mine, or establishment in which they are employed. Or there may be many other economic reasons whereby, without implying any fault whatsoever in the individual concerned, he nevertheless becomes out of work, and perchance with no skill or education which he can use, because the need for his particular kind of skill or education has gone forever. To find work for such men is often difficult in the extreme. At least it takes time for them to learn and adapt themselves to a new occupation. To the individual and to society such a condition is one of industrial calamity, yet with the growth of civilization and of invention it is by no means rare.

On the other hand, the employable may be temporarily out of work for a hundred reasons—through a temporary lull or change in the market, the shut-down of a mill for repairs, because some portion of the working staff has struck, resulting in throwing all classes out of work, or through a limitless number of causes. Yet, however caused, it is obvious that the man unemployed for a few weeks is in a very different condition and has very different needs from the unemployed man who has no prospect of returning to his former employment; the one needs help over a temporary embarrassment, the other needs a new occupation.

Still other differences may be made among the employable—differences between the skilled and the unskilled, between workers by hand and workers by brain, between various occupations, between the sexes, between variations in age—differences which call for very great difference of treatment in securing work for the various classes. It is obvious that, combining the temporarily unemployed and those with no prospect of permanent employment, the skilled and the unskilled, the artisan and the manual laborer, the man and the woman, the young and the old, into one class and calling them the unemployed, will make it impossible to reach the real needs of any class.

The same reasoning is true, also, and perhaps to an even greater degree, of the unemployable. Here there are differences of character and temperament as well as differences of condition. Men are unemployable because of drink, because of old age, because of inefficiency, because of bodily infirmity. To lump all these together and treat them all in the same way is to insult the honest but unfortunate, and to fail to treat according to their real needs the unemployable who are to blame. It is evident that the differentiation of the various kinds of unemployable is possibly more needful than to differentiate the employable. It is the opinion of many that one of the most serious drawbacks to the otherwise successful German labor colonies is a failure to discriminate sufficiently between the various kinds of men who come to them.

Similarly the vagrant and more or less vicious classes should be differentiated. The difference between the tramp and the highwayman is marked, although it may be in a sense one of degree, and the tramp may become a highwayman almost before he knows it. Nevertheless, the man or woman who begs or will not work must be differently treated from the man or woman who steals. Undoubtedly one of the main reasons for the notable success of the Elmira Reformatory is its graded system, and in that it treats each individual differently according to his respective needs.

Such, however, are but a few of the differentiations that must be made. The exact nature of the subdivisions to be considered will become apparent only as the different portions of the subject are approached. The three main divisions noted above, however, must be kept in mind, for they are primal.

Fortunately when such differentiation has been made, the problem is often much less serious than at first appears. This is one of the main reasons why this study has been made an inquiry into what is done for the unemployed in foreign countries. In the United States and even in England, until recently at least, there has been very little effort to work out the unemployed problem on the basis of subdividing it into its component parts. Generally speaking, in the United States there has been no adequate effort to provide for the unemployed at all except in periods of unusual distress, and this is true to a less extent in Great Britain. For the most part the complacent but often delusive statement has been accepted that there was no real lack of employment; that if any man was without work in ordinary times all he had to do was to quit drinking and "get out and hustle for a job." It may be stated that, even when in times of unusual distress there have been spasmodic efforts to provide work, these efforts, being spasmodic and of necessity hastily put in operation—though they have often, perhaps usually, made great show of introducing "work tests," and of distinguishing between the

“worthy” and the “unworthy” unemployed—have involved a differentiation which has been in the hurry anything but thorough, scientific, or satisfactory. The result is that neither in the United States nor in Great Britain—with one or perhaps two important exceptions—has there been any real success in working out the problem.

WHAT EUROPEAN COUNTRIES HAVE ACCOMPLISHED.

Consequently for suggestion, informing experiences, and experiments it is necessary to study the methods in foreign lands, and here is found a singular fact. While in most of the countries studied the differentiation of the various classes of the unemployed has been somewhat adequate, the problem of dealing successfully with each separate class, when it has been differentiated, has been in many ways so easy that each nation has been, as it were, carried away with the success which it has first developed and so has worked out that special problem almost to the exclusion of other portions of the problem. Germany, for example, has been especially successful in the problem of public employment bureaus and of how to care for the wandering laborer and the tramp. It has even been said that there are to-day no tramps in Germany, though only comparatively recently the Empire was infested with them. This, while doubtless an exaggeration, has much truth. Yet Germany, though in many ways the very birthplace and home of State industrial insurance of other kinds, has not even attempted any State insurance against unemployment, and the German treatment of the unemployed artisan is by no means equal to her treatment of the unskilled laborer in search of work.

The country that first developed State-aided insurance against temporary unemployment, among trade unionists at least, is Belgium, and several other European countries are now copying her system upon this point. Yet the Belgian system has almost failed among nonunionists. Switzerland has seen perhaps more interesting experiments in the development of governmental or municipal insurance against unemployment than any other country, and has much to teach, though she has had little marked success, perhaps, for the very reason that the Swiss experiments have not carefully distinguished between the different classes of the unemployed.

Belgium, Switzerland, and Holland have been marked by some success with the hardened and incorrigibly idle. Denmark has developed an admirable system for the aged. France and Italy have seen interesting though less markedly characterized experiments with the so-called *bourse du travail*. Great Britain has developed the out-of-work benefit among trade unionists beyond any other country. The United States, though outside the field of the inquiry, has led the world in the so-called “vacant-lot cultivation.”

While such treatment would be of interest, it seems best not to take up the subject by countries and follow the experience of each, because it would be to confuse success with failure. It seems wiser to treat the subject topically and analytically and to study the experience in each department of the subject in those countries having in each given direction the most to teach.

It is well to dwell for a moment upon the general importance and gravity of the subject. Particularly is this necessary in the United States, where many seem to think the problem not pressing or even nonexistent. In Great Britain and in Europe generally it is reckoned among the chief problems of the day. Witness the international congress upon unemployment, held at Milan, October 2-3, 1906, in connection with the Milan Exposition. Prominent delegates assembled from almost all civilized countries and important papers were read on all phases of the question. The literature of the subject, too, is increasing by strides. All European legislatures are considering the problem usually through important commissions on the subject. Few in America know how deep is the interest taken in the question in Europe, how large is the experience in its treatment that can be drawn upon, or how great have been the successes already achieved.

MISCONCEPTIONS OF THE SUBJECT.

The lack of interest in the question in the United States has been partly due, however, to popular misapprehensions. The opinion seems general in the United States, and to a less extent even in other countries, that the number of unemployed has been exaggerated and that sympathy for men without work is largely misplaced. The reasons for this very common and natural opinion are habitually overlooked, though when studied the opinion will be seen to be erroneous.

1. In the first place, the unemployed who come into closest contact with the general community, and above all, with the charitable community, are beyond all question the worst specimens of their class, and therefore mislead the public as to the general character of the unemployed. Self-respecting men and women avoid begging and knocking at the doors of charity until the last possible moment. Some prefer, and often actually choose, starvation rather than beggary. Consequently these self-respecting persons are the last to come in evidence before the charitable. But those who have lost self-respect, who will not work even when they can, who are the professionally unemployed, the typical tramp represented on the stage and the one who darkens the rich man's door—these continually haunt the wealthy and the charitable. If anybody will give food, or above all, money, they will continually apply for it, and are even said to mark the gates of those who give, in order to inform other members of the begging

fraternity. Not unnaturally the ordinary public judges from its experience and wrongly concludes that what is true of the unemployed with whom it comes in contact is true of the whole class, and that the one trouble with the unemployed is therefore that they will not work. This is the natural conclusion from the public's experience. Yet all informed investigators of the subject are agreed that while this may be true of a large class it is by no means true of all, and that there are hundreds of thousands of people in the United States who never come before the charitable, and who dislike and even denounce charity, who are nevertheless, at least for periods of time, bitterly in need of work. Very few workmen pass through life without being, for a time at least, in need of work.

2. These premature judgments of the ordinary public are caught up and repeated by the press. The press does not like to admit any lack of employment. It is for their interest to talk good times. "Prosperity talk" helps to create prosperity. Desiring prosperity, the press, probably rightly, encourages hope, but not infrequently mistakenly asserts that there is work for all. A New York paper not long ago declared that the department of street cleaning was unable to secure street sweepers. Application at the department at that very time elicited the fact that the department was overrun with applications for work. Such is the fact as to many similar rumors and statements accepted by the public.

3. The wealth of the United States is so great, its opportunities so abundant, the prosperity of certain classes so good, the wages of many artisans so high, and ordinary labor when employed so well paid, compared with European labor, that it seems incredible that at that very time others may be unable to get work at any price. Yet such is the case. Trade union wages usually are high, not because there is no competition from the unemployed, but largely because of strict trade organization.

4. People get into the way of thinking that because those out of work are usually our "weaker brethren," they are out of work through their own fault alone. They forget that it is natural for the least efficient to be first out of work. When a man employing one hundred men discharges five, he naturally discharges the five who, for one reason or another, are the least efficient. Yet he may have discharged those five, not for any special inefficiency or fault, but because his business, compelling him to discharge five, they were the least valuable to him. Railroads sometimes lay off a thousand men at a time. When two companies combine, almost always some clerks are discharged. Inevitably, the more efficient are retained and the unemployed are the less efficient. For many of these, especially of the clerical class, with a fair general knowledge but no especial trade, it is difficult to find work, especially if at all old. Invention and machinery

also make men idle temporarily. The rapid entry of women into offices and some forms of light manufactures, displaces men, at least temporarily. Other forms and often higher forms of work may open for the abler men, but the inefficient often go months without work. The experience of certain college professors who, with plenty of physical and mental ability, have experimented in seeing if they could get work and have found it, proves nothing. The question is not can the efficient but can the inefficient get work?

5. It is said that they could at least be thrifty, cleanly, temperate, and that often they are not. Large numbers of the unemployed are thrifty, cleanly, temperate, but it must be remembered that few apply for relief or come to the public notice until they have been unemployed for a considerable time, or only employed on occasional jobs, so that the process of discouragement and demoralization has gone on a long time before they attract attention. By this time many who, when they had good work, were thrifty and temperate, have begun to take a weak refuge in thriftlessness and intemperance.

6. This leads inevitably to the question of intemperance as the cause of unemployment. Some say, having in mind individual cases, that the question of unemployment is only another form of the drink question, and that everybody could find work except for drink. Few well-informed students believe this. Serious as is the evil of drink it is easily exaggerated, because if drink leads to evil habits, and so often, at least, to discharge and unemployment, it is also true that idleness and unemployment often lead to drink. It is very frequently, perhaps usually, difficult to know which is cause and which is effect. The facts are too intricate to allow of analysis.

It is seen, therefore, that many popular presuppositions in regard to the unemployed are but poorly founded and that, even if true, they serve rather to aggravate and complicate the difficulties and the serious nature of the problem, than to afford any reason for slighting or dismissing it, or for saying that there is no problem of the unemployed. To call the matter merely a drink question or a tramp question, or to identify it with any one portion of the problem, is to commit an error which is to-day made by few students of actual life. The tramp, the incorrigibly idle, the drunkard, must be dealt with, whatever be the cause of his delinquency, as truly as the honest and worthy unemployed man or woman. It is apparent how large and how serious is the problem.

AMOUNT OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

With reference to the numbers of the unemployed, it must be said that this is not the subject of the present study, and that therefore it need not here be considered at length or in full. Figures even ap-

proximately exact are impossible. The real number of the unemployed in any country or in any city no man knows, or can know. The most careful statistics in regard to the subject are after all but guesses more or less shrewd, based upon fragments of evidence, and serve merely as a suggestion or very partial indication of the gravity of the problem.

THE MEANS OF DIFFERENTIATION.

In considering the question proper of what is being done for the unemployed the first thing necessary, as already shown, is to differentiate the unemployed into the various classes.

UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN..

In the United States and in Great Britain, through all their varied experiences, the work test has loomed very large. Applicants for work are put to work to see what is in them—whether they really want work or not, whether they can or can not work, how they work, and what work they can do.

The time-honored test is the wood pile. Men are set to sawing or splitting wood. It is an easy test, but very crude and unsatisfactory. A man may saw wood for a little while or for a day and yet be, in the long run, thoroughly unreliable and unsteady. Some men are not able to saw or split wood, and yet may be thoroughly deserving and, on a different line of work, quite capable. If a man does or does not saw wood, what, after all, does that indicate as to what he can do best, or what is his real need? The crudity of such a work test is apparent, although the test is far better than none.

Temporary colonies have recently been started, particularly in Great Britain, and men are sent there for a few days or weeks, partly as a temporary relief and partly to see what they are and what they can do. As this plan is studied in detail it will be seen that the experiment is at once expensive and unsatisfactory, and unless work is carried on in a large number of industries such colonies afford but little chance for a man to show what is or is not in him. It has been seen that the unemployed include largely the less able, the less educated, and the less efficient. Among other things, they are less able to adapt themselves to new conditions. For instance, it is difficult for a diamond worker or a stereotyper to show his skill at an "unemployment colony." A man may perhaps be able to do a fair day's work or succeed at least fairly well at his own particular machine or in his own branch of a trade, but is quite helpless when dumped down with hundreds of others of all classes and all trades in an agricultural colony.

Agricultural colonies are frequently the worst places to show what is in the city men who form the large majority of the unemployed. At Hollesley Bay, the main English colony of this description, it is said to be the rule that the man who comes to the colony is so weakened from lack of proper food or, less commonly, from the effects of drink and dissipation that it is two weeks before he can do ordinary colony work. With many it takes longer to show at all what they can do.

If varied lines of work are attempted at a colony it becomes enormously expensive, a large item of expense being the employment of adequate foremen to manage the various lines, while continual change of hands is bad both for the industry and the tools, and it is difficult to keep them up to the requisite standard. A still more radical difficulty—the drink habit—presents itself. This applies particularly to the lower grades of men, but unfortunately it applies to a large majority of unemployed “colonists.” All men are sober when they can not get drink. At the colony they usually can not; but that does not show what they will do when again at large. As a work test for the unemployed the colony fails at many crucial points, though this is far better than no test.

GERMANY.

Germany has developed an entirely different system of ascertaining what men can do. This must, however, be accompanied by the statement that at one point Germany's failure to differentiate various classes of the unemployed is a point of weakness in her labor colonies.

The way in which Germany comes to judge her unemployed may be said in brief to be by following their career from the start. This method needs no test. Germany knows the men themselves, and has in almost all cases a more or less complete record of their whole career.

In the first place, no German youth under 21 can enter employment without getting from the police a so-called labor book (*Arbeitsbuch*). In this book is entered his age, parentage, means of identification, and place of employment. So long as he remains in a place his labor book is kept by his employer, but when he leaves, the book must be returned to him with the date of his leaving recorded, and he can not secure another situation (if he is under 21) without showing his book.

After he is 21 the record plainly shows what he is. This record is secured in various ways, differing more or less in the different trades or callings and largely between the city and the country. The returns of the State industrial insurance system afford much information. For approximately 18,000,000 the facts as to their occupation, place of employment, wage received, size of family, general economic

condition, and state of health is a matter of public record, and that for a number of years. The value of this knowledge of the life history of a man is at once apparent. Every man or woman insured is given a card, showing at once how he or she has been insured, the amounts paid, the date and regularity of payments, indicating their occupation, economic standing, etc. When an applicant, therefore, arrives at an employment bureau, the first thing he is asked to do is to show his card to indicate his character and position.

For the cities, too, and especially for the classes most likely to be in need of employment, there is another way in which the character and position of applicants are even more minutely recorded. This is through the system of poor relief, now almost universal in the German States and cities—a combination of Government supervision with widespread individual action. It is some form or another of the Elberfeld system, so called from the city in which it was first developed, varying in detail in different States and cities.

The essence of this system, so far as the relief of the poor is concerned, is the division of the city into districts, for the supervision of conditions in which a certain number of citizens are responsible. These citizens, who watch over the needs of their districts, are not paid officials, and they may come from any class of the community. They are called "helpers" (*Armenpfleger*). In the city of Elberfeld, for example, with 162,700 inhabitants, there are over 546 of these helpers. It is the duty of these helpers to divide their districts into minor districts, and each helper must acquaint himself with the needs of the people in the district to which he is appointed. In Elberfeld each helper has on an average 280 persons under his care, rich or poor, out of which number only a few will probably need help. These few he comes to know personally and intimately.^(a)

The helpers, too, are organized into groups presided over by a captain or *Bezirksvorsteher*, and these captains meet in a central board headed by the civic administration called the *Verwaltung*, which has charge of the administration of the cities' charities. It is easy to decide in any given case whether a man is unemployed through fault or through misfortune, and what kind of aid he needs in securing employment. Each helper knows in detail the needs of each case and reports it to his *Vorsteher*, who lays it before the central board. Whatever be the case the applicant is helped in some way or compelled to find employment.

One of the principal duties set before every helper is to watch all persons in his district who may be in danger of becoming needy, so as to be ready to meet the beginnings of want before they become developed and disintegration of character sets in. Wherever these

^a W. H. Dawson, *The German Workman*, p. 260.

systems are developed it is easy to determine to what class of the unemployed any particular individual belongs, whether he be without work through fault or through circumstances, whether his unemployment is merely temporary or likely to be long continued, or whether he be capable or incapable.

The public employment bureaus also furnish a great deal of information. They form the chief success of Germany in dealing with the unemployed, exist in nearly every important German city, reach a very large proportion of the people, and yet for each one they reach they gather considerable detailed information. Details differ in different bureaus, but in general each applicant must enter on record considerable information in regard to himself, and this is followed up by his reporting his success or failure in gaining employment, so that his record becomes a somewhat complete index of his character. In Berlin he is given a little book which, till he is employed, he has to bring each day to the office and have stamped. In Germany, indeed, the workman may be called the man with the little book.

One other factor in connection with these public employment bureaus aids the differentiation, and that is that the bureaus themselves, at least in the case of the larger bureaus, are subdivided into so many sections. In all cases there are separate departments, and indeed separate rooms, if not separate buildings, for the men and women applying for work. Only less universal is the separation into different rooms of the skilled and the unskilled workers. These distinctions are made in even the smallest bureaus. But the larger bureaus go much further and have different departments for the main different trades, or at least branches of trades. The public employment bureaus of Berlin and Munich occupy a large number of offices, and in Berlin the bureau occupies more than one building. All this, of course, greatly aids the differentiation of the unemployed.

These institutions are mainly for the city laborer and the skilled artisan. For the more strictly vagrant class there are the "Wanderschein," or traveling workman's book of the Herbergen and Verpflegungsstationen, which play a large part in the life of the unemployed German workman, particularly of the lower grades.

The Herbergen are home shelters where the unemployed or needy workmen may secure temporary lodging and food by paying a small sum, or without such payment provided he do a little work in the morning. They are found in almost all German cities and towns, there being some 500 of them in the Empire. In 1904 they gave 4,089,506 night lodgings to over 2,000,000 persons. They are for the most part charitable, maintained largely by religious organizations. In all the large cities the trade unions also maintain Herbergen. The Verpflegungsstationen are smaller shelters—or sometimes a mere room or rooms in connection with some inn or other institution—provided

by the public authorities, where the needy workman traveling in search of work can find shelter for a single night only and be sent on the next day to the next *Verpflegungsstation*. Here, as in the *Herbergen*, the workman can obtain accommodations either by making a very small payment or by doing a little work. There are over 1,000 of these stations in the Empire and they are on the increase.

Both classes of these institutions have two characteristics which should be noted here. Both the *Herberge* and the *Verpflegungsstation* make considerable effort to find work for or learn of positions for the unemployed, and both of them make their services conditional on the workman having a book—the so-called “*Wanderschein*”—in which is entered the fact of his entertainment, with the date, and which must be shown and stamped at each *Herberge* or station before he can receive food or lodging. If this book be lost he must buy another at a low price or by doing extra work.

The *Herbergen* and *Stationen* are also organized into one system and connected usually by telephone, so that information as to opportunities for work can be communicated from one to the other, while many of the larger *Herbergen* have regular employment bureaus or departments connected with them. They are thus of great usefulness and importance to the more needy workingmen, and are largely patronized by them. But as all their activities are a matter of record and as each one who receives even the slightest entertainment must have and show his “book,” it is evident how much they contribute to showing the record of the needy men seeking work. The “*Wanderschein*” is by no means popular with the men. They do not enjoy the restraint and surveillance it entails upon their actions.

Thus in these and other methods by absolute records Germany knows who her unemployed are.

All this is helped, so far as knowing men is concerned, by the various laws and police regulations which render any vagrant not able to give an account of himself liable to arrest. As a matter of fact, the German unemployed and vagrants are compelled to have their “books” of one kind or another, and so thoroughly is the system carried out that it has been said that there are no tramps or vagrants in Germany. Germany thus needs no “work tests,” because the record of each man needing work is known and followed.

It does not follow, of course, that a system which on the whole works well in Germany is adapted to the United States or England. As has been already pointed out, Anglo-Saxon and German methods differ materially at this very point.

For two reasons it is much easier for the European workingman to submit to regulation by boards of various societies. The first is that these societies themselves are ruled by the State; the second is that both on their boards and on state boards the officers of the boards are

frequently themselves of the working classes. In Germany it is frequently the case that the "helper" may be a workingman, and when it comes to the employment bureaus it is often required by law that it shall be so. The presence of an equal number of employees and employers upon the boards of management of employment bureaus is considered in Germany so necessary to their success that it is almost universal in the new public employment bureaus, and the Germans have adopted a special word to designate this class of bureaus. They call them by the suggestive word "Paritätisch." The presence of workingmen upon such boards is also common in other countries. In Belgium upon each commission d'assistance, or relief committee of the commune or township, there must be at least one workingman. In Austria the Prague municipal employment bureau is in charge of a board of nine persons, of whom three must be representatives of the employed and must be workmen actually employed in Prague. In Switzerland workingmen are prominent on all such boards. In France the labor exchanges or employment bureaus are often almost wholly in the hands of workingmen.

SWITZERLAND.

Switzerland has in most ways upon the unemployment question followed the lead of Germany, but upon not a few points by coming after Germany has Switzerland been able to improve upon German methods. Being, too, a smaller country she has frequently been able to develop more systematized and centralized plans than have been developed in Germany, a truth only partially modified by Switzerland's cantonal and tripartite racial divisions. This applies particularly to Switzerland's methods of dealing with vagrants and being able to know the genuine seeker for work from the hardened vagrant.

There is in the first place an intercantonal union for the relief of workmen seeking employment, organized at present in at least nineteen out of the twenty-two Cantons. This union fixes the following conditions for giving relief in the relief stations at the Cantons:

- (1) The traveler must produce valid papers of legitimation.
- (2) Proof that he has worked for an employer within the three preceding months and that at least five days have elapsed since that employment ceased.
- (3) All relief given is rated in the traveler's book (issued by the union) with date and place.
- (4) The delivery of this book is made in the place of legitimation. Any person unable to present his book receives no relief, and the person may be handed over to the police. In Switzerland as in Germany each entry and discharge from or relinquishment of work must be recorded, and all is under strict police regulation. This explains why Switzerland is said to have few or no tramps, or at least to know

who are and who are not tramps. As a result people in good conscience can refuse to give to beggars in Switzerland, and begging there is almost unknown. For the really needy provision is made.

OTHER COUNTRIES.

Other European countries have little to teach on this subject. Belgium is beginning to arrive at somewhat the same results—so far, however, only as her organized labor is concerned—through her system of public aid to the unemployed who receive some aid from the trade unions. This system has as one corollary a somewhat minute recording of the condition and ability and character of each trade unionist. An examination of some of these Belgian records reveals much concerning the individuals in question, but this is only for the members of a union. For nonunionists the Belgian system has failed. France has little that is new. Denmark arrives at some approach to the German system through her old-age pension system, which necessitates considerable record keeping.

THE EMPLOYABLE.

The prime need for the class of the unemployed who have no prospect of work in a former position but who are employable is a new situation. Temporary aid or temporary relief work will do the members of this class little good, for at its conclusion they may be as needy as before. It is obvious that the first requisite for meeting the needs of this class is a good and efficient employment bureau.

EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

Employment bureaus may be divided into six principal classes, though these are capable of subdivision, and though there are also bureaus which partake more or less of the nature of more than one class.

First, there are in all countries and developed in large numbers the ordinary commercial employment bureau, carried on for gain. These bureaus are mainly for domestic servants, waiters, and the like, and to a less extent for girls and women in commerce and the unorganized trades. Outside of domestic servants men use these bureaus very little.

Second, employment bureaus connected with some trade union. These in all countries do a large and important work, but as a rule only for the members of the trade union or at most the craft with which they are connected.

Third, akin to those of the second class, but in most countries slightly developed, are employment bureaus established and managed by workmen, but not in connection with any one trade union.

Fourth, employment bureaus established by employers. In some countries these play a large part and find work for a considerable number of men. Among them, although slightly different, may be placed the employment bureaus of the old guilds, a few of which still survive in European countries, and which in a few countries yet play some considerable part.

Fifth, employment bureaus established and conducted by some form or other of charitable or philanthropic effort. These in some countries play a not inconsiderable part, although in the main for the less efficient and more poorly organized and therefore more needy working classes. These bureaus do much more for women than for men.

Sixth, the last kind of employment bureau to be developed, but probably the most important, is the so-called public employment bureau, established and conducted by some public organization, usually the municipality or State. These in Europe, and especially in Germany, have developed a very large success, are rapidly on the increase, and demand careful study.

Nearly all these various kinds of employment bureaus are to be found in all European countries. It seems best, therefore, to study them by countries.

FRANCE.

France is the first country selected, not because the French bureaus are the most important or the most successful, but because France first attempted public effort in this line and because upon her experiences to some extent has been based the action of other countries.

VARIOUS COMMERCIAL, TRADE UNION, AND OTHER EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

In France, as in almost all countries, the first employment bureaus to be developed were of the ordinary commercial kind, and these are still numerically the most important and possibly, until recently, the most successful. The number of situations obtained by them run over a million a year. Their importance, however, is rapidly on the decline and a strong agitation against them is at present being carried on. They are largely limited to obtaining situations in domestic service or for workers in hotels and restaurants. From 1893 to 1897, for example, at a time when they were more important than they are now, out of 932,822 situations filled, 398,725 were for domestic servants and 201,590 for waiters. Few situations were found for artisans or workers in organized trades.

Many and serious charges are made against these employment bureaus on the ground of immorality and kindred evils, and there is a considerable body of evidence to prove the evils along those lines.

In France, as also in other countries, these employment bureaus are also accused of exploiting in other ways the girls and women who

make use of them. Some of them have been charged with being little more than organized frauds, sending the girls and women to whom they promise situations on all sorts of baseless errands, but rarely getting them permanent situations. At present these private bureaus must be licensed by the municipal authorities and are strictly supervised. A law of March 14, 1904, requires that hereafter all fees must be paid by employers and no remuneration whatsoever be required from the employees. The law further gives municipalities the right to close these private bureaus, and in not a few cases the law has been acted upon. This law further requires every town of 10,000 or more inhabitants to maintain a free public bureau. It is even seriously proposed by many of the French Socialists and a few others to make the closing of the private bureaus compulsory for the whole country, but this has not been carried into legislation.

Another class of French employment bureaus at present of little influence, but of considerable historic interest, are the old guild registries. The 15 trade guilds reporting to the French Labor Department from 1894 to 1897 found an average annual number of only 7,537 situations.

Much more important are the trade union employment bureaus. In 1907, out of a total of 5,322 trade unions existing in France, 1,105 maintained employment bureaus. Besides these, there are also 21 federations of trade unions maintaining employment bureaus. This indicates what is found everywhere and in every country, a tendency to combine and ally the bureaus into a system and federation. These trade union employment bureaus find many positions, but are much criticised. The first report on employment agencies in France makes the following observations:^(a)

The employers object that the trade unions insist on their paying wages fixed by an absolutely rigid scale, that they refuse to allow the employers to select the particular employee who meets their requirements, since the unions, so far as possible, allot situations to their members strictly in order of priority of application, and that these organizations conduct their operations in places unsuitable for the purpose, which ladies seeking servants and women applying for situations, if they possess any degree of self-respect, in many cases can not visit without injury to their feelings, and in which employers are liable to have to discuss terms of engagement in public, under the very eyes of the employees whom they have just discharged.

The working classes themselves find fault with the trade unions for filling vacant situations exclusively with their own members, especially those of their members whose views on political and social subjects are those of the majority.

^a *Le Placement des Employés, Ouvriers et Domestiques en France, 1893*, pp. 469, 470.

In the last place, the most ardent advocates of trade unionism assert that the relative meagerness of the results obtained by the union employment agencies is due to the fact that, so far as most unions are concerned, there is no possibility of putting in charge of this work a man devoting his whole time to it, and they consider it to be an imperative necessity that for this purpose financial assistance should be granted to the unions by the public authorities.

The last paragraph, however, simply indicates a weak trade union. A strong trade union has no difficulty in employing a man to give all his time to such work. The other criticisms simply mean that trade union employment bureaus are of necessity limited to securing places for their own members.

These trade union employment bureaus are largely connected with the labor exchange or "*bourse du travail*," an institution somewhat peculiar to France, although to an extent copied in Italy and other countries, which must be studied. The first labor exchange was that created by the municipality of Paris in 1887, of which the employment bureau was to have been from the start one of the important features. The following is the text of the resolution which created the exchange:

On November 19, 1883, M. Manier forwarded to the municipal council of Paris the following resolution adopted at a meeting on the 16th of the same month at the Salle Rivoli:

Considering that the labor exchange will at least have the effect of (a) suppressing the *Places de Grève*,^(a) (b) facilitating the placing of workers; (c) suppressing the registry offices carried on for gain; (d) centralizing supply and demand with a view to rapidly bringing workers into relation with work; (e) establishing direct relations between the unions or corporate associations, as well as between all workers in general, whether they belong to unions or not; this meeting, having heard the details of the proposal, invites the municipal council to vote the said proposal in its entirety in the present session.

In response to this and other similar results the municipal council of Paris decided to create a central labor exchange, and one was provisionally opened February 3, 1887. A central exchange building was later erected and opened May 22, 1892.

Similar bourses were started in Nimes in 1887, in Marseille and St. Etienne in 1888, in Toulon in 1889, and in Bordeaux and Toulouse in 1890. They then became common. Almost all of them have employment bureaus connected with them. The following table shows their number and activity in this respect since 1894:

^a Certain localities in Paris where it is customary for persons seeking work to assemble for the purpose of being hired by employers. There are similar places at Toulouse, Bordeaux, Rouen, and Havre, and in other parts of France (see *Seconde Enquête sur le Placement*, etc., 1901, pp. 53, 54).

NUMBER OF LABOR EXCHANGES (BOURSES DU TRAVAIL) IN FRANCE AND NUMBER OF SITUATIONS SECURED BY THOSE REPORTING, 1894 TO 1906.

Year.	Total.	Number reporting situations secured.	Number of situations secured.		
			Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.	Total.
1894.....	34	24	15,031	5,335	20,366
1895.....	46	29	24,518	6,044	30,562
1896.....	42	37	33,553	7,450	41,003
1897.....	49	31	35,180	28,882	64,002
1898.....	55	41	47,227	38,159	85,396
1899.....	65	42	55,096	48,618	103,714
1900.....	75	a 44	37,396	23,898	61,294
1901.....	86	a 56	34,534	9,625	44,159
1902.....	94	a 66	44,631	30,544	75,175
1903.....	94	a 54	54,888	25,189	80,077
1904.....	111	a 64	60,232	31,766	91,998
1905.....	114	a 79	58,981	33,643	92,624
1906.....	125	a 89	62,177	36,147	98,324

^a Not including the Paris labor exchange. The *Annuaire des Syndicats Professionnels* of 1902 states that the Paris Bourse du Travail has no central employment bureau.

In 1907 these bourses du travail received a considerable subvention, 394,760 francs (\$76,189) from the municipal authorities and 55,569 francs (\$10,725) from the Departments.

They are federated into a federation for the country, and work in general on a similar system in making small grants to workmen journeying in search of employment. The following are some of the details of the system in force:

The grant is given one-half in cash, one-half in kind. The recipient must belong to a trade union or join one in six months. The man must not have left the place in which he lived for any reason except lack of work, and must present himself to each bourse in succession. Each bourse manages its own fund, this fund being maintained by a monthly contribution of 2 cents from each member of each trade union. The grant is at the rate of 2 francs (39 cents) for the first 25 miles or fraction of 25 miles from each bourse visited, and about 15 cents for each 12½ miles or fraction of that distance afterward. (^a)

Three other classes of employment bureaus exist in France which have not yet had large development. These are the employment bureaus established by employers, by joint associations of employers and employees, and by friendly societies.

In 1907 there were 319 employment bureaus established by employers' associations and 6 by federations of such associations. They are, however, as is natural, much criticised by the French workingmen.

In 1907 there were 27 employment bureaus established by joint associations—employers and employed—and 2 established by federations of such joint associations. These associations succeeded in placing only a few thousand men, for the most part in the weaving trade.

^a *Syndicats Ouvriers, Fédérations, Bourses du Travail*, by Léon de Seilhac, p. 215.

The French associations in connection with friendly societies undertake to find work for the members of these societies, but in a large number of instances without maintaining any sort of office and do not accomplish either a very large work or one which makes definite reports.

The latter statement is true also of the employment bureaus in connection with French charitable institutions. They have not been as a rule successful, nor have they reached large proportions, although a few charitable bureaus do considerable work.

MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

The most interesting French employment bureaus are those operated by the municipalities. Their beginnings go back to 1848, when the French provisional government of that year established free public information bureaus in each of the mayoralties of Paris. These were connected, however, so intimately with the governmental relief works also established at that time, that in this article they are considered under the section relating to relief works. They were unsuccessful, perhaps because of the lack of success of the relief works, and their failure long discounted the idea of municipal employment bureaus in France.

The experiment was revived in 1886, and by 1891 there were 24 municipal employment bureaus, and by 1896, 52, of which 26 made returns as finding situations for 36,895 persons. By 1902, 30 reported finding situations for 58,752 persons. The law of March 19, 1904, made compulsory the establishment of such free municipal bureaus in all cities of 10,000 inhabitants or over.

In 1906 there were 76 municipal bureaus, including 12 in Paris and 1 in Algiers.

The following table shows the operations of those of the French municipal bureaus making reports:

NUMBER OF MUNICIPAL BUREAUS IN FRANCE AND NUMBER OF SITUATIONS FILLED BY THOSE REPORTING, 1896 TO 1906.

[Compiled as to 1896-1899 from the *Seconde Enquête sur le Placement*, etc., p. 57, and as to 1900-1906 from the *Annuaire Statistique de la France*.]

Year.	Total.	Number reporting situations secured.	Number of situations secured.		
			Per- manent.	Tem- porary.	Total.
1896.....	52	26	32,974	3,921	36,895
1897.....	52	45	47,435	17,885	65,320
1898.....	52	35	47,334	16,604	64,038
1899.....	52	36	53,581	21,156	74,737
1900.....	(a)	29	55,064	13,015	68,079
1901.....	(a)	31	45,327	5,973	51,300
1902.....	(a)	30	50,754	7,998	58,752
1903.....	(a)	28	50,914	7,303	58,217
1904.....	(a)	27	45,009	94	45,103
1905.....	(a)	23	39,475	4,821	44,296
1906.....	(a)	23	42,393	5,017	47,410

* Not reported.

The number of situations secured in the different years must not, however, be compared without reference to the number of bureaus reported in the *Annuaire Statistique*, and this number seems to vary considerably.

The second French report on employment agencies says of the bureaus:

The municipal registries are generally open morning and evening. Their work is subsidized by the commune, which has established the registry. A single person, in most cases an employee of the mayor's office, is intrusted with the duty of carrying on this work, which, in some instances, consists exclusively in writing upon a board the applications for work and offers of employment received. When situations are filled the parties concerned are always notified; this is the reason why it has been found, in the case of many municipal bureaus, impossible to give complete statistics as to the results of their operations, although the bureaus do in fact undertake the work of finding situations for persons in want of employment. The persons who obtain situations through the agency of the municipal bureaus are generally domestic servants, clerks, etc.

From this review of the French employment bureaus it is seen that the private bureaus conducted for gain are by far the most numerous and find the most situations, though mainly for domestics and waiters, and that there is a distinct tendency to replace these by free municipal employment bureaus. Next to the commercial bureaus in the number of situations found, and first in finding situations for the artisan class, are the employment bureaus connected with the *bourses du travail*. The latter fact is true, probably, partly because these bureaus appeal most to the trade-union class and partly because, more than other French employment bureaus, they are connected in one system extending over the different portions of the Republic.

BELGIUM.

Belgian employment bureaus do not call for extended notice. A Ghent report of 1906, prefaced by Dr. Louis Varlez, the eminent Belgian authority on unemployment questions, laments the small results of the Belgian bureaus and strongly advocates the adoption of the German public bureau system.

There are, however, a few important public bureaus in Belgium, though there are several bureaus in Germany, each of which finds employment for more people than all the Belgian public employment bureaus taken together. The Ghent public employment bureau is one of the best. In 1894 it found places for 1,860 persons, and in 1904 for 1,848, which does not indicate growth, yet till 1905 it was the largest Belgian employment bureau. In that year the Antwerp bureau slightly surpassed that at Ghent.

Many Belgian employment bureaus have been established by associations, some philanthropic, some political, some organized by employers, some by employees, and some jointly by employers and employed. A number of them are in receipt of subventions granted by municipalities. In several cases employment bureaus have been established by the municipalities themselves. Antwerp was the first Belgian city to do this, and the result has been favorable, but not of large proportions.

The Antwerp bureau adopts the rule of sending workmen to situations in the order in which they apply at the office, a method which has been the subject of much criticism.

If a strike or a lockout takes place, the bureau suspends its operations in the trade affected until the close of the strike.

No charge is made for the services rendered by the bureau, except to persons not residing at Antwerp.

Workmen in want of employment do not wait at the bureau but at home, a postal card being sent to a man when a situation is found for him.

Notices are put up at the entrance to the bureau giving the particulars as to the situations offered and the workmen seeking employment, also copies of weekly reports on the same subject issued by the employment bureaus in Brussels, Liege, and other towns. Particulars as to the demands of employment and offers of work are also posted up in various public places throughout the city.

The following table shows the operations of the free employment bureaus of Belgium during November, 1907:

OPERATIONS OF FREE EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF BELGIUM DURING NOVEMBER, 1907.

[From *Revue du Travail*, December, 1907.]

Kind of bureau and city.	Applications for—				Situations filled.
	Situations.		Help.		
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
Municipal:					
Alost.....	8	1	8	5
Antwerp.....	524	66	260	57	254
Mechlin.....	18	20	41	3	18
St. Nicolas.....	23	7	15	3	18
Schaerbeek.....	62	45	63	59	19
Subsidized by municipalities:					
Brussels.....	598	81	348	89	319
Ghent.....	207	29	197	47	195
Huy.....	6	5	3
Liege.....	321	48	131	27	100
Paturages.....	1	14	6	42	15
Other:					
Louvain.....	125	19	44	12	38
Brussels (Concordia).....	168	74	60
Ghent (chartered labor unions).....	30	14	20	10	25
Mechlin (Catholic workmen's club).....	17	23	13
Liege (Christian democratic union).....	191	35	60	24	98
Eecloo (Liberal labor exchange).....	15	7	13	9	31
Total.....	2,323	391	1,303	385	1,208

GERMANY.

In Germany employment bureaus are of many kinds. The most of these, because not particularly different from those in other countries, are only briefly noticed, in order to consider the more carefully the German public employment bureaus, which are of unique interest and a great success.

VARIOUS COMMERCIAL, TRADE UNION, AND OTHER EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

These are of comparatively recent origin, and though rapidly coming to the front and already actually far in the lead in the number of situations they secure, they are yet in numbers relatively few. The appendix to the voluminous report concerning unemployment made to the Reichstag by the Labor Department of the Imperial German Statistical Office in 1906 gives the following statistics of the different kinds of employment bureaus in the Empire reporting to its statistical office:

NUMBER AND KIND OF EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN GERMANY AND TOTAL AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF SITUATIONS SECURED.

Kind of employment bureau.	Number.	Situations secured.	
		Total.	Average.
Guild.....	2,400	213,000	89
Trade union.....	1,000	120,000	120
Public.....	400	550,000	1,375
"Paritätische".....	60	51,000	850
Commercial.....	60	25,000	416
Employers.....	30	230,000	7,667
Agricultural chambers.....	11	50,000	4,545

It will be seen that the public bureaus, though only 400 in number, find by far the largest number of situations. They average 1,375 for each bureau, while all the other bureaus together average only 193 situations found.

It is true that the employers' bureaus average more situations found, but there are only 30 of those and they have but a limited sphere, being mainly bureaus maintained by associations of employers in a few industries as a means of combating the trade unions. The bureaus of the agricultural chambers also average more situations found, but these are still fewer in number, only 11 for the Empire, and all mainly found in East Prussia, where there is a constant scarcity of rural labor.

The so-called "guild" bureaus are the most numerous, but place the smallest number of persons, an average of only 89. The bureaus are often quite inactive but are maintained by law, somewhat as an inheritance from past conditions, in the hope of strengthening the small industries (*Handwerk*) against the large factory industries. The trade union bureaus are next largest in number and, as their

name implies, are bureaus established by the trade unions to find employment for their members, and are largely, though not wholly, confined, each bureau to some especial trade. The "Paritätische" bureaus, as later explained, are bureaus often in connection with the public bureaus, and usually for special trades under the control of committees where employers and employees are equal in number (on a parity). They deserve considerable study. The commercial bureaus are mainly for clerks, travelers, etc.

It should be noted that the ordinary private bureaus conducted for profit, of which there are many in Germany, are not included in this list. Besides these there are also various special bureaus for particular classes of persons, for those released from prisons, reservists, cripples, etc., and also bureaus connected with particular institutions, like labor colonies, workingmen's shelters, etc., which will be considered under their respective heads, but some of which do an important work.

In Germany, as in other countries, some of the private bureaus for gain are much criticised. Registration fees are of course demanded by such bureaus, usually from both employers and domestics, ranging from 50 pfennigs (12 cents) to 2 marks (48 cents). Fees for providing situations are usually 25 per cent of the first month's wages, sometimes as high, approximately, as \$12, while those who pay more get the first chance. The bureaus are run usually with small regard to equity, simply for the profit that can be made, some of the large bureaus making about \$7,500 per year. Much of their work is absolutely fraudulent, sending girls here and there on hopeless errands, simply to extort a fee from the girls, who hope to find situations. It is said that at Munich, as much as 100,000 marks (\$23,800) annually is taken directly in fraudulent ways.

The bureaus are seriously condemned for lending themselves to the furtherance of immorality. It is for this reason in large part that Germany is turning to her public employment bureaus.

The only bureaus that at all successfully compete with the public bureaus are the trade union bureaus, although even these, which at first were loudly championed by the Social Democrats as against the public bureaus, are steadily going down before the public bureaus; in not a few instances, they are either being merged in the public bureaus or are turned over by the unions themselves to be managed, usually as Paritätische bureaus. In a number of cities the trade union bureaus are still very active, in connection with the great trade union headquarters and often are well organized, and conducted in a business way. They are influential and important out of proportion to their numbers. No one can visit the great trade union centers (*Arbeiterhaus*) of Berlin, Hamburg, and other large German

cities without realizing the importance of such centers. Some of the headquarters of the German trade unions are as well appointed and as thoroughly organized as many large American commercial institutions. English and American trade unions have generally no conception of the extent and efficiency of many of these German labor centers. As a result, indirectly and directly through their employment bureaus, these trade unions find employment for a considerable number of men. Apart, however, from this effectiveness the union bureaus do not present any unique points of interest.

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

As known in Germany, the public employment bureau means a bureau for finding work for men and women in any department of trade or occupation, usually without charge, or at the most for a nominal fee. The bureau is maintained by some public organization or committee and usually and increasingly maintained, or at least subsidized, by the municipality, the county, or the State. The bureaus are therefore not all municipal, though in most instances even when not municipal, they are so largely subsidized and strictly controlled by the municipality that the difference becomes small.

The municipal bureaus are more prevalent in southern Germany. Berlin's public bureau is maintained by a voluntary association, but receives a large subsidy from the city and is largely under municipal supervision. Some of the bureaus are controlled by associations composed of employers and employees equally, but are wholly supported and subsidized by the municipal authorities.

The history of the development of these bureaus is of great interest. The first employment bureau of this kind was begun in Stuttgart in 1865, by a workmen's improvement society. Meeting with success, other societies of various natures joined with the workmen's society and the bureau was maintained and managed by a committee of these societies. Still growing and succeeding, in 1895 it became the Stuttgart municipal employment bureau. It is still considered by many, at least in proportion to the size of the city, the best organized and most efficient public employment bureau of Germany. The example of Stuttgart was followed in Cologne by the establishment of a similar employment bureau in 1874, which in 1894 became the Cologne municipal employment bureau. Berlin moved in this direction in 1883, Hanover in 1889, Dusseldorf in 1890, Karlsruhe in 1891, and Freiburg in 1892. All these commenced in various ways, as public bureaus, but almost all of them later became municipal bureaus. Five such public or municipal bureaus were established in 1893, 8 in 1894, 23 in 1895, 12 in 1896, 8 in 1897, 9 in

1898, 9 in 1899, 11 in 1900, 5 in 1901, and 2 in 1902. By 1904 there were 136 such bureaus and in 1907 the number was reported as 400 in Germany, alone, without counting several in German Austria, Switzerland, and elsewhere. Not all of these, however, are active; only some 150 are of large importance.

Not a few of the public bureaus are as a matter of fact actually dead, though this is true mainly of the smaller bureaus.

In 1898 a voluntary association of such bureaus was established for the Empire, the Verband Deutscher Arbeitsnachweis. There are also subsidiary but even more important associations for northern, middle, and southern Germany. These associations maintain a monthly publication called *The Labor Market*. This organ serves to unite the different bureaus into one working system. It reports successful developments by one bureau which may be copied by others, and also the general condition of the labor market and the opportunities for employment to be found in different sections or portions of the Empire, and, to an extent, of Europe.

This reporting of opportunities for employment is, however, much more efficiently carried out by the subsidiary associations; the bureaus are closely knit together by telephones and other means of communication, so that each bureau receives information, usually daily, stating the needs for labor from all bureaus of the section, while the facts are posted in each local bureau. One of the most effective of these sectional unions is the *Mitteldeutsche Arbeitsnachweis Verband* with headquarters in Frankfort on the Main.

Bavaria has what is in many ways the best organized system of the Empire, because there is here a single organization covering the whole Kingdom, not merely, as elsewhere, federations of separate bureaus.

To Wurttemberg belongs the honor of organizing the first State system of employment bureaus. September 15, 1895, a decree of the Ministry of the Interior ordered the 16 public employment bureaus then organized in Wurttemberg to be connected in one system with Stuttgart as the central station and to report in a uniform manner twice a week (since 1898, three times a week, from March to November) all opportunities for employment which they were not able to fill. The list of these opportunities is then prepared and sent the same night to every place in Wurttemberg of over 2,000 inhabitants to be there posted by the authorities. The expenses, amounting to about \$2,500 per year, are met by the State treasury. The State railways grant to all workmen seeking work a 50 per cent reduction on third-class fare (making it about half a cent per mile), provided that orders for this are given the workmen by the employment bureaus. Stuttgart in 1904 gave out 1,960 such orders. The results have been most satisfactory.

OPERATIONS OF THE STUTTGART EMPLOYMENT BUREAU FOR THE YEARS
1896 AND 1904.

Year.	Applications for—		Situations secured.
	Help.	Situations.	
1896.....	19,737	21,394	13,112
1904.....	49,292	50,566	30,705

In 1904 the bureau was able to fill 74.3 per cent of the applications for help and 67 per cent of the applications for situations (in the woman's part 83.6 per cent). The operation of the system in the smaller towns is less satisfactory, but the State is planning to make it more effective and extensive.

Bavaria has followed in the main the same course as Wurttemberg, though in some ways improving upon the Wurttemberg system. The Bavarian Government as early as 1894 urged the establishing of communal employment bureaus and their union into one system. In 1895 the Munich labor bureau took up the plan in earnest, and there are now in Bavaria, organized in somewhat the same way as in Wurttemberg, 68 communal employment bureaus (the labor bureaus of the different communes), with the Munich bureau as the center of the whole, and seven subsidiary centers. The expenses are met by the local communes for their bureaus, the Government meeting only the interbureau expenses. It is widely thought in Bavaria that the Government must meet more of the expenses, because some of the local communes are not sufficiently active.

The Grand Duchy at Baden has a different system, and one which some think the best of all. Of her 13 public employment bureaus, only 5 are communal (or municipal), but they are all connected, as in Wurttemberg, with Karlsruhe as the center, and the State gives a considerable subsidy toward their support. In Baden the central bureau is also in connection with an unusually large number of subsidiary relief stations, so that the knowledge of situations is rapidly communicated over the whole State.

These are the principal States in Germany where the States have been active as States, but considerable public interest is taken in the public employment bureaus all over the Empire.

Great friendly rivalry exists among the bureaus. Conferences of managers and committees in charge of them are held from time to time.

One reason of the effectiveness of the bureaus and also the large interest taken in them is the weight and the character of the committees in charge of them. The most prominent men serve on these committees. The different bureaus are variously organized, but it is characteristic of all that the committees are important.

In Berlin, for example, besides the special trade committees, composed equally of employers and employees, there is a general committee in charge of the bureau made up of some of the foremost men in Berlin. Among the members may be found six city councilors; two aldermen; three members of the Advisory Council; two professors, one of whom is a member of the Royal Council; three judges in trade disputes; a member of the Prussian Supreme Council and of the Royal Statistical Bureau; a chief burgomaster emeritus; a councilor of the Admiralty and consulting counsel in the Imperial Marine Office; a director of the Statistical Bureau of Berlin; the Spanish consul-general; a director of the General Electric Company; the publisher of the Berlin Tageblatt; a member of the Privy Council and counsel in the Imperial Ministry of the Interior; a director in the Imperial Statistical Office.

The membership of the trade committee of the bureau is composed of the elected representatives of organizations of labor and of capital, as follows: Representatives of the employers: A manufacturer, a hat maker, a factory owner, city councilor, and treasurer, and a merchant. Representatives of the employees: A metal stamper, a molder, a printer, and a clerk.

The following is the composition of the committee in charge of the Frankfort bureau, made up of an equal number of representatives of labor and of capital: Employers: An agriculturist, a machine manufacturer, a tailor, a carpenter, a roofer, and a confectioner. Employees: A glazier, a mason, a tailor, a docker, a shoemaker, and a compositor.

The composition of the Cologne employment bureau is as follows: An architect, an alderman, a painter, a manufacturer, a shoemaker, saddler, carpenter, turner, president of the chamber of trade of Cologne, baker, butcher, and two restaurant keepers. All of the above represent the employing class and most of them are the official representatives of the organizations of their crafts. Besides these, however, there are on the committee an equal number of the representatives of labor, a carpenter (representing a Catholic trade union), a turner (representing a Protestant labor union), two labor secretaries of Catholic trade unions, a dry-goods clerk and member of the Catholic union, a carpenter, a trade-union official, a secretary of the Socialist party, a labor secretary, two waiters, a sculptor, and a secretary of a Christian trade union.

The above are perhaps representative organizations of the committees in charge of the larger German public employment bureaus, with the exception that Cologne, being a strongly Roman Catholic city, representatives of Catholic labor organizations are especially prominent on the committee. The bureaus are variously appointed in different cities in other ways. In Frankfort the burgomaster or mayor nominates the president of the committee, in Elberfeld a

committee of the arbitration court manages the bureau, in Munich the president of the arbitration courts is also president of the bureau, in Nuremberg the bureau is under the superintendence of the advisory council of the city, in Breslau the head of the bureau is a member of the city council.

Perhaps the most important feature of the organization of the bureaus and of the composition of the committees in charge of them is that the bureaus are in almost all cases controlled by representatives of the employing and employed classes in equal numbers. As stated previously, this is considered so important that they have used or adapted the word "Paritätische" to express the idea, and so universally is this characteristic found that the "Paritätische bureau" is the term very frequently used to denominate a public employment bureau.

The Statistical Year Book of German Cities for 1907 gives the following table concerning the organization of many of the principal municipal employment bureaus in 1904:

ORGANIZATION OF PRINCIPAL MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF GERMANY, 1904.

City bureau.	Persons composing committee.			Presiding officer.	Members chosen by—			Term of service (years).
	City officials.	Employers.	Employees.		Municipality.	Trade court.	Both.	
Augsburg.....	1	4	4	Advisory councilor.....	Yes.			3
Bochum.....	(a)	(a)	(a)					(b)
Brunswick.....	1	4	4	President of trade court.....		Yes.		2
Breslau.....	1	7	7	City councilor.....	7	8	Yes.	3
Cassel.....	1	3	3	Advisory councilor.....		Yes.		6
Charlottenburg.....	5	5	5	Advisory councilor.....	10			6
Chemnitz.....	2	2	2	Advisory councilor.....	^c 4	^c 4		(b)
Crefeld.....		2	2	President of trade court.....	Yes.			2
Dantzig.....	(a)	(a)	(a)	City councilor.....				(b)
Dortmund.....	1	4	2	City councilor.....	Yes.			2
Duisburg.....	1	4	4	Chief burgomaster.....	Yes.			(b)
Elberfeld.....		6	6	President of trade court.....		Yes.		3
Erfurt.....	1	3	3	Advisory councilor.....	Yes.			3
Essen.....	^d 1	4	4	Chief burgomaster.....	(e)			6
Frankfurt on the Main.....	1	6	6	City councilor.....	(f)			2
Frankfurt on the Oder.....	1	3	3	Advisory councilor.....	2	4	Yes.	3
Freiburg.....	1	3	3	Burgomaster.....	Yes.			3
Königsberg.....	1	8	7	Advisory councilor.....		Yes.		3
Magdeburg.....		5	5	Advisory councilor.....	4	6	Yes.	3
Mentz.....	3	4	4	Burgomaster.....	Yes.			(g)
Mulhausen.....	1	5	5	Burgomaster.....	Yes.			(h)
Munich.....	1	3	3	Advisory councilor.....	3	3	Yes.	3
Nuremberg.....	5	4	4	Advisory councilor.....	Yes.			3
Posen.....	(a)	(a)	(a)					(b)
Potsdam.....	2	3	3	City councilor.....		Yes.		4
Rixdorf.....	3	7	2	City councilor.....	Yes.			1
Schöneberg.....	1	3	3	City councilor.....	Yes.			2
Stettin.....	1	5	5	City councilor.....	4	6	Yes.	3
Strassburg.....	1	10	10	Official.....	11	(f)		5
Stuttgart.....	2	4	4	Communal councilor.....	Yes.			3
Wurzburg.....	1	3	3	City assessor.....	3	3	Yes.	3

^a City officials only.

^b Not reported.

^c The total of these figures does not agree with the total of persons composing the committee; the figures are given as shown in the Statistical Year Book of German Cities for 1907.

^d And 4 members who are neither employers nor employees.

^e Named by chief burgomaster.

^f Half the number elected by employers and half by employees.

^g For term of their official office.

^h Men for three years and women for two years.

ⁱ Ten members elected by trade unions.

These details of the organization of the managing committees of the bureaus are given because they show the extent to which employers and employees are equally represented on the committees. This is true, as will be seen from the above table, of 25 out of the 28 municipal bureaus not exclusively managed by the public authorities.

In many cities these "Paritätische" committees are chosen in part by the municipal governments, in part elected by organizations of employers, and in part by the trade unions or organizations of labor of some kind, so that they become not only representatives of their class, but official representatives elected by their class. Such bureaus, therefore, are really official and strictly representative, whether or not technically municipal. In most cases, however, they are technically municipal, or soon become so, even if originally privately founded. It is considered of prime importance that they be controlled and managed by representative committees in which labor and capital can have equal confidence. They are therefore absolutely and fundamentally democratic.

It is for this reason that, although the trade unionists of Germany commenced by opposing and usually bitterly denouncing the public employment bureaus, they now increasingly make use of them and have their representatives on the committees in charge of them. In many cases also the unions which formerly maintained employment bureaus of their own for their different crafts have handed over these bureaus to the public bureaus to be maintained as distinct portions of the public bureaus, usually as "Paritätische" trade branches of the public bureaus.

The bureaus undertake in general to find places for the unemployed of all classes, both men and women. Some of the smaller mainly find places for women. Generally speaking, in Germany the demand for women as workers is more than for men in proportion to the supply. The bureaus are, in all cases, divided into departments, which are quite distinct, at least for men and women, and in almost all cases also for the skilled and the unskilled, the common laborer and the artisan. Even the smallest of the bureaus have usually at least these distinct departments, while many of the large bureaus have a large number of departments, according to the various trades which are prominent in the city in which the bureau is situated.

In Berlin, for example, there are some 28 different departments of the bureau, 19 for men and 9 for women. In the division for men there is a department for the unskilled, (*a*) for the older men, and (*b*) for the younger; departments for painters, locksmiths, tinsmiths, bookbinders, paperhangers, leather workers, stucco and kalsomine workers, roofers, machinists, butchers, city employees, bakers, glaziers, woodworkers, elevator men, etc., with branch offices also at Rummelsburg and Reinickendorf.

The women's division is divided into departments for general workers, city employees, laundresses, undergarment workers, bookbinders, domestic servants, and juveniles, with branch offices at Rummelsburg and Reinickendorf.

The Berlin public employment bureau is the largest bureau in Germany, and no other bureau has so many departments, though some, like the Munich bureau, approximate to this. The list, however, indicates the extent to which the public employment bureaus reach or attempt to reach all classes of workers.

In all the bureaus there are separate offices or rooms for each department, even the smallest bureaus having at least a distinct room or office for men and women. The offices for the men and women have different entrances, although usually in the same building. Berlin has several buildings. Most of the bureaus, although all centrally situated and often occupying considerable space, are not as a rule in particularly attractive buildings. The employment bureau of Stuttgart, the oldest and in proportion to its size among the most successful, is housed in a very unpretentious and almost insignificant building. The employment bureau of Nuremberg occupies the site of the old municipal prisons, but the building in itself is not particularly attractive. Munich has a large rambling building, which occupies considerable space but is not of any architectural pretensions. The Frankfort bureau, among the oldest and most effective of all the bureaus, is centrally located but is in particularly cramped and unfortunate quarters. The reason for this is stated to be that when the Frankfort bureau was originally established it was vehemently and even bitterly denounced by the Socialists, who in Frankfort are particularly strong. When it was proposed in the city council to make an appropriation to secure offices for the bureau it was said by the opposition "why should we vote much money to create an institution for the workingmen which they themselves do not want, or even oppose." It was, therefore, necessary to commence with a very small appropriation, which limitation has not yet been wholly overcome. The bureau was located in an antiquated building, dark and poorly adapted to its purpose, and in that building it has remained. As the bureau has grown some improvements have been made and extensions are even now being carried on. In spite of this practical handicap the bureau has been so successful that opposition to it by the Socialists is steadily fading away and it is used by large numbers of workingmen.

In general, the bureaus may be said to consist of a room or rooms for the management and separate rooms for employees seeking work and for employers seeking help. The two classes practically never come together at the bureaus, with the exception of the departments

for women and for domestic servants. As a rule, indeed, the employers do not go to the employment bureaus at all. All the bureaus have telephones and the employers usually either write or telephone to the bureau concerning their needs, and the bureau sends them applicants whom they consider will best meet their needs. If the applicant is not satisfactory the bureau sends other applicants until the need is met. The statistics show the large success in meeting these needs. For the employees the bureaus usually have large waiting rooms, in some cases various waiting rooms for the different classes of workmen. Almost invariably, even in the smaller bureaus, there are separate waiting rooms for the skilled and unskilled, and in every case separate rooms for the men and women. In most cases there are some conveniences for the waiting applicants, usually opportunity to read papers, to smoke, sometimes to play games. Almost always there are tables where the men or women can eat luncheon which they have brought, and in not a few cases there is provided a simple buffet where cheap luncheons or at least beer or coffee can be obtained at very low and usually at cost price.

Following is a statement of the sales at the buffet of the Berlin employment bureau in 1906:

- 12,113 cups coffee with milk and sugar, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
- 15,361 cups milk, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
- 2,082 bottles weisbier, at 10 pfennigs (2.4 cents).
- 57,855 liters (61,135 quarts) lager beer, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents) for each 0.2 liter (0.21 quart).
- 42,072 portions of dry bread, at 2½ pfennigs (0.6 cent).
- 28,127 portions bread with butter, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
- 13,228 stullen (cakes) with butter, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
- 50,420 pieces sausage, at 10 pfennigs (2.4 cents).
- 20,244 cigars, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
- 5,285 cigars, at 3 for 10 pfennigs (2.4 cents).
- 38,420 cigarettes, at 1 pfennig (0.2 cent).
- 4,220 cups cocoa, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
- 1,753 bottles of seltzer water, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).

When the bureau receives a call for workmen in some trade, the manager goes into the waiting room, calls out the nature of the occupation, and summons to the inner office those who consider themselves able to fill the situation, or at least a certain number of such. In the inner room he examines their papers, asks their experience, and tries to select the applicant or applicants most likely to meet the needs of the prospective employer. In a few bureaus the applicants are sent in the order of their application, although this is not the general rule. Usually it is left to the discretion of the manager to select the applicant according to his best judgment, and on the successful doing of this largely depends the success of the bureau. In all the bureaus when application for work is made the applicant is required to fill

out forms or at least to answer certain questions, as to his age, birth, residence, experience, qualifications, last place of occupation, reasons for being out of work, condition as to being married or single, having children or not, recommendations, etc. In some bureaus, notably the bureau at Berlin, the applicant is given a book which he has to sign and which he must bring every day to the bureau until he finds work. For this he makes a nominal payment or registration fee of 20 pfennigs (5 cents), which is considered by most an important part of the conduct of the bureau. Being nominal, the charge amounts to little and, it is claimed, tends to enhance the value of the bureau. Nevertheless, most of the bureaus are absolutely free.

One of the important characteristics of the bureaus is the economical and yet effective way in which they are conducted. Cologne employs 4 men and 2 women and Leipzig 3 men and 1 woman; yet with this small staff they each do successful work. The result is that the expense is small. In Cologne, in 1904, the expense was only about 8 cents for each of 28,200 positions filled and in Leipzig it was only about 11 cents for each of 20,344 positions filled.^(a)

The cost for each position secured naturally decreases with the growth of the bureau. For example, the cost for each situation found by the Frankfort bureau in 1896 was 1 mark 8 pfennigs (26 cents) for 10,475 places filled. By 1905 it had fallen to 55 pfennigs (13 cents) for 37,896 places filled.

The following statement is given of the budgets of the public employment bureaus of Cologne, Berlin, and Munich to show the nature of their income and expenses:

INCOME AND EXPENDITURES OF COLOGNE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU,
JULY 1, 1906, TO JUNE 30, 1907.

Income.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
In treasury.....	\$170.89	Rent of offices.....	\$333.20
Appropriation from city.....	2,380.00	Heating and care of offices.....	91.85
Allowance from municipal building commission.....	112.03	Gas and electric lighting.....	37.12
Payment from city bureau for insurance against unemployment in winter.....	165.29	Supplies.....	28.99
Payment from city bureau of information of houses to rent.....	122.03	Periodicals.....	9.78
		Telephone.....	30.22
		Advertisements and notices.....	137.37
		Printing and binding.....	77.77
		Annual report.....	64.74
		Postage.....	24.59
		Travelling and miscellaneous expenses..	18.23
		Sick and invalid insurance.....	38.12
		Salaries.....	1,908.37
		In treasury.....	149.89
Total.....	2,950.24	Total.....	2,950.24

^a See Réorganisation de la Bourse du Travail, by Louis Varlez. Ghent, 1906. pp. 23, 24.

ESTIMATED INCOME AND EXPENDITURES OF BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU FOR 1908.

Income.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
Annual contributions.....	\$1,785.00	Rent of offices.....	\$6,692.56
Subvention appropriation from city.....	14,280.00	Salaries.....	9,688.98
Registration fees.....	4,165.00	Payment for various services.....	680.68
Profits from canteen.....	1,666.00	Telephone.....	345.10
Interest on cash on hand.....	178.50	Printing.....	714.00
Appropriation from trade unions for trade union employment bureaus.....	708.05	Postage.....	142.80
Payment from suburban communes.....	95.20	Advertisements and notices.....	714.60
Subrentals.....	1,796.90	Heating.....	1,666.00
Fees from placing painters' assistants outside the city.....	142.80	Gas and water.....	190.40
Fees from bureau for domestics.....	476.00	Cleaning, including materials.....	833.00
		Window cleaning.....	154.70
		Repairs.....	154.79
		Workshops.....	142.80
		Sewerage.....	119.00
		Municipal and ground tax.....	547.40
		Sickness, insurance, and other incidentals.....	1,132.88
		For enlargement of bureau for domestics.....	1,071.00
		Extension of trade employment bureaus and other branches.....	303.45
Total.....	25,293.45	Total.....	25,293.45

INCOME AND EXPENDITURES OF MUNICH PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, 1906.

Income.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
Carried over from 1905.....	\$338.00	Salaries, wages, and insurance for staff and employees (8 men and 8 women).....	\$8,106.02
Appropriation from the Royal Ministry of the Interior.....	1,332.80	Cost of administration and office.....	1,028.78
Cost to the city.....	9,005.38	Furnishing.....	460.28
		Heating.....	287.74
		Lighting.....	151.75
		Cleaning.....	346.29
		Rent of branches.....	154.70
		Appropriation for agricultural exposition at Nuremberg.....	43.00
Total.....	10,576.18	Total.....	10,576.18

^a The expenditures here shown are the equivalents of the amounts given in the original, where the total is 10 marks (\$2.38) less than the sum of the items; the discrepancy can not be located.

It will be seen in all these bureaus, and the rule is general throughout Germany, that while the expenditure is met primarily by the municipality or private association maintaining the bureau, they all receive public aid. Practically all the German States give aid to the bureaus, either directly to individual bureaus or to the different federations of the bureaus. Since 1902 the Imperial Government has given a grant (in 1903 of about \$14,600) to the General Federation of Employment Bureaus.

This State aid and public recognition has been a great asset and cause of growth, as is seen in the statistics of a few of the principal bureaus.

The following table, giving the number of positions secured for male persons from 1883 to 1906, shows the growth of the Berlin bureau and the extent to which it is being made use of by new trades and occupations. It will be seen from the table that some of the

trades, like those of the masons and shoemakers, have used the bureau and then for one reason or another have dropped out. On the whole, however, the steady growth of the bureau is apparent.

SITUATIONS SECURED FOR MALES BY THE BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU (NOT INCLUDING BRANCHES), BY OCCUPATIONS, 1888-1893 TO 1906.

Occupations.	1888 to 1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.
Unskilled.....	64,532	6,975	9,382	11,318	12,693	14,533	19,976
Painters.....		1,583	3,655	4,630	5,354	5,476	6,712
Locksmiths.....			1,071	1,483	1,569	1,361	862
Tinsmiths.....			875	1,300	1,068	871	708
Agricultural laborers.....				73	104		
Masons.....			230				
Shoemakers.....				226	179		
Paper hangers.....							
City employes.....							
Bookbinders.....							
Leather workers.....							
Stucco workers.....							
Roofers.....							
Machinists and heaters.....							
Butchers.....							
Bakers.....							
Glaziers.....							
Wood workers.....							
Elevator tenders.....							
Apprentices.....							
Total.....	64,532	8,568	15,213	19,030	20,967	22,241	28,258

Occupations.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Unskilled.....	26,593	15,929	16,859	25,282	33,990	40,058	41,768
Painters.....	7,696	5,948	7,307	6,900	8,834	8,461	7,408
Locksmiths.....	1,455	1,342	1,757	2,456	3,122	3,368	2,460
Tinsmiths.....	715	618	681	592	808	1,007	1,007
Agricultural laborers.....							
Masons.....							
Shoemakers.....							
Paper hangers.....		691	1,631	2,171	2,279	2,584	2,866
City employes.....				2,144	1,803	2,153	1,695
Bookbinders.....				1,013	1,243	1,263	1,482
Leather workers.....				204	423	487	378
Stucco workers.....				451	1,292	1,319	1,008
Roofers.....				345	687	438	330
Machinists and heaters.....				170	701	702	562
Butchers.....				42	129	32	
Bakers.....					1,728	3,566	3,299
Glaziers.....					651	2,074	961
Wood workers.....						11,319	17,163
Elevator tenders.....						13	69
Apprentices.....							101
Total.....	36,459	24,528	28,235	41,770	57,630	78,844	82,557

The figures show, with occasional setbacks, a steady normal growth, and in recent years the constant adhesion of new trades. How great has been the recent growth is seen in the following table:

TOTAL APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP, AND TOTAL SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, 1902 TO 1906.

Year.	Applications for—		Situations secured.
	Situations.	Help.	
1902.....	42,829	37,935	30,534
1903.....	74,541	60,691	46,616
1904.....	99,874	90,499	67,017
1905.....	137,025	128,249	92,190
1906.....	156,817	134,474	99,557

For the three years, 1904 to 1906, the following table gives the facts in more detail:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, BY SEX AND OCCUPATIONS, 1904 TO 1906.

Occupations.	Applications for situations.					
	Total.			Without fees.		
	1904.	1905.	1906.	1904.	1905.	1906.
MALES.						
General bureau for unskilled:						
Older men	37,902	44,587	46,135	6,928	8,038	8,305
Younger men	12,951	13,555	14,331	293	292	266
Painters	11,814	11,972	11,667	2,046	2,065	1,687
Locksmiths	5,167	5,169	4,119			
Tinsmiths	1,540	1,642	1,854	47	74	87
Paper hangers	3,531	4,026	4,587	309	329	302
Bookbinders	2,671	2,615	2,859	2,453	2,439	2,681
Leather workers	604	737	542	438	561	480
Stucco workers	2,472	3,248	3,185	40	116	111
Roofers	1,540	676	534	25		
Machinists	1,135	1,442	1,509	806	1,067	1,112
Butchers	449	92				
City employees	1,247	709	380	1,247	709	380
Bakers	2,885	4,046	4,609	725	1,570	1,595
Glaziers	756	2,758	1,586	11	49	40
Wood workers		20,291	36,478		20,291	36,478
Elevator tenders		38	227			
Rummelsburg branch	1,718	2,643	1,577	1,718	2,643	1,577
Reinickendorf branch	397	1,264	1,125	397	1,264	1,125
Apprentices			376			376
Total males	88,779	122,110	137,680	17,543	41,507	56,002
FEMALES.						
General bureau	6,479	9,494	12,863	672	1,741	2,813
Workers for city	36	15	6	36	15	6
Laundresses	1,103	1,593	1,750	487	939	1,146
Undergarment makers	40	89	76		3	
Bureau for younger women	430	501	513	430	501	513
Bookbinders	2,873	2,443	2,738	2,444	2,015	2,336
Housemaids		612	1,047		612	1,047
Rummelsburg branch	111	123	125	111	123	125
Reinickendorf branch	23	45	19	23	45	19
Total females	11,095	14,915	19,137	4,203	5,994	8,005
Grand total	99,874	137,025	156,817	21,476	47,501	64,607
Per cent of gain over previous years:						
Males	31.0	37.6	12.8	42.6	137.1	36.4
Females	64.0	34.4	28.3	90.3	42.6	33.5
Total	34.0	37.2	14.4	50.0	121.2	36.0

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, BY SEX AND OCCUPATIONS, 1904 TO 1906—Concluded.

Occupations.	Applications for help.			Situations secured.		
	1904.	1905.	1906.	1904.	1905.	1906.
MALES.						
General bureau for unskilled:						
Older men.....	26,627	32,898	34,167	23,550	29,147	30,324
Younger men.....	13,814	16,343	15,688	10,350	10,911	11,444
Painters.....	15,362	16,742	12,178	8,834	8,461	7,408
Locksmiths.....	3,511	3,799	2,580	3,122	3,368	2,460
Tinsmiths.....	1,120	1,439	1,349	808	1,007	1,007
Paper hangers.....	3,633	3,935	3,324	2,279	2,584	2,866
Bookbinders.....	1,570	1,656	2,175	1,243	1,263	1,482
Leather workers.....	475	528	481	423	487	378
Stucco workers.....	1,500	1,571	1,185	1,292	1,319	1,008
Roofers.....	823	661	515	687	438	330
Machinists.....	822	839	781	701	702	562
Butchers.....	176	43	129	32
City employees.....	1,884	2,459	2,112	1,903	2,153	1,685
Bakers.....	1,752	3,614	3,337	1,728	3,506	3,289
Glaziers.....	800	2,398	1,108	651	2,074	961
Wood workers.....	17,046	25,610	11,319	17,163
Elevator tenders.....	32	134	13	69
Rummelsburg branch.....	1,175	1,640	1,179	891	1,217	972
Reinickendorf branch.....	324	1,142	1,082	228	780	846
Apprentices.....	272	101
Total males.....	75,428	108,785	109,716	58,749	80,847	84,375
FEMALES.						
General bureau.....	8,701	10,650	13,953	4,854	7,272	10,380
Workers for city.....	80	79	58	43	56	50
Laundresses.....	1,443	1,792	2,087	910	1,397	1,614
Undergarment makers.....	227	183	346	29	52	56
Bureau for younger women.....	1,045	769	836	280	330	356
Bookbinders.....	3,423	3,149	3,635	2,086	1,675	1,799
Housemaids.....	2,575	3,629	432	808
Rummelsburg branch.....	99	162	155	55	97	112
Reinickendorf branch.....	53	105	59	11	32	12
Total females.....	15,071	19,464	24,758	8,268	11,343	15,182
Grand total.....	90,499	128,249	134,474	67,017	92,190	99,557
Percent of gain over previous years:						
Males.....	44.8	44.2	0.9	40.6	37.6	4.4
Females.....	75.0	29.1	27.2	70.6	37.2	33.8
Total.....	49.1	41.7	4.8	43.8	37.6	8.0

The Cologne bureau shows an equally steady growth.

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE COLOGNE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, BY SEX, 1894 TO 1907.

Year ending June 30—	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Help.			Situations.			Male.	Female.	Total.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.			
1895 (a).....	3,663	1,790	5,453	6,509	1,541	8,050	3,477	680	4,357
1896.....	7,022	4,490	11,512	8,729	3,879	13,608	6,856	3,199	10,055
1897.....	8,115	7,445	15,560	11,118	4,625	15,743	7,823	4,301	12,124
1898.....	11,038	9,394	20,432	14,423	5,241	19,664	10,026	5,070	15,096
1899.....	13,019	10,812	23,831	17,821	6,065	23,886	12,156	5,944	18,100
1900.....	16,499	11,200	27,699	23,856	6,638	30,494	15,536	6,405	21,941
1901.....	15,146	11,345	26,491	25,633	7,371	33,004	14,693	7,030	21,723
1902.....	12,835	10,691	23,526	32,431	8,005	40,436	12,480	7,784	20,264
1903.....	18,818	10,735	29,553	37,235	8,356	45,591	18,102	7,805	25,907
1904.....	20,509	11,191	31,700	36,835	8,474	45,309	20,076	8,124	28,200
1905.....	21,480	11,435	32,915	37,087	8,614	45,701	20,863	8,212	29,075
1906.....	23,270	11,968	35,238	35,989	8,889	44,878	22,163	8,306	30,469
1907.....	22,876	11,156	34,032	35,929	7,847	43,776	21,805	7,359	29,164

^a From the day of its opening, December 17, 1894, to June 30, 1895.

For Frankfort the following table shows the record of the activities of the public employment bureau absolutely and in proportion to the population for the different years:

NUMBER AND COST OF SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE FRANKFORT PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, 1895 TO 1905.

Year.	Population.	Situations secured.	Number of inhabitants to each situation secured.	Cost of situations secured.	
				Total.	Per situation.
1895.....	209,000	6,492	32.19		
1896.....	235,000	9,699	24.23	\$2,493.27	\$0.26
1897.....	242,000	12,455	19.43	2,645.04	.21
1898.....	250,000	15,297	16.34	3,028.94	.20
1899.....	256,000	18,655	13.72	3,323.89	.18
1900.....	266,000	20,881	12.74	3,817.43	.18
1901.....	280,000	22,072	12.69	3,783.48	.17
1902.....	302,000	25,352	11.91	3,869.01	.15
1903.....	309,000	29,216	10.58	4,172.83	.14
1904.....	318,000	34,050	9.34	4,624.78	.14
1905.....	336,000	37,896	8.87	4,937.64	.13

This shows not only a steady growth for the bureau, but a remarkable growth in situations secured in proportion to the growth of population.

Nor is it only the larger bureaus which have thus grown. The following shows the statistics for all the public bureaus in the Frankfort-Mainz circle of bureaus, including places large and small.

SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF THE FRANKFORT-MAINZ UNION, 1898 TO 1906.

Locality.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Frankfort on the Main.....	15,297	18,655	20,881	22,072	25,352	29,216	34,050	37,896	37,780
Mannheim.....			16,116	12,025	11,357	13,206	16,649	17,940	18,989
Wiesbaden.....	5,719	6,712	6,822	7,352	7,663	8,693	7,309	7,015	7,299
Mainz.....	3,647	5,242	5,980	5,456	5,549	5,774	7,561	8,805	8,638
Heidelberg.....					4,858	4,786	5,514	5,153	6,612
Darmstadt.....	2,336	2,413	2,363	2,259	2,262	2,988	3,646	3,548	3,787
Worms.....	1,426	1,975	1,738	2,075	3,211	3,607	3,613	3,248	3,767
Kreutznach.....		761	433	384	424	432	384	467	307
Offenbach.....	429	506	370	186	193	204	858	3,609	3,672
Giessen.....	197	104	80	76	386	616	559	556	634
Friedberg.....	146	153	216	220	200	208	250	327	479
Butzbach.....	62	47	78	98	50	41	23	29	32
Gr. Karben.....	87	72	66	187	108	147	72	157	172

The following shows the operations of the Munich public employment bureau:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE GENERAL DIVISION OF THE MUNICH PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU (NOT INCLUDING TRADE DIVISIONS), BY SEX, 1895 TO 1906.^(c)

Year.	Applications for—						Situations secured.			Per cent of situations secured of applications for—					
	Situations.			Help.			Male.	Female.	Total.	Situations.			Help.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.				Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1895 b.	6,712	2,949	9,661	1,352	1,287	2,639	1,127	838	1,965	16.8	28.4	20.3	83.4	65.1	74.5
1896 ..	32,355	14,653	47,008	16,725	13,332	30,057	15,653	9,933	25,586	48.3	67.8	54.4	93.6	74.5	85.1
1897 ..	25,540	15,462	41,002	20,572	13,880	34,452	18,186	10,669	28,855	71.2	69.0	70.4	88.4	76.9	83.7
1898 ..	36,151	18,843	54,994	23,393	15,598	38,991	20,439	11,897	32,336	56.5	63.1	58.8	87.4	76.3	82.9
1899 ..	30,505	19,967	50,472	28,145	21,235	49,380	25,179	14,308	39,487	82.5	71.7	78.2	89.5	67.4	80.0
1900 ..	30,788	23,569	54,357	28,919	25,479	54,398	26,356	18,142	44,498	85.6	77.0	81.9	91.1	71.2	81.8
1901 ..	42,912	30,395	73,307	27,203	29,353	56,556	24,358	20,815	45,173	56.8	68.5	61.6	89.5	70.9	79.9
1902 ..	39,634	28,807	68,441	25,094	27,525	52,619	21,171	19,342	40,513	53.4	67.1	59.2	84.4	70.3	77.0
1903 ..	35,599	29,849	65,448	26,253	30,357	56,610	22,109	20,063	42,172	62.1	67.2	64.4	84.2	66.1	74.5
1904 ..	34,558	31,200	65,758	30,179	33,909	64,088	25,680	21,142	46,822	74.3	67.8	71.2	85.1	62.3	76.2
1905 ..	33,421	32,086	65,507	31,239	36,747	67,986	27,317	22,161	49,478	81.7	69.1	75.5	87.4	60.3	72.8
1906 ..	35,674	32,418	68,092	34,348	37,642	71,990	29,658	24,015	53,673	83.1	74.1	78.8	86.3	63.8	74.6
Total.	383,849	280,198	664,047	293,422	286,344	579,766	257,233	193,325	450,558	67.0	69.0	67.9	87.7	67.5	77.7

^a Young girls just leaving school and applying for positions as general maids or nurse girls not included.

^b For November and December only.

This shows not only a remarkable growth, but also a large percentage of situations secured in proportion to those sought and offered.

Results for the whole of Bavaria are shown in the following table giving the operations of the Bavarian public employment bureaus from 1900 to 1906:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP, AND SITUATIONS SECURED, THROUGH THE BAVARIAN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, BY SEX, 1900 TO 1906.

Year.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Situations.			Help.			Male.	Female.	Total.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.			
1900.....	73,059	32,549	105,608	61,620	40,056	101,676	48,576	23,906	72,482
1901.....	120,500	48,561	169,061	60,553	51,659	112,212	46,992	29,886	76,878
1902.....	113,378	48,419	161,797	63,478	54,279	117,757	49,126	31,261	80,387
1903.....	93,838	51,478	145,316	70,188	56,528	126,716	53,906	34,450	88,356
1904.....	93,248	55,062	148,310	84,462	63,410	147,872	64,447	37,069	101,516
1905.....	90,930	55,451	146,381	86,690	66,523	153,213	66,776	38,945	105,721
1906.....	102,846	56,676	159,522	101,180	70,555	171,735	75,904	41,630	117,534

Of the 57 communal bureaus, however, in Bavaria in 1906, only 52 were active.

The following tables show the activities of the different bureaus in 1906, first by localities and then for each month:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BAVARIAN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, BY LOCALITIES, 1906.

Locality.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Situations.			Help.			Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.			
Amberg	19	1	20	119	10	129	15	15
Anspach	549	210	759	684	435	1,119	143	56	199
Aschaffenburg	54	54	83	83	51	51
Augsburg	7,250	4,265	11,515	7,375	5,330	12,705	6,943	2,520	9,463
Kissingen	20	18	38	43	33	76	13	3	16
Reichenhall	345	479	824	294	393	687	202	228	430
Bamberg	2,992	1,320	4,312	2,383	1,904	4,287	1,589	823	2,412
Baireuth	723	819	1,542	1,071	1,274	2,345	493	474	967
Berchtesgaden	113	276	389	169	373	542	74	159	233
Deggendorf	30	20	50	84	33	117	25	11	36
Dinkelsbühl	18	18	48	48	18	18
Eichstädt	19	7	26	33	13	46	10	2	12
Erlangen	336	1	337	165	2	167	87	1	88
Frankenthal	324	1	325	426	1	427	324	1	325
Fürth	3,064	1,282	4,346	2,597	1,773	4,370	1,722	960	2,682
Gunzenhausen	34	25	59	103	49	152	29	20	49
Hof	281	11	292	479	17	496	143	1	144
Ingolstadt	777	313	1,090	1,109	344	1,453	573	206	779
Kaiserslautern	6,670	329	6,999	5,751	439	6,190	4,367	256	4,623
Kempten	2,452	447	2,899	3,322	878	4,200	2,042	299	2,341
Kitzingen	155	1	156	68	1	69	59	1	60
Kronach	114	24	138	167	60	227	98	23	121
Kulmbach	430	17	447	446	41	487	231	12	243
Landau	145	145	115	115	35	35
Landsberg	344	11	355	472	33	505	238	6	244
Landshut	2,146	498	2,644	1,791	632	2,423	756	192	948
Lindau	1,329	179	1,508	1,624	204	1,828	1,289	154	1,443
Ludwigshafen	7,676	1,254	8,930	4,444	1,359	5,803	3,375	688	4,063
Redwitz	9	10	17	7	7	14	3	1	4
Mühldorf	518	88	606	606	129	735	323	58	381
Münchberg	38	1	39	78	5	83	24	24
Munich	35,674	32,418	68,092	34,348	37,642	71,990	29,658	24,015	53,673
Neumarkt	139	36	175	295	57	352	119	26	145
Neustadt-an-der-Hardt	84	84	149	149	84	84
Nördlingen	296	296	518	518	135	135
Nuremberg	10,299	5,146	15,445	11,844	7,914	19,758	9,878	4,940	14,818
Passau	62	8	70	328	4	332	60	60
Ratisbon	2,612	1,639	4,251	2,948	1,926	4,874	1,734	1,000	2,734
Rosenheim	6,181	1,455	7,636	4,610	1,662	6,272	2,581	1,090	3,671
Rothenburg-an-der-Tauber	125	1	126	198	16	214	98	1	99
Schwabach	24	24	8	8	4	4
Schweinfurt	550	550	442	442	418	418
Speyer	612	612	332	332	276	276
Strasbourg	2,326	777	3,103	2,568	912	3,480	1,924	597	2,521
Sulzbach	12	3	15	62	2	64	10	2	12
Tirschenreuth	470	1	471	71	9	80	75	2	77
Traunstein	355	155	510	441	142	583	279	93	372
Wasserburg	709	456	1,165	561	665	1,226	400	287	687
Weiden	410	346	756	463	455	918	143	178	321
Weissenburg	117	117	262	12	274	108	108
Wunsiedel	11	11	16	16	11	11
Würzburg	2,804	2,337	5,141	4,550	3,363	7,913	2,615	2,244	4,859
Total	102,846	56,676	159,522	101,180	70,555	171,735	75,904	41,630	117,534

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BAVARIAN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, BY MONTHS, 1906.

Month.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Situations.			Help.			Males.	Fe- males.	Total.
	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.			
January.....	7,151	4,698	11,849	5,744	5,907	11,651	4,524	3,270	7,794
February.....	7,462	4,180	11,642	6,370	5,237	11,607	5,125	2,993	8,118
March.....	8,322	5,129	13,451	8,586	7,053	15,644	5,957	3,796	9,753
April.....	8,545	4,657	13,202	9,448	6,453	15,901	6,318	3,445	9,763
May.....	9,811	5,175	14,986	10,291	6,664	16,955	7,359	3,741	11,100
June.....	8,090	4,467	12,557	8,766	6,426	15,192	6,061	3,484	9,545
July.....	9,911	4,603	14,514	9,908	5,731	15,639	7,165	3,398	10,565
August.....	9,667	4,551	14,218	10,071	6,370	16,441	7,432	3,522	10,954
September.....	9,523	5,176	15,299	10,181	7,421	17,602	7,458	4,421	11,879
October.....	9,789	6,149	15,938	9,521	5,796	15,317	7,508	4,295	11,863
November.....	7,571	4,203	11,774	6,147	3,945	10,092	5,362	2,938	8,300
December.....	7,004	3,088	10,092	6,147	3,547	9,694	5,575	2,327	7,902
Total.....	102,846	56,676	159,522	101,180	70,555	171,735	75,904	41,630	117,534

The large part played by these public employment bureaus in the whole Empire and in a few cities outside of Germany is seen by the following table of their activities in a single month. Owing to differences in methods of registration comparison as to number of applications for situations is not justified between one bureau and another. Some reports refer to persons applying and others to applications made, while all do not construe application in the same way. In some cases the number of recorded applications does not represent the total number of actual applications.

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, BY CITIES, NOVEMBER, 1907.

City.	Kind of bureau.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
		Help.			Situations.			Males.	Fe- males.	Total.
		Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.			
Memel.....	Municipal.....	19	77	96	29	81	110	19	59	78
Königsberg.....	Municipal.....	307	230	537	573	291	809	273	104	442
Dantzic.....	Municipal.....	186	19	205	601	23	624	167	13	180
Graudenz.....	Municipal.....	55	55	117	117	32	32
Posen.....	Municipal.....	575	1,213	1,788	1,442	859	2,301	530	814	1,344
Breslau.....	Municipal.....	682	737	1,419	1,067	577	1,644	572	504	1,076
Gleiwitz.....	Municipal.....	7	2	9	15	1	16
Liegnitz.....	Central.....	182	267	449	255	199	454	140	110	250
Glogau.....	Public.....	10	1	11	2	1	3	1	1	2
Hirschberg.....	Public.....	50	50	71	71	39	39
Görlitz.....	Domestic and farm.....	127	350	477	193	106	299	73	96	174
Stettin.....	Municipal.....	161	95	256	182	83	265	142	57	199
Eberswalde.....	Municipal and county.....	27	41	68	27	33	65	5	13	18
Frankfort on the Oder.....	Municipal.....	439	123	562	436	61	497	325	40	374
Rixdorf near Berlin.....	Municipal.....	152	60	212	543	77	620	151	55	206
Schöneberg near Berlin.....	Municipal.....	216	578	794	659	548	1,207	217	495	712
Charlottenburg.....	Municipal.....	440	160	600	810	215	1,025	365	118	483
	Branch for women domestics.....	628	628	569	569	266	266
Potsdam.....	Municipal.....	502	60	562	661	39	700	492	39	531
Brandenburg.....	Municipal.....	357	145	502	1,031	152	1,183	278	82	360

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, BY CITIES, NOVEMBER, 1907—Continued.

City.	Kind of bureau.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
		Help.			Situations.			Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
		Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.			
Luckenwalde.....	Municipal.....	213	108	321	219	82	301	164	72	336
Berlin.....	Municipal.....	5,726	2,039	7,766	10,910	2,380	13,290	5,250	1,478	6,728
Kiel.....	Public.....	1,070	138	1,208	1,903	160	2,063	791	76	867
Flensburg.....	Public.....	519	93	612	530	96	616	450	51	501
Husum.....	Public.....	302	37	339	206	30	236	146	5	151
Hamburg.....	Association.....	4,503	20	4,523	5,823	6	5,829	4,082	3	4,085
Magdeburg.....	Municipal.....	1,102	656	1,758	2,910	470	3,380	883	379	1,262
Halle on the Saale.....	Association.....	113	164	277	215	142	357	100	135	235
Weissenfels.....	Municipal.....	26	24	50	39	19	58	14	8	22
Aschersleben.....	Municipal.....	17	17	15	15	15	15
Quedlinburg.....	Municipal.....	654	654	476	476	304	304
Erfurt.....	Public.....	422	426	848	469	612	1,081	353	343	696
Mühlhausen in Thuringia.....	Municipal.....	28	28	94	94	27	27
Coburg.....	Municipal.....	70	4	74	70	6	76	21	1	22
Dresden.....	Central.....	931	2,222	3,153	1,283	2,146	3,429	905	2,089	2,994
Hildesheim.....	Municipal.....	115	115	219	219	72	72
Hanover.....	Municipal.....	872	124	996	2,263	142	2,405	690	58	738
Osnaabrug.....	Municipal.....	171	71	242	781	111	892	176	26	202
Delmenhorst.....	Municipal.....	37	14	51	173	13	191	25	6	31
Paderborn.....	Central.....	250	54	304	181	28	209	113	10	123
Bielefeld.....	Central.....	503	60	563	1,039	79	1,118	390	31	421
Münster.....	Association.....	231	61	292	380	36	416	161	27	188
Hagen.....	Municipal.....	145	145	87	87	65	65
Dortmund.....	Association.....	1,453	190	1,643	2,396	193	2,589	956	129	1,085
Herford.....	Association.....	424	117	541	496	59	555	315	36	351
Siegen.....	Municipal.....	48	48	50	1	51	14	14
Essen on the Ruhr.....	Municipal.....	258	330	588	441	257	698	201	165	366
Elberfeld.....	Municipal.....	512	137	649	938	134	1,072	481	91	572
Barmen.....	Public.....	641	165	806	872	161	1,033	548	147	695
Solingen.....	Guild.....	223	13	236	434	15	449	183	6	189
Dusseldorf.....	Public.....	2,738	472	3,210	3,770	510	4,280	2,660	435	3,095
	Women's association.....	105	105	251	251	81	81
Duisburg.....	Municipal.....	85	85	43	43	10	10
Rheidt.....	Municipal.....	124	108	232	38	11	49	47	16	63
Neuss.....	Municipal.....	42	25	67	49	16	65	31	13	44
Oberhausen.....	Municipal.....	7	7	82	82	10	10
Cologne.....	Public.....	1,350	640	1,990	2,572	580	3,152	1,265	518	2,783
	Association.....	195	90	285	1,083	168	1,251	195	90	285
München-Gladbach.....	Municipal.....	490	97	587	671	60	731	321	37	358
Bonn.....	Municipal.....	132	41	173	562	57	619	106	26	132
Aix-la-Chapelle.....	Association.....	259	117	376	500	204	704	216	66	282
Treves.....	Municipal.....	78	41	119	299	25	324	69	19	88
Coblentz.....	Municipal.....	137	21	158	604	27	631	56	7	63
Sanct Johann.....	Municipal.....	174	174	291	291	125	125
Kreutznach.....	Municipal.....	36	4	40	275	8	283	6	1	7
Wiesbaden.....	Association.....	210	483	693	364	414	778	121	266	387
Frankfort on the Main.....	Municipal.....	1,446	1,237	2,683	3,365	1,569	4,934	1,316	1,111	2,427
Mainz.....	Municipal.....	480	305	785	1,059	415	1,474	339	194	533
Lahn-District.....	District.....	198	5	203	500	8	508	172	3	175
Hanau.....	Municipal.....	27	27	86	86	19	19
Cassel.....	Municipal.....	654	383	1,037	1,094	463	1,557	508	251	759
Darmstadt.....	Public.....	221	140	361	667	148	815	147	79	226
Worms.....	Municipal.....	267	78	345	624	78	702	243	39	282
Kaiserslautern.....	Municipal.....	458	36	494	546	29	575	380	24	404
Ludwigshafen.....	Municipal.....	183	110	293	420	119	539	169	75	244
Metz.....	Municipal.....	634	101	735	519	120	639	264	37	301
Strassburg.....	Municipal.....	1,356	374	1,730	2,156	536	2,692	1,062	206	1,268
Colmar in Alsace.....	Municipal.....	270	95	365	401	145	546	189	63	252
Mülhausen in Alsace.....	Municipal.....	931	371	1,302	1,294	535	1,829	624	226	850
GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.										
Heidelberg.....	Public.....	374	41	415	1,166	61	1,227	310	27	337
Lahr.....	Public.....	139	45	174	232	35	267	101	34	135
Freiburg.....	Public.....	918	573	1,491	1,821	765	2,586	754	401	1,155
Schopfheim.....	Public.....	26	23	49	337	21	358	19	9	28
Lorrach.....	Public.....	177	58	235	537	52	589	141	32	173
Mülheim.....	Public.....	76	37	113	451	25	476	48	13	61
Karlsruhe.....	Public.....	628	166	794	2,024	257	2,281	409	70	479
Bruchsal.....	Municipal.....	165	102	267	463	54	517	127	41	168
Offenburg.....	Public.....	157	27	184	338	19	357	117	5	122
Constance.....	Public.....	341	167	508	869	186	1,055	279	133	412

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, BY CITIES, NOVEMBER, 1907—Concluded.

City.	Kind of bureau.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
		Help.			Situations.			Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
		Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.			
Pforzheim.....	Public.....	1,395	817	2,212	1,998	699	2,697	869	434	1,303
Ludwigsburg.....	Municipal.....	200	89	289	535	76	611	151	54	205
Esslingen.....	Municipal.....	247	26	273	747	35	782	163	10	173
Tübingen.....	Municipal.....	27	27	50	2	52	7	9
Reutlingen.....	Municipal.....	66	82	148	153	55	208	24	32	56
Göppingen.....	Municipal.....	45	45	134	134	31	31
Heidenheim.....	Municipal.....	89	89	58	3	61	17	17
Gmünd.....	Municipal.....	42	63	105	123	66	189	77	48	125
Heilbronn.....	Municipal.....	329	46	375	916	65	981	283	26	309
Ravensburg.....	Municipal.....	267	37	304	332	18	350	137	7	144
Ulm.....	Municipal.....	602	344	946	663	293	956	280	105	385
Schweinfurt.....	Municipal.....	24	24	32	32	22	22
Würzburg.....	Municipal.....	263	334	597	150	217	367	150	175	325
Bamberg.....	Municipal.....	196	110	306	365	89	454	145	52	197
Fürth.....	Municipal.....	145	123	268	315	102	417	121	75	196
Nuremberg.....	Municipal.....	852	401	1,253	822	381	1,203	814	353	1,167
Augsburg.....	Municipal.....	275	237	512	226	241	467	222	150	372
Ratisbon.....	Municipal.....	223	178	401	213	141	359	169	127	296
Straubing.....	Municipal.....	232	118	350	204	110	314	124	56	180
Munich.....	Municipal.....	2,802	2,328	5,130	3,083	2,793	5,881	2,510	1,973	4,483
Brunswick.....	Municipal.....	133	13	146	160	30	190	98	6	104
OUTSIDE OF GERMANY.										
Vienna.....	Municipal.....	4,604	6,932	11,536	5,360	9,029	14,389	4,326	6,770	11,096
Brünn.....	Municipal.....	177	69	246	202	80	282	164	66	230
Gratz.....	Association.....	259	156	415	413	208	621	259	148	407
Budapest.....	Municipal.....	6,179	542	6,721	9,099	1,280	10,379	2,265	253	2,518
Bern.....	Municipal.....	668	454	1,122	879	417	1,296	445	260	705
Zurich.....	Municipal.....	601	186	787	1,040	183	1,223	552	109	661
Rorschach.....	Municipal.....	154	62	216	273	43	316	92	24	116
Copenhagen.....	Communal.....	1,108	1,676	2,784	3,000	2,161	5,161	1,453	1,608	3,061

While the above table gives statistics for a very much larger number of bureaus, Mr. W. H. Beveridge, in an article in the *Economic Journal* for March, 1908, gives for a few of the more important of these public bureaus the following tables, which show the work they are accomplishing:

SITUATIONS FILLED BY PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF GERMANY, 1906 OR 1906-7.

[From article by W. H. Beveridge on Public Labor Exchanges in Germany, Economic Journal, March, 1908, p. 3.]

City.	Population (1905). ^(a)	Kind of bureau and date of establishment.	Situations filled in 1906 or 1906-7.		
			Males.	Females.	Total.
Berlin.....	2,040,000	Voluntary association (1883) with municipal subsidy since 1893.	880,847	611,343	692,190
Stuttgart...	249,000	Municipal (1895).....	37,893	18,427	56,320
Munich.....	539,000	Municipal (1895).....	29,658	24,015	53,673
Frankfort...	335,000	Municipal (1895).....	22,285	15,701	37,986
Dresden.....	517,000	Voluntary association.....	11,248	22,893	34,141
Cologne.....	429,000	Representative association, with all expenditure met by municipality (1894).	21,805	7,359	29,164
Dusseldorf..	253,000	Representative association, with all expenditure met by municipality since 1905. Formerly voluntary association (1890).	25,862	2,844	28,706
Leipzig.....	504,000	Voluntary association, with municipal subsidy.....	9,945	16,425	26,370
Mannheim...	164,000	Municipal since 1905. Formerly voluntary association (1893).	(d)	(d)	19,925
Freiburg....	74,000	Municipal since 1897. Formerly voluntary association, with municipal subsidy (1892).	11,268	6,433	17,701
Strassburg..	168,000	Municipal (1895).....	12,171	3,293	15,464
Nuremberg..	294,000	Municipal (1896).....	9,373	4,940	14,313

^a The figures in this column can be taken only as a very rough indication of the population actually dealt with by each bureau.

^b Figures for 1905.

^c Figures for 1905-6. The total does not agree with the sum of the items, but the figures are given as shown in the official report for Frankfort on the Main.

^d Not separately reported.

SITUATIONS FILLED BY PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF GERMANY, AND PER CENT OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, FOR EACH SEX, 1896, 1901, and 1906.

[From article by W. H. Beveridge on Public Labor Exchanges in Germany, Economic Journal, March, 1908, p. 9.]

MALES.

City.	1896.			1901.			1906.		
	Situations filled.	Per cent of situations filled of—		Situations filled.	Per cent of situations filled of—		Situations filled.	Per cent of situations filled of—	
		Applications for help.	Applications for situations. ^a		Applications for help.	Applications for situations. ^a		Applications for help.	Applications for situations. ^a
Berlin.....	19,030	97.8	77.5	24,528	93.7	66.5	880,847	74.3	(c)
Stuttgart...	10,474	73.3	59.3	12,900	75.4	48.7	37,893	84.1	72.5
Munich.....	15,653	93.5	49.1	24,358	89.5	56.8	29,658	86.3	83.1
Frankfort...	9,145	(c)	(c)	16,149	(c)	(c)	22,285	82.8	42.5
Cologne.....	7,823	96.4	70.4	12,480	97.2	38.5	21,805	95.3	60.7
Dusseldorf..	1,291	(c)	(c)	(c)	(c)	(c)	25,862	94.0	68.9
Leipzig.....	4,974	86.3	48.5	6,014	77.2	40.1	11,268	74.3	50.1
Mannheim...	922	(c)	(c)	1,494	(c)	(c)	12,171	64.0	53.4
Freiburg....	4,318	61.6	57.6	4,940	90.3	32.5	9,373	82.9	95.4

^a Owing to differences in methods of registration figures in this column do not justify comparison between one bureau and another; they can be used only to compare activities of the same bureau in different years. The Cologne and Freiburg reports refer to persons applying, the others to applications made, but do not all construe "application" in the same way. In Munich, at least, the recorded applications by no means represent all the actual applications.

^b Figures for 1905.

^c Not reported.

^d Figures for 1905-6.

^e Figures for 1904-5.

^f Figures for 1895.

SITUATIONS FILLED BY PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF GERMANY, AND PER CENT OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, FOR EACH SEX, 1896, 1901, and 1906—Concluded.

FEMALES.

City.	1896.	1901.	1906.		
	Situations filled.	Situations filled.	Situations filled.	Per cent of situations filled of—	
				Applications for help.	Applications for situations. ^a
Berlin.....	1,662	2,072	b 11,343	b 58.3	(c)
Stuttgart.....	2,638	3,843	18,427	68.1	92.0
Munich.....	9,933	20,815	24,015	63.7	74.1
Frankfort.....	534	5,913	d 13,701	e 74.4	f 82.5
Cologne.....	4,301	7,784	7,359	66.0	93.8
Dusseldorf.....	/ 17	(c)	2,844	72.3	71.4
Freiburg.....	1,892	2,935	6,433	67.4	72.4
Strassburg.....	1,004	1,040	3,293	51.3	48.2
Nuremberg.....	142	3,193	4,940	61.2	95.2

^a Owing to differences in methods of registration figures in this column do not justify comparison between one bureau and another; they can be used only to compare activities of the same bureau in different years. The Cologne and Freiburg reports refer to persons applying, the others to applications made, but do not all construe "application" in the same way. In Munich, at least, the recorded applications by no means represent all the actual applications.

^b Figures for 1905.

^c Not reported.

^d Figures for 1905-6.

^e Figures for 1904-5.

^f Figures for 1895.

These figures show how far the bureaus have met a real need and have served the public, and, in spite of early opposition and criticism (still continued in part by the Socialists), how they have made their way into the confidence of employers and employees.

As already stated, the first attitude of the trade unions to these public bureaus was one of strenuous opposition. As late as 1896 the General Trade Union Congress in Berlin voted that labor employment bureaus should be conducted by organized labor alone. Two years later, however, at the Frankfort congress of 1898, the use of the public bureaus was advised under certain conditions.

According to a translation by D. F. Schloss, in his Report on the Agencies and Methods for Dealing with Unemployed in Certain Foreign Countries (pages 83-85), the Sozialdemokratische Reichs-tags-Handbuch expressed this as follows:

The object of the labor organizations of the trade unions was, at first, to keep the provision of labor as much as possible in their own hands. Its organization by the commune, or by any public authority, was opposed on principle.

This position has been gradually given up, because for large masses of workmen the trade union employment bureau remained ineffective, and more than all because the employers converted the supply of labor into a monopoly, and the question presented itself whether the best means of combating the employer's registry was not the "jointly controlled" or communal bureau, as it might be more easily established in view of the movement in its favor.

It is probable that the trade-unionists were influenced not only by their fear of the employers' registries [employment bureaus], but to

a greater degree by the ill effects which they apprehended to be the results of the want of any system at all ("Umschau").

The workman was the first to establish labor registries in the defense of his own interests. The masters followed, and this movement is of quite recent date. A conference of employers at Leipzig in 1898 showed very clearly the objects they had in view in the establishment of bureaus of registration on their own account. This was the control over the laborer and the use of rejection as a means of punishment in case of agitation for higher wages or shorter hours. The registry was to serve partly, at any rate, as a means of repression and as a weapon in the struggle against the Social Democrats.

The promoters of the public, or impartial, bureau had therefore, in view of the extent and number of the skilled labor registries, whether trade-unionist or employers' organizations, to settle the question of their attitude to the latter. The opposition between the two is obvious in many respects. The management of the public registry is impartial, and its head, being an official, is not afraid of being removed if he offends a party interest. The public registry is free, i. e., in the main supported by the town or the State. The special registry must be paid for by the special interest it serves. The task of the public bureau is more difficult, where many trades are concerned and where applicants are not known to the officials in charge. The most important point of difference, however, is the attitude to be observed in case of strikes or lockouts.

The practice of the public labor bureaus in this respect is varied. The "strike clause," i. e., the rule that a bureau shall, in case of a strike, not be used by either side, is not in force at either Stuttgart or Frankfort, which seems to be a proof by itself that it is unnecessary. In Berlin it was decided that the "trade court" should be referred to and that the side against which it gave its judgment should be refused the services of the bureau. The objection to this is that it calls unnecessary attention to the strike. Difficulties, of course, must arise, but a labor bureau should continue its activity, and it is far easier for it to do so when it is managed by a joint committee of masters and men. The principle of joint control is therefore considered to be the main safeguard.

Of this principle the labor bureau of the Berlin breweries is a striking example. This bureau is unconnected with the central labor bureau in Berlin except in the fact that it communicates its statistics to that institution. After a series of unsuccessful attempts the present bureau was established in 1894 on the understanding that masters and men should equally participate in its management. The managing committee consists of four employers and four labor representatives, with an impartial president, who is at the present time also the president of the general federation of German labor bureaus. All workmen employed in the breweries in any capacity, including the mechanics and drivers, are subject to the rules of the bureau, and must obtain their places through its mediation. A workman must wait his turn before he is placed, i. e., on registration he gets a number, and must then wait till all the numbers on the list prior to his own have been satisfied. The employer, however, can reject any man who does not suit him, and the workmen have the same right of refusing a place offered.

It is understood that the employer must not take political reasons into consideration in rejecting a workman, and any dispute on such a point is decided by the joint committee. The employers are allowed to engage a certain small number of men without the intervention of the bureau, but in this case they must pay a small fee, which, as a matter of fact, is devoted to out-of-work support. Thus in the years 1895 to 1899 15,417 situations were filled by the bureau and only 1,884 were engaged without its help.

The Berlin breweries have thus successfully introduced the principle of joint control in an independent labor bureau, and the plan works so well that there is no reason for connecting the bureau with the Berlin central labor office, except, as already mentioned, for statistical purposes. The system of joint control has also been introduced in Berlin in a number of skilled labor registries, which are more closely connected with the central office.

More recent experience is still more valuable. In regard to the vexed question of the position to be taken by a public employment bureau in times of strikes and lockouts, the experience of Germany is most significant.

This has been the question perhaps most hotly discussed between the friends and opponents of the bureaus and even between varying friends of the bureaus themselves. It was at first demanded by the trade unionists generally that in case of a strike the bureau should refuse to send workmen to the establishment where the strike was in progress until it was officially declared off by the striking union or unions. It was demanded on the other hand by the employers that the bureaus should by their regulations be prevented from taking any official notice whatsoever of a strike or lockout, and so be compelled to supply establishments where there was a strike, just as when there was no strike. Other ways of treating the problem were tried, but one course has in practice been accepted and at present both employees and employers are almost unanimous in support of it. In Stuttgart, at the first even the trade unionists agreed that the bureau should not recognize a strike, and should supply workmen to establishments when there was a strike; and in Berlin this was made a stated regulation of the bureau at the demand of many employers, who said that otherwise they would not patronize it, but in Cologne the opposite course was taken upon a similar threat by the trade unions, and it was made a regulation that the bureau should supply workmen to no establishment where there was a strike until the strike was officially declared off. Most of the bureaus attempted to dodge the question by having no regulation concerning the matter. By 1905 the trade unionists at Cologne desired the removal of the clause forbidding the bureau to supply workmen to establishments where there was a strike, because the mere refusal to send workmen to an establishment showed that there was a strike there, and therefore notified any nonunionists who chose to take advantage of the strike, so that they could go and obtain

positions there in spite of the bureau, while the bureau, by seeming to take sides with the employees, offended many of the employers, and thus hurt its influence, and this prevented its finding as many situations for men as otherwise it would. In Berlin the employers asked also in 1905 for the removal of the clause compelling the bureau to supply workmen to establishments where there was a strike, because they found it did them no good. Any workmen who might desire to replace the strikers could be secured without the aid of the bureau by a simple notification that there was a strike, while union men who were there through misunderstanding and not knowing there was a strike, left as soon as they found out the real situation. The employers gained nothing by the regulation, while the employees were so antagonized that the best workmen, in many cases, would not use the bureau, and the employers lost thereby. On the other hand, for the bureaus, through a committee or in other ways, to undertake to decide as to the merits of a strike—as some bureaus did undertake to do—meant endless difficulties and disputes, while the question continually came up as to what constituted a strike, or what was a lockout. The upshot of the matter was that in all the German cities employers and employees are agreed, with few exceptions, that the bureaus should take no notice of a strike, but simply allow each side to post up notice in the bureau that there is a strike in a certain establishment and then let each workman act as he sees fit. This accomplishes all that the employees desire, and keeps away from the establishment all union men, and yet allows the employers to get any workmen who choose to take advantage of the situation. It throws the burden of responsibility not on the bureau but on the men.

Another and interesting point in regard to these bureaus is the special efforts they have made as to agricultural laborers. In Germany, as in other countries, great difficulty is found in inducing workmen who have once settled in the cities to return to the country. The remarkable development of industry in Germany has built up the city at the expense of the country districts even more than in most countries. German agriculturists and the landed interests claimed that the employment bureaus aggravated the evil. This question was discussed at the congress of the federation of the bureaus at Munich in 1898, and since then great efforts have been made to remedy the defect. By 1900 it was reported that from 10,000 to 12,000 laborers had been placed on the land by the bureaus in different portions of the Empire. By 1902 the figures were 16,000. Since then there has been more growth. Different methods are followed by different bureaus. Some bureaus have especial departments

for agricultural laborers. Some bureaus have been established directly for agricultural laborers, usually by the chambers of agriculture. In other cases, as in Silesia and Sleswick-Holstein, the chambers of agriculture work with and help support agricultural departments of city bureaus. In Bavaria, as stated above, there being an organized network of employment bureaus for the whole Kingdom, it is able especially to meet the agricultural need. The following table shows the operations of the Bavarian agricultural employment bureaus:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BAVARIAN AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, 1905 AND 1906.

Year.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Situations.			Help.			Male.	Fe-male.	Total.
	Male.	Fe-male.	Total.	Male.	Fe-male.	Total.			
1905.....	8,199	1,665	9,864	8,479	2,905	11,384	6,314	1,404	7,718
1906.....	9,258	1,201	10,459	10,962	2,815	13,777	7,392	1,058	8,450

Another matter of interest is that several of the bureaus make a special feature of finding situations for boys and girls upon leaving school.

AUSTRIA.

The Austrian Empire in many of its Provinces has been very active in the establishment of public and other employment bureaus, but the results are difficult to analyze and tabulate because of the unusual variety of methods adopted for their organization in different portions of the Empire. Few countries in the world have so many languages, such varied forms of provincial government and especially of local government, as has the Austrian Empire. This complicates all statistics.

VARIOUS CLASSES OF EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

There are at least six principal classes of employment bureaus and many variations in each class. In portions of the Empire the old trade guilds or their modern trade successors play a large part. Trade union bureaus are not so important, because trade unionism has not yet been strongly developed except perhaps in Vienna. Roman Catholic associations of various kinds have shown considerable activity in securing situations, but charitable organizations apart from these do little. By far the most successful bureaus are the va-

rious public bureaus, mainly on the German plan, and largely municipal or provincial. A large work is also done in securing situations by the relief shelters (*Verpflegungsstationen*), also copied from Germany, but which have largely spread through Austria, beginning as early as 1887.

The relative numbers and activities of the bureaus of the different kinds can be seen by the following quotations from the Austrian Report on the Securing of Work in 1906 (*Ergebnisse der Arbeitsvermittlung in Oesterreich im Jahre 1906*):

EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF EACH KIND IN AUSTRIA, 1905 AND 1906.

Kind of bureau.	1905.	1906.
Public.....	611	768
Guild or employers' unions.....	311	458
Trade union.....	260	498
Other organizations.....	336	448
Charitable organizations.....	72	82
Commercial.....	532	492
Relief stations.....	7,828	7,563
Total.....	9,950	10,309

The same official publication reports the activities of these bureaus as follows:

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF EACH KIND, AND PER CENT OF SITUATIONS SECURED OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, IN AUSTRIA, 1905 AND 1906.

Kind of bureau.	Year.	Applications for—		Situations secured.	Per cent of situations secured of applications for—	
		Help.	Situations.		Help	Situations.
Public.....	1905	273,250	333,708	209,065	76.51	62.65
	1906	349,209	371,553	248,624	71.20	66.91
Guild or employers' unions.....	1905	35,560	42,277	30,377	85.42	71.85
	1906	43,257	47,431	36,555	84.51	77.07
Trade union.....	1905	16,498	29,651	13,815	83.74	46.59
	1906	28,579	46,321	23,296	81.51	50.29
Other organizations.....	1905	29,581	48,640	17,809	60.20	36.61
	1906	41,925	41,179	25,701	61.30	62.41
Charitable organizations.....	1905	9,970	6,339	5,087	51.02	80.25
	1906	12,485	6,960	5,411	43.34	77.74
Commercial and domestic.....	1905	51,006	40,794	31,003	60.78	76.00
	1906	47,453	38,181	27,899	58.79	77.11
Total.....	1905	415,865	501,409	307,156	73.86	61.26
	1906	522,913	549,625	367,486	70.28	66.66

During 1906 situations were secured through the various kinds of employment bureaus throughout the Empire as follows:

SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN AUSTRIA DURING 1906, BY LOCALITY AND KIND OF BUREAU.

Province.	Situations secured through each kind of bureau.							Total.
	Public.	Guild or employers' unions.	Trade unions.	Other organizations.	Charitable organizations.	Commercial and domestic.	Relief stations.	
Lower Austria (a)...	152,370	26,601	19,571	17,169	1,823	16,440	7,510	241,484
Upper Austria.....		469	166	1,357	581		2,409	4,982
Salzburg.....		248	195					443
Styria.....	4,745	4,182	82	157	167		3,969	13,302
Carinthia.....		272	21					293
Carniola.....	1,601		1			303		1,905
Coastland.....			155					155
Dalmatia.....			17					17
Tyrol.....	2,473	889	79					3,441
Bohemia (b).....	76,180	1,049	2,518	5,676	1,661	11,156	24,657	122,897
Moravia.....	3,561	2,845	267	1,174	519		2,489	10,855
Silesia.....	2,711		29	14			387	3,141
Galicia.....	4,983		156	154	660			5,953
Bukowina.....			39					39
Total.....	248,624	36,555	23,296	25,701	5,411	27,899	41,421	408,007

^a Included in the figures for Lower Austria there were for Vienna alone 232,937 situations secured: 151,333 through public bureaus; 26,601 through guilds or employers' unions; 19,571 through trade unions; 17,169 through other associations; 1,823 through charitable organizations, and 16,440 through commercial organizations.

^b Included in the figures for Bohemia there were for Prague alone 43,880 situations secured: 24,305 through public bureaus; 2,123 through trade unions; 4,635 through other organizations; 1,661 through charitable organizations, and 11,156 through commercial organizations.

The total number of applications for help and for situations by men, women, and apprentices, and the number of situations secured, with per cent of each class, is shown as follows:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED BY MEN, WOMEN, AND APPRENTICES, THROUGH THE AUSTRIAN EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, 1906.

Classification of workers.	Applications for—				Situations secured.	
	Help.		Situations.		Number.	Per cent.
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.		
Men.....	232,381	44.44	269,908	49.11	175,919	47.87
Women.....	268,609	51.37	244,276	44.44	181,552	49.40
Apprentices.....	21,923	4.19	35,441	6.45	10,015	2.73
Total.....	522,913	100.00	549,625	100.00	367,486	100.00

Of the total number of situations secured the following percentages were procured by the various classes of bureaus:

PER CENT OF MEN, WOMEN, AND APPRENTICE WORKERS SECURED BY THE VARIOUS KINDS OF EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN AUSTRIA, 1906.

Kind of bureau.	Per cent of situations secured for—		
	Men.	Women.	Apprentices.
Public.....	49.44	72.42	78.35
Guild or employers' unions.....	12.99	4.33	11.34
Trade unions.....	10.38	.80	.37
Other organizations.....	9.10	3.11	7.42
Charitable organizations.....		2.86	
Commercial and domestic.....	2.10	12.42	.08
Relief stations.....	15.99	4.06	2.44
Total.....	100.00	100.00	100.00

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

The most important of Austrian employment bureaus are, as in Germany, the public bureaus. In 1903 there were five of these bureaus reported by the Austrian official *Soziale Rundschau*. The Vienna bureau was the first, established in 1885, to assist working people in finding work, especially for those employed in factories and in industries in which no guild existed. This is the general nature of the Austrian bureaus of this class. The Brunn and Prague bureaus are the most important next to the Vienna bureau.

Several of the employment bureaus have now become, as in Germany, municipal (or provincial) bureaus. The first of the provincial bureaus was established at Pilsen in 1898, and the first of the municipal bureaus at Vienna in 1898.

By far the most important is the Vienna municipal bureau. It occupies commodious quarters, has several branches, and plays a large part in the city life. It found places in 1906 for 143,121 persons. Every week a list of all the applications for employment and for help is classified according to the trades and printed and posted in all districts of the city. Applicants are sent to employers, as a rule, in the order of their application, but precedence is given to those having a legal residence in Vienna, as well as to those having children dependent upon them or having other special needs. If a strike takes place, the bureau does not suspend its work, but applicants are notified that there is a strike. This bureau has proved so satisfactory that at the end of the first year forty of the trade guilds handed over their employment agencies to the municipal bureau, and by 1902 this number had increased to forty-six. In 1903 the work of the bureau was extended to domestic service, and by October of that year

eleven district employment offices had been opened for women servants and one for men servants. Some of the trade unions exact a fee from their members to cover expenses, but otherwise the bureau is absolutely free, no payment being asked from either employees or employers, except that employers in the domestic branch are charged a small registration fee.

The Prague municipal employment bureau stands next to that of Vienna in importance in Austria, and is conducted on substantially the same plan. In case of a strike, however, the town council undertakes to decide in each particular case what shall be the attitude of the bureau. The latter is managed by a committee composed of a chairman, who is a member of and appointed by the town council, three members of the executive committee of the town council, three representatives of the employers appointed by the town council, three representatives of the employed actually employed in Prague, an inspector of relief stations, appointed by the Bohemian provincial council, and the director-in-chief of the poor-law administration. The Bohemian bureaus are particularly noteworthy for being organized systematically.

SWITZERLAND.

Switzerland has had and still has most of the various kinds of employment bureaus usual to continental European countries. But Switzerland is of special interest because she seems to be the first country proposing a really national or federal system of bureaus. This will be all the better for being an evolution rather than a new creation. Switzerland has long felt the evils of private commercial employment bureaus, and there is quite a movement, as in France, to suppress them. Various associations of employers have done considerable in Switzerland in securing employees; the trade union bureaus have done less. The relief stations copied from Germany have done something along this line, though not a very large work, because they are not yet sufficiently numerous. It is the public employment bureaus which of late have come to the front, as in Germany. A public bureau of the German type was established at Bern in 1889, and another in Basel in 1890. Such bureaus were at first not generally favored in Switzerland, either by employers or employees, though they gradually grew into popular favor. In 1901, at Bern, and in 1903, at Basel, they were discussed at the meetings of the Association des Villes Suisses, and at the last meeting they were strongly favored. The following table, from the report of Dr. J. Vogelsanger to the

Swiss Federal Department of Industry, gives the most recent general statistics of the main Swiss public employment bureaus:

NUMBER OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN SWITZERLAND, BY LOCALITY, 1903 AND 1905.

Locality.	Applications for—				Situations secured.	
	Help.		Situations.		1903.	1905.
	1903.	1905.	1903.	1905.		
Aarau.....		3,409		2,465		1,498
Basel.....	4,298	12,927	5,022	14,186	4,024	10,780
Bern.....	0,724	11,023	5,955	9,062	4,378	6,554
Biemme.....	1,153	1,390	874	881	1,130	1,352
Geneva.....	6,373	7,947	9,481	9,083	3,743	5,614
Glarus.....		27		14		7
Schaffhausen.....	906	1,060	880	923	534	600
Saint Gallen.....		4,864		4,301		2,762
Winterthur.....	131	350	223	456	60	197
Zurich.....	15,843	21,626	16,488	18,305	11,397	15,660
Total.....	35,428	64,623	38,923	59,696	25,266	45,024

This does not show in all cases great strength or growth, yet in the main as soon as a Swiss bureau has found its way into general confidence its growth has been steady and rapid.

At present these municipal or cantonal bureaus are so generally favored that a proposal has been presented to the Swiss Federal Assembly to grant them a federal subsidy and to weld them into a national system.

All the details have not as yet been determined, but the Federal Council laid the following resolutions before the Federal Assembly, December 7, 1907. They are given in full as a summary of the most recent scheme relating to the subject.

ARTICLE I. The Confederation (of Switzerland), in order to develop the finding of employment, decrees subsidies to the following institutions:

(a) To public employment bureaus (labor bureaus or employment bureaus of the Cantons or the communes).

(b) To cantonal relief stations, so far as they serve the public by finding situations.

(c) To the Association of Swiss Labor Bureaus.

ART. 2. The granting of these subsidies is made conditional on the fulfillment of the following conditions:

I. As to bureaus of employment:

(a) They must seek to find positions for every kind of worker desiring employment in the arts and industry, commerce, agriculture, and domestic economy. Each bureau must have a separate department for women workers.

(b) The service rendered must be free for both parties; only expenses actually incurred for special services may be charged to those enjoying the services.

(c) The management of the bureaus must be absolutely impartial, employers and employees having equal representation on the commission in charge of the bureaus.

(*d*) In case of strikes, lockouts, or boycotts, the bureaus will continue their labors, giving, however, notice of the conflict to the parties using the bureaus.

(*e*) The bureaus shall be connected with the Association of Swiss Labor Bureaus, shall be connected with a central station, and shall have subsidiary bureaus in their Cantons. Relief stations may fill this function.

(*f*) In view of special ordinances of the association of Swiss cities, the bureaus shall cooperate with it, regularly reporting the condition of the labor market, the reports being intended for the Swiss Federal Statistical Bureau.

Permission is given to the Federal Council to determine all details, and even to abrogate the above conditions if local exigencies demand.

II. Concerning cantonal associations or relief stations:

(*a*) They are to seek employment for their patrons in a systematic way, cooperating with the employment bureaus, and to be connected with the nearest labor bureau.

(*b*) The stations shall also regularly report the condition of the labor market to the labor bureau.

The associations may, if they wish, limit their efforts to employment for men.

III. Concerning the Association of Swiss Labor Bureaus:

(*a*) The association, in agreement with the Department of Industry, shall designate one or more labor bureaus as central bureaus.

(*b*) It shall aim at the determination of the wisest methods and principles in the conduct of the employment bureaus, and shall devote itself to the development of the system of bureaus.

(*c*) In connection with the Department of Industry and the Federal Statistical Bureau it shall formulate and collect the statistics of the activities of the bureaus.

(*d*) It shall put itself at the disposition of the Department of Industry in collecting statistics as to the unemployed and shall encourage all efforts undertaken against unemployment.

ART. 3. The Confederation shall allow the following payments:

(*a*) All expenses of the central service.

(*b*) A subsidy to the local public employment bureaus to the extent of one-third of their expenses, not including expense of construction and furnishing.

(*c*) A subsidy to the cantonal relief stations of 50 centimes [10 cents] for each situation secured.

(*d*) An annual subsidy to the Swiss labor bureaus (of the Cantons) of one-half their expenses.

ART. 4. Institutions applying for these subsidies must present to the Federal Department of Industry their laws, regulations, and budgets, their annual accounts and statement of their activities, approved by competent authorities.

The calculation and determination of the subsidies shall be by the department of industry. Appeal, however, may be made to the Federal Council, whose decision shall be final. The Federal Council shall have final power over details.

ART. 5. The Federal Council, or its Department of Industry, shall have the right to demand an account of the activities of all institutions receiving subsidies.

ART. 6. The elaboration of the statistics of the employment bureaus subsidized by the Confederation and the publication of a periodical report of the labor market shall be conducted by the Federal Statistical Bureau.

The Federal Council shall finally determine all details of the organization of the statistical service.

ART. 7. The Federal Council, according to the law of June 17, 1874, shall have charge of submitting this law to the popular referendum, and shall determine the date of its going into effect.

ITALY.

Italy has as yet little to show in the way of efficient employment bureaus, although much attention is now being given to the subject. There are labor exchanges somewhat similar to the French bourses in Milan and other Italian cities.

Italy's most notable organization for employment is, however, connected with the famous Milan society, the Umanitaria. This society has an endowment of 10,000,000 lire (\$1,930,000), given by M. Prosper M. Loria in 1898, and amounting to 13,000,000 lire (\$2,509,000) in 1902, on the death of M. Loria. Its revenue is some 600,000 lire (\$115,800) per year.

The Umanitaria has created, among its other works, a successful employment bureau in connection with the Milan labor exchange, a similar bureau for placing nurses and women domestics in connection with the National Woman's Union, and a third bureau to aid the movement of the unemployed to the interior sections of the country where there is need of labor.

The success of the bureau, although a new one, may be seen by its activities for the first quarters of 1905 and 1906, as follows:

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE MILAN EMPLOYMENT BUREAU FOR THE FIRST QUARTER OF THE YEARS 1905 AND 1906.

Month.	Applications for—				Situations secured.	
	Help.		Situations.		1905.	1906.
	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.		
January.....	118	293	206	340	73	113
February.....	154	585	302	545	67	188
March.....	212	952	367	729	91	388
Total.....	484	1,830	875	1,614	231	689

The bureau thus more than doubled its activities in the space of a year. There were nearly twice as many applicants for work in the first quarter of 1906 as in that of 1905, and nearly four times as many applications for help.

Especial interest, however, is given in Italy to getting laborers for the land, and if possible inducing some to go on Italian land who

otherwise would emigrate. The Italian national labor office has interested itself in furnishing statistics and information of the sections where agricultural labor is needed and in aiding efforts toward the removal of the unemployed to such sections. The bureau of the Umanitaria devoted to this end works, too, in connection with local employment bureaus and all who may aid in the work. Representatives of the Umanitaria have visited Sardinia and southern Italy to facilitate the removal of workers to those sections which need workers. The Italian Bureau of Immigration also in part works in the same direction. Cooperative efforts, too, which in certain parts of Italy have succeeded among the agriculturalists more than in many countries, have helped to attract the unemployed and have given them work, notably in the Province of Reggio Emilia.

But Italy, like other countries, has felt the need of national organization to meet the problem of unemployment. At a congress called by the Federation of Employers' Associations and committees of other private organizations, held June 30, 1906, it was voted that the federation should work for the creation of a national organization of employment bureaus, with a central office and branches in all portions of the Kingdom.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Great Britain has lagged behind in the establishment of public employment bureaus, though at present in London and in other cities much attention is given to the subject. Until recently the only British employment bureaus have been private commercial ones, to which must be added the work in this line being done by a few charitable or philanthropic bodies, and principally what was accomplished by the trade unions formally through their labor registries, or informally through their secretaries and other officials.

In 1902, however, a so-called labor bureau act was passed authorizing the establishment of public employment bureaus or employment exchanges by municipal authorities, and since then a few public employment exchanges have been established, notably by the London borough councils of Battersea, Chelsea, Croydon, Finsbury, Hammer-smith, Hampstead, Islington, Kensington, Lewisham, Poplar, St. Pancras, Southwark, and Westminster. They have as yet, however, accomplished only meager results. One of the troubles has been that their status, legal or otherwise, has not yet been clearly defined. The local distress committees, which, with the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, form the organization established under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, "with a view to the provision of employment or assistance for unemployed workmen in proper cases" in London, have interfered with, and in many cases temporarily

superseded, the work of the employment bureaus. In the report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London of May 12, 1906, it is stated that in only two boroughs had the employment bureaus been independently maintained through the winter. The attempt has been made to meet this difficulty and to increase the usefulness of the exchanges by creating a central employment exchange, managed by a committee of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, with which the local bureaus should be connected. Such a central exchange was opened in March, 1905, at 24 Victoria street, Westminster.

The Central (Unemployed) Body reported in June, 1907, that a central exchange and twenty-five local labor exchanges, covering almost every part of London, were then in operation. All were in telephonic communication with each other and with the central exchange. The local exchanges were managed directly by the central body and were kept entirely distinct from the work of the local distress committees. This policy appeared to be of advantage, since the superintendents report that as this is getting understood the industrial quality of the work people registering is improving. The central exchange does not itself receive applications, but acts as a clearing house.

The number of persons registered between August, 1906, and June 30, 1907, was 74,273, including 11,035 women. This number may, however, include some cases of persons reregistering after obtaining temporary employment.

Employment up to the end of June had been found for 12,529 of those registered, including 2,973 women.

Advisory committees composed of representatives of the borough councils and local employers and employees were being formed, consisting of not less than nine members, five of whom may be nominated by the respective borough councils. The cost of the employment bureaus in London from May 12, 1906, to June 30, 1907, amounted to £7,791 10s. 4d. (\$37,917.42).

In twenty-one cases the bureau or employment register was stated to be kept open both in summer and winter; in some cases during the morning only, in others for practically the whole day.

In Dudley, out of 881 applicants 520 were found employment, in Nottingham 356 out of 816, in Plymouth 277 out of 719, in Reading 429 out of 839, and in Warrington 481 out of 1,448.

Up to September 30, 1907, about fifty metropolitan and provincial employment bureaus had been established, though most of these are even yet incompletely organized. During the ten months from December, 1906, to September 30, 1907, these bureaus received 120,000 applications for work, placed 30,000 persons, and directed many more to likely places of work.

The attitude of the English trade unionists to this movement has thus far been one of suspicion, increased by the decision of Mr. John Burns, as president of the Local Government Board, October, 1907, that the bureaux should not compel employers to conform to a union wage standard before being placed on the books of the bureau. The general attitude of the British trade unions to the exchanges was thus stated by the secretary of the General Federation of Trade Unions:

If these exchanges are to compete with the existing trade union registries they may expect the most determined opposition from organized labor. If they are not intended to be antagonistic to the trade-union method, then before any move was made the responsible organizations which have done so much in the past and are so well meeting requirements at present should have been consulted.

Thus the English employment bureaux have not yet completely won their way either in legal position or in popular favor, but the need for them is so realized by the public that they seem bound to grow. They are slowly developing into a system. The most of them are connected with the central employment exchange by telephone and are slowly growing into effectiveness and success. The central employment exchange is working to develop an effective general system, and to this end has issued the following suggestive circulars:

SELECTED DOCUMENTS ISSUED BY CENTRAL COMMITTEE.

RELATING TO EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES.

(1) *Model rules suggested by the central committee.*

[Copy.]

——— Employment Exchange.

(Affiliated to the central employment exchange.)

1. The exchange will be open for men daily from ——— and for women daily from ——— except Saturdays. The exchange will be closed on Good Friday, Christmas Day, bank holidays, and on any occasion the ——— may see fit to notify.

2. Only persons resident in the borough of ——— at the time of the application can be registered for employment; but this restriction as to residence does not apply to employers of labor.

3. Every applicant for registration shall either fill up correctly a printed form, obtainable on personal application to the superintendent, or answer such questions as shall be put by the superintendent, for the purpose of enabling him to enter the necessary particulars in the register.

4. The superintendent will recommend applicants for employment according to suitability, but employers may select from the registered applicants anyone whom they consider suitable.

5. Only those out of employment, or under notice of discharge, will be registered.

[NOTE.—In Hampstead the experiment is being tried of registering men who, though in work, desire to use the exchange. In this borough a minimum registration fee of 1 penny [2 cents], covering a period of six months, is charged to every one. For those who, though in work, register, a differential fee of 6 pence [12 cents] is charged.]

6. The name of every applicant will be removed from the register after one month, exclusive of Sundays and public holidays, unless the applicant, on or

before the end of the month, gives notice that he or she is still out of employment, such notice to be repeated not less often than on every succeeding month that the applicant remains out of employment.

[NOTE.—The minimum period of notice adopted for those still out of employment varies greatly. In Westminster applicants must call at the exchange and enter their names on slips provided for the purpose at least twice a week.]

7. Applicants must notify the superintendent when they obtain employment through the exchange.

8. Any employers' association may affiliate to the exchange. Secretaries of affiliated associations shall be invited to specify the kinds of employee required by their members, and to encourage individual members to give notice to the exchange of vacancies, so that they may be informed when suitable applicants offer.

9. Any registered club, union, branch of a union, or other organization of workmen, may affiliate to the exchange. Secretaries of affiliated organizations shall be invited to specify the employment suitable to their members and shall be notified when such employment offers.

Forms of application for registration and all other information may be obtained at the exchange.

(2) *Rules suggested for exhibition in the exchange.*

1. The name of any person knowingly making a false statement on the forms, or knowingly giving any false information to the superintendent, will be struck off the register, and such person will be debarred from being again registered.

2. No person of known bad character will be registered.

3. Applicants are not permitted to wait about the premises after their application has been dealt with.

4. Smoking and spitting in the offices of the exchange are strictly prohibited.

(3) *Application form suggested for use by the local exchange. (a)*

[Copy.]

———— Borough Council.

Employment Exchange.

(In association with the central employment exchange.)

[Address of office, with office hours.]

Application for employment.

No. ———

Date ——— 190

1. Surname, Christian names, and age.
2. Married or single.
3. Full address.
4. How long resident in the borough of ———?
5. How long unemployed?
6. Exact description of employment required.
7. Other work for which qualified.
8. Name and address of last employer and description of work.
9. Name and address of longest employer and description of work.
10. Particulars as to sick benefit, trade, or other provident society.
11. Any remarks the candidate may desire to make, e. g., as to number of children, references, wages, causes of present unemployment, etc.

For the sake of other candidates, please inform the superintendent directly you obtain work.

N. B.—Employment can not be guaranteed. The exchange is intended to aid candidates in their search for work, and not to take the place of their own efforts.

* NOTE.—This form is not adequate for the purposes of classification for special assistance, but only for the normal work of an employment exchange.

(4) *A leaflet issued by the central committee.*

[Copy.]

A note on employment exchanges: What they can do.

The object of a labor exchange is to act as a medium of introduction between employers and employed. It is a center through which on the one hand work, and on the other workers, may be found.

The exchange can, however, serve no purpose if it is not used—by employers no less than by employed.

If thus used, it centralizes information as to what class of men or women employers are seeking; and as to what class of men and women are seeking employment. By the simple machinery it provides, those who stand in industrial need of each other can find each other.

The local exchange can only do this for its own locality. But it may often happen that employers can not find the men, or men the employers, they want in their own borough. Men out of work, or places unfilled, there may be—just in the next street, if this be in another borough—or on the other side of London; and the superintendent of the local exchange, if acting in isolation, may know nothing about them.

In order to avoid this and to increase the usefulness of every local exchange, the central employment exchange has been established by a metropolitan committee, representative of the London borough councils and boards of guardians. Every man who wants work and every employer who wants men is now enabled to draw upon the registers of all the exchanges of London.

An industrial "clearing house" for the metropolis is thus provided; and men in Hammersmith, for instance, can now hear of unfilled places in, say, Hampstead; or employers in Finsbury who fail to find the men they want there may get them, say, from Kensington or Westminster.

At present (^a) nine exchanges are thus working together. In a year it is hoped that an affiliated exchange will be found in every London borough.

Exchanges only aid men who are willing to take some trouble themselves—including that of going to their own exchange and of giving the necessary information to the superintendent there.

If well used, exchanges will help to avoid industrial congestion; to avoid unemployment; to make the wheels of industry run a little more easily. They can not guarantee men work, or employers men; but they can help to fill the gaps.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AS TO EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

Perhaps the general conclusions to be derived from the study of European employment bureaus have not been better stated than by Dr. Louis Varlez, of Ghent. His conclusions are as follows:

DOCTOR VARLEZ'S RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.^(b)

1. The employers and the employees should have an equal voice in the management of the bureaus. They should also have equal rights in the administration of the bureau.

2. The presidency should be in the hands of men not interested in industrial conflicts.

3. A purely bureaucratic management is irreconcilable with an effective management of the bureaus.

4. The management should not be placed exclusively in the hands of philanthropic institutions.

5. The expenses of the organization and administration of bureaus, in which employers and employees are equally interested, should fall upon the public authorities, principally upon the local community.

6. The placing of laborers outside of the community should be in charge of a central bureau rather than in that of the district bureau.

^a June, 1905.

^b Report on the Reorganization of the Ghent Labor Exchange, 1906, pp. 26-45.

7. The procuring of work should be free of charge.
8. The placing of laborers should not be purely a local matter; it should extend to the surrounding district.
9. The bureau should try to keep in touch and, if possible, to cooperate with all agencies which undertake to find employment.
10. The public authorities should control all employment bureaus and should see that there is no improper competition against the public bureaus.
11. The statistics of the bureaus should be kept with the greatest care.
12. The public bureaus should be for both sexes.
13. The public bureaus should endeavor to place both workingmen and domestics.
14. Women clerks should be used in placing women applicants.
15. Direct contact between employers and employees, and also between persons of different sexes, should be avoided in the office of the bureau.
16. Strikes and lockouts should be reported immediately to the employment bureau, and should be announced there, but it should not be necessary to close the office to the trades concerned.
17. All the transactions of placing people should be carried on within the office of the bureau.
18. Managers of offices should try to satisfy their clients, both employers and workingmen, without following the strict order of application, which is more or less a matter of chance.
19. Officers should energetically combat the practice of workingmen in applying directly to employers who are patrons of the bureau for positions.
20. To make known their work the public employment bureau should use all the different methods of advertising which are used by commercial institutions.
21. The employment bureau should be interested in placing of apprentices and in the form of their contract, because the future of the labor market depends upon the proper management of apprenticeships.
22. Employment bureaus of neighboring villages should as far as possible cooperate with each other.
23. Bureaus in villages should try to interest themselves in the question of the depopulation of the country districts and the scarcity of farm laborers.

One conclusion, however, not directly stated by Doctor Varlez, though it may be deduced perhaps from his conclusions, seems to be regarded in European practice as of great importance and to deserve direct statement. The different local employment bureaus should be connected very closely by telephone and in other ways, and all should be developed into one complete, harmonious, and effective system.

MEANS OTHER THAN THE EMPLOYMENT BUREAU OF FINDING WORK FOR THE UNEMPLOYED WHO ARE EMPLOYABLE.

Apart from employment bureaus the main other means which foreign countries have adopted to find work for the unemployed who are employable may be summed up in the phrase "Back to the land."

This is not to say that foreign countries consider agriculture the only important or valuable work for the unemployed, for every country does what it can to develop industries of all kinds, and this, of course, tends to absorb such of the unemployed as are available in such industries, but the tendency of economic life in all countries is so strongly to the city and away from the country that, apart from general measures favorable to all industry, any direct government activity in placing people in permanent work—apart from temporary relief work—has, as a matter of fact and perhaps wisely, been directed to getting them “back to the land.”

These efforts will not be studied in this article so fully as employment bureaus have been, partly because they have not yet developed anything like the same success, and partly because conditions as to land ownership and development are so different in the United States and in Europe that a study of the details of European methods on this point is not of large practical value for the United States. Nevertheless, these efforts in a general way are most important and suggestive.

In general it may be said that the European efforts to get the unemployed back to the land are divided into the two main subheads of colonization to foreign lands and efforts at placing men on land in the home country. These are considered separately.

COLONIZATION.

Efforts at colonizing unemployed workmen in foreign countries play a considerable part in European discussions, and yet the treatment of the subject here can be especially brief because there is perhaps no portion of the whole question less applicable to the situation in the United States. Few, if any, seriously purpose to send the unemployed of the United States to foreign shores.

In Europe, however, the subject is widely discussed, and particularly in Great Britain. Not a few of the British colonies, including some of the most important, have been consciously developed, in part, to find an outlet for England's surplus labor. A similar element enters into Germany's present colonial discussions. Even England's early penal colonies, some of them now great commonwealths, like New South Wales, have been used to find place for her vagrants, and some of these convicts and vagrants, sent out in this way by England, have developed into valuable and successful citizens.

In more recent times, however, propositions for the colonization of England's unemployed have played no small part. Perhaps the best known of these recent propositions has been that of Mr. Rider Haggard, in a report issued in 1905.

After a visit as government commissioner on this subject to this country Mr. Haggard was instructed by the English Government to

investigate agricultural and industrial settlements which have been established in Colorado and California by the Salvation Army. These settlements were established with the idea of facilitating the flow of suitable men and women from the great cities of this country to the land, and the commissioner's special object was to ascertain how far an analogous system might be with advantage applied in the emigration of the urban population of the United Kingdom to different parts of the British Empire, especially Canada.

On the whole the experiments seem to Mr. Haggard to be eminently successful, and to demonstrate in the case of Fort Romie that indigent people of the agricultural laborer class can be settled upon land and there do well, and in the case of Fort Amity that such persons can even be taken from towns and yet prosper. In both cases they are nearly self-supporting (according to Mr. Haggard), for though nominally there has been a total loss of about £10,000 (\$48,665) on the two he attributes the loss to certain exceptional difficulties—to the high rate of interest the Salvation Army has to pay, and charges which should not have been included.

To quote Mr. Haggard's own words:

Broadly stated, these results may be said to include the turning of a block of waste prairie land into a prosperous settlement, where a population of about 270 persons are living in happiness, health, and comfort, with a good prospect of becoming entirely independent and, in sundry instances, comparatively wealthy.

Mr. Haggard suggests that these colonies or settlements might well be established by an arrangement between the British and Canadian governments, and he has drawn up a scheme and given a financial estimate whereby land which the Canadian government is willing to grant, 240,000 acres, should be divided up among 1,500 families, or about 7,500 people. The cost of emigrating and establishing such a number in Canada he puts down roughly at £200 (\$973) per family, or £300,000 (\$1,459,950) in all, and he suggests that the interest on such a loan should be guaranteed by His Majesty's Government, or perhaps by a combination of the two governments. He adds that the municipalities might be empowered to join in the guaranty. For the management of such a vast organization he suggests the appointment of a superintendent of land settlements, or a board representative of the colonial office, the colonies, and the treasury, whereof the superintendent would be a member. The expenses and salary of his office would be a charge on the land-settlements loan.

He believes, however, that under the superintendence of such an official the work should be carried out by some such private and philanthropic body as the Salvation Army.

Mr. Haggard's scheme, however, has not been generally favored. Many question the real success of the Salvation Army colonies. Mr.

John Burns, as president of the Local Government Board, is strongly opposed to such schemes. He himself visited the colonies and considers them to be anything but a success. For this and for other reasons, therefore, Mr. Haggard's proposal has come to nothing, while the same result has befallen various other similar propositions.

In spite of this, a great deal is actually being done in small ways to send the abler of England's unemployed to the British colonies and to Canada in particular. Mr. Burns himself, though a most pronounced foe of so-called labor colonies, greatly favors getting the unemployed British workmen on the land in ordinary industry in England's various colonies.

The Central (Unemployed) Body for London has a permanent emigration committee that undertakes to assist unemployed workmen and their families to emigrate, especially to Canada and New Zealand, if their cases seem to offer any basis for the hope of their doing well in those countries.

A close scrutiny of the applicants is made so as to avoid sending out emigrants who would not be welcome in their new home, but great care is taken to avoid rejecting men without good cause shown.

The following, condensed from the preliminary report of this body and covering the period from the organization of the body in November, 1905, to May 12, 1906, throws considerable light upon the methods pursued: (a)

Nearly 600 applications have been received from single men, and the decision as to the best way of dealing with these occupied a considerable amount of the time of the committee. A wide experience had shown that it was desirable to take special steps to make unmarried men feel when they went to Canada that they were taking a serious step, and it was also felt that such men, without dependents, should make some contribution toward the expense incurred on their behalf. On the other hand, it was not desired to make it unnecessarily difficult for men in distress from unemployment to sail. The plan was therefore decided upon of insisting on the provision—save in very exceptional cases—of a guarantor for the repayment by the applicant of £4 [\$19.47] toward the total expenses of his emigration. Forms for guarantors were prepared for signature by the guarantors and by the applicants, stating that £2 [\$9.73] was to be paid by the latter within six months of the date of signing the agreement, and the remaining £2 [\$9.73] within eighteen months. In a few cases either the first installment of £2 [\$9.73] or the whole £4 [\$19.47] has been immediately forthcoming.

Guarantors have been provided by 297 out of the 587 provisionally accepted. Up to May 31 [1906] 134 single men had sailed to Canada or New Zealand.

Toward the end of February [1906] the office of the government of New Zealand made public the particulars of a new offer to emi-

^a The report of the emigration committee was brought up to May 31, 1906.

grants made by that colony, brought about by the demand that existed there for suitable men for railway extension work. For such men, especially for those who could be described as "good pick and shovel men," the government offered to remit the capital qualification of £50 [\$243.33] that had been previously enforced, and to extend the present system of the reduced £10 [\$48.67] passages to such men as might be accepted. It was stated that single men would be preferred, but that the claims of suitable men with not more than two children would also be considered.

All suitable single men who had applied to their distress committees and had expressed no special desire to go to Canada had the offer of the New Zealand government brought to their notice, and a certain number of cases of married men with small families have been also selected for this colony. Up to May 31, 73 individuals have gone, not to the great colony of the west, but to the flourishing islands of the Southern Hemisphere.

At the outset the arrangements made with the Joint East End Committee for payment not to exceed £9 [\$43.80] per adult of cases dealt with was to include the provision of necessary outfit, but the unexpected pressure of the numbers applying for emigration made it necessary subsequently to modify this arrangement. For a few weeks prior to May 2 [1906] payment was made by the central body for the wages of two forewomen employed under the direction of Mrs. Vatcher, who has, for some years, organized this branch of the work of the joint committee. After May 2 it was agreed that payment for outfit should be made at the rate of £1 [\$4.87] per adult and 10s. [\$2.43] per child on all cases dealt with by the joint committee.

This rearrangement happened to afford an admirable opportunity for meeting in some measure the requirements of the women's work committee, which was considering the best means of dealing with qualified applicants who had been referred to them, and several women recommended by this committee were accordingly found ordinary employment under Mrs. Vatcher on work for the emigrants.

The following table gives the general results of the work of the winter [1905-6] up to May 31 [1906]. It has been carried out under some difficulty, owing partly to the general pressure upon all departments of the work of the central body, partly to the unexpectedly numerous claims made by applicants for emigration, and to the late date at which many of these were forwarded to the central office by the distress committees, and partly owing to the pressure on the organization of the Joint East End Committee, with which the central body has been in most active cooperation.

As regards the men who have been selected, although they represent a great variety of occupations, very many of them belong to the general laboring class, for which there is such an abundant opening in Canada at the present time, and of which there is a superabundance in London.

Every man emigrated has employment found for him on the other side, although it is made a condition that those who go must be willing to accept any suitable employment offered them, whether it be at their own past trade—if they have one—or not.

The statement showing statistics of emigration through applications submitted by distress committees to the Central (Unemployed) Body up to May 31, 1906, follows:

Applications.

Number of applications submitted by distress committees.....	1, 847
Declined by emigration committee of Central (Unemployed) Body--	191
Referred to—	
Joint East End Emigration Committee.....	925
Self-Help Society.....	242
New Zealand government.....	158
Other societies.....	31
Deferred.....	98
Under consideration or in abeyance.....	202

Decisions.

Number of decided cases at May 31.....	1, 191
Declined by emigration committee of Central (Unemployed) Body--	266
Applications for New Zealand declined by the high commissioner --	40
Sailed to May 31.....	350
Recommended and sailing at a future date.....	161
Withdrawn.....	374

Sailings.

Number of families sailing to May 31.....	^a 350
Number of those referred to East End committee.....	185
Number referred to Self-Help Society.....	^b 115
Number referred to New Zealand government.....	^c 41
Number referred to other societies.....	9
Expenditure to May 31.....	\$40, 738. 09
Number of persons emigrated to May 31.....	1, 191

SIZE OF FAMILIES REPORTED BY CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY AS EMIGRATING UP TO MAY 31, 1906.

Size of family.	Total families.	Total persons.	Size of family.	Total families.	Total persons.
1 person.....	134	134	7 persons.....	27	189
2 persons.....	13	26	8 persons.....	8	64
3 persons.....	42	126	9 persons.....	6	54
4 persons.....	48	192	10 persons.....	4	40
5 persons.....	42	210			
6 persons.....	26	156	Total.....	350	1,191

MALE HEADS OF FAMILIES REPORTED BY CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY AS EMIGRATING UP TO MAY 31, 1906, BY AGE GROUPS.

Age group.	Number.	Age group.	Number.
20 years or under.....	14	41 to 45 years.....	24
21 to 25 years.....	83	46 to 50 years.....	11
26 to 30 years.....	93	Over 50 years.....	1
31 to 35 years.....	72		
36 to 40 years.....	52	Total.....	350

^a Of these 134 were single men.

^b Of these 108 were single men, and 7 were families comprising 36 persons.

^c Of these 26 were single men.

MEN REPORTED BY CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY AS EMIGRATING UP TO
MAY 31, 1906, BY OCCUPATIONS.

Trade and occupation.	Total men.	Trade and occupation.	Total men.
Building trades (exclusive of laborers):		Printing and paper trades—Concluded.	
Bricklayers.....	18	Compositor.....	1
Mason.....	1	Paper stainers.....	2
Slater and tiler.....	1	Box cutter.....	1
Plasterers.....	5	Dress:	
Lath render.....	1	Boot finisher.....	1
Carpenters.....	19	Oilskin dresser.....	1
Painters.....	19	Food and drink:	
Plumbers.....	3	Pastry cooks.....	2
Handy men.....	5	Dealers and clerks:	
Navvies.....	4	Clerk.....	1
Gas fitters.....	3	Traveler.....	1
Laborers:		Tailor.....	1
Builders, general and others.....	155	Grocer's agent.....	1
Woodworkers:		Locomotion, transport, and other	
Upholsterer.....	1	labor:	
Sawyers.....	2	Engine drivers and stokers.....	4
Cooper.....	1	Warehousemen.....	5
Metal workers:		Lightermen.....	2
Fitters.....	7	Stevedores.....	1
Iron workers.....	6	Shipwright.....	1
Smiths.....	4	Barge builder.....	1
Silversmiths.....	3	Gardener.....	1
Electric wire men.....	2	Stableman.....	1
Machinists.....	2	Coal trimmer.....	1
Zinc worker.....	1	Carmen.....	30
Plater.....	1	Porters.....	12
Tinsmith.....	1	Civil and municipal services:	
Gun maker.....	1	Lamplighter.....	1
Sundry manufactures:		Service (various):	
Mill hand.....	1	Farm bailiff.....	1
Spinner.....	1	Window cleaner.....	1
Glass cutter.....	1	Storekeeper.....	1
Harness maker.....	1	Unclassified:	
Machine band finisher.....	1	Stock cutter.....	1
Printing and paper trades:		Total.....	350
Pressmen.....	2		

The following figures from the second report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, covering the work of that body from May 12, 1906, to June 30, 1907, show a considerable advance in the number of persons assisted to emigrate during that period. In all, 5,415 persons were assisted to emigrate, of whom 1,800 were heads of families and single men. The destination was Canada. The report states that the net expenditure on emigration and migration from November 10, 1906, to November 2, 1907, was £38,613 17s. 11d. (\$187,914.52).

With the English labor colonies, which will be considered later, no little effort has been made to aid the most capable and promising of the colonists to emigrate, particularly to Canada. The emigrants from the Hollesley Bay Colony are included in the report of the Central (Unemployed) Body, but at every labor colony visited it was stated that the best colonists are sent to Canada or other British colonies.

The following as to results is from a report of the emigration committee:

From most of the cases that have gone out communications have been received. In only one case has the wish been expressed to return. In a few instances letters to friends have been seen, and in two or three other cases the news has come that those who have already gone are hoping that some relative will soon be able to follow, thus

affording sufficiently conclusive evidence that the outlook is being regarded as satisfactory.

The letters have drawn attention not only to the chances that the country offers, but also to the responsibility that rests upon the individual for grasping these. "As to my opinion of this country," writes one man, "it is that if a man is willing he can get on, but they don't want wastrels or lazy men here." The benefit to the family health is frequently mentioned, and pleasant pictures are often drawn of the special happiness and well-being of the children. On the whole, the communications received afford convincing proofs in the great majority of cases of that renewal of hope which is the greatest safeguard as to the future, not merely of success but also of assured content, that a man can possess.

Colonization as a solution for the unemployed in other European countries plays probably a much larger part than in Great Britain, but in most cases it is not so much a question of the direct solution of the unemployment problem as a matter of general emigration of the working classes. It is therefore a question beyond the limits of this article. But emigration is a large fact and a large problem in practically every European country. The importance of emigration to Europe's working classes may be seen by the amount of immigration in the United States.

On account of the depression in the labor market in the United States during the winter of 1907-8 thousands of European laborers were returning to Europe from the United States every week, almost by every steamer. This became a matter of concern to every European government, and each labor bureau manifested anxiety concerning the prospects of the duration of the depression in the United States. It is hard to imagine what would be Europe's unemployed problem were it not for the million she sends almost annually to the United States; and it must be remembered that by no means all of Europe's emigration is to the United States. The visitor to Europe discovers that much of European emigration goes to South America, and even Africa and Asia and the various European colonies, because it is this emigration rather than that to the United States which one hears most discussed. In several countries, indeed, there is serious discussion of how to divert their emigrants from going to the United States and of inducing them to go to their own colonies. It is apparent that all this bears very directly upon the problem of the unemployed.

BACK TO THE LAND.

"Back to the land" in other ways than by colonization to foreign lands is more distinctly an endeavor for the unemployed. In many countries the effort is being made to get the unemployed workmen from the cities back to the country. In all countries, however, it is a most difficult undertaking.

FREE COLONIES OF HOLLAND.

Among the oldest, in some ways the most interesting, but probably not the most successful of these efforts are the so-called free colonies of Holland, not to be confused with the Dutch penal colonies, and not similar to the more famous German labor colonies, which are of quite another class. The German labor colonies are in the main but temporary shelters for the lower class of workmen. The Dutch free colonies are attempts at getting the unemployed of the cities, with their families, permanently on the land. There are three of these colonies situated near together in the province of Overijssel, near Steenwyk, east of the Zuider Zee. The colonies own about 10,000 acres of land, consisting of sand and heath, not favorable to agriculture, and yet they have a thrift and a quiet beauty which make them among the most attractive of all the various industrial colonies of Europe. The public buildings are substantial and well built of brick. The workingmen's cottages have their living rooms and stalls for the animals all under one roof, but are usually neatly kept, attractive, and picturesque. There are three colonies, Frederiksoord, Willemsoord, and Wilhelminasoord. They are supported by and belong to a Dutch charitable society, Maatschappij van Weldadigheid (Society of Beneficence) founded in 1818 by General van den Bosch, who had acquired in the Dutch East Indies a favorable impression of the system of small holdings, and conceived the design of placing the able-bodied paupers of Holland on small holdings subject to a life-rent, upon the great tract of moorland in the Provinces of Friesland and Overijssel in North Holland.

Within a year after its formation the society consisted of 20,000 members, and the annual subscriptions reached about \$22,500. The plans of the society included colonies for the repression of mendicity, for indigent persons and veterans, for inspectors of agricultural works, for orphans and foundlings, and for agricultural instruction, and free colonies.^(*)

A tract of land, about 1,200 acres in extent, was purchased for about \$23,300, "the money being raised by loan, to be repaid by installments in sixteen years, with interest at 6 per cent." Additional estates were purchased from time to time until in 1827, the free colonies covered altogether an area of 2,900 acres; the colonies of veterans 1,253 acres, and the beggar colonies 4,280 acres, or an aggregate of 8,433 acres, upon which there were 6,751 persons, including officials. In addition to the amount of land in cultivation, as above detailed, the society owned about 5,000 acres of heath land.

^{*}The Dutch Labor Colonies. By H. G. Willink (London, 1889), p. 3.

The two most important departments were the beggar colonies and the free colonies. The beggar colonies were administered by the society up to 1859, when the Government took them over.

The beggar colonies were penal rather than reformatory. The conditions are described as having been insanitary.

The free colonies were conducted upon a different principle. The colonists were from the beginning, and are now, not peasant proprietors, but life renters. The distinction between the free colonists and a farmer working under the ordinary conditions of tenant farming lies simply in the circumstance that the free farmer is entitled to rely upon the society to make up any deficiency in his maintenance, whereas the tenant farmer has no such resource.

Sir John MacNeill, who visited the colonies in 1853, reported that at Frederiksoord there were only 16 free farmers, against 25 in 1848, and that, owing to the want of aptitude of the colonists for agricultural labor, and a general want of economical habits, "the free colony, regarded as an attempt to make the families maintain themselves, must be pronounced a failure."

The above account, condensed from Mr. Willink's book, states briefly the history of the colonies, and their condition is not essentially different to-day. The motto of General van den Bosch was a noble one, "Help the people and improve the land," but the result was a disappointment to its founder, and is not enthusiastically spoken of in Holland to-day. Of the elaborate plans little remains but the colonies for more or less indigent and aged men, sometimes with their families, a few of whom have been given the life tenancy of small farms, and are well housed and cared for. But neither in quality or quantity have important results been attained. The number of families is not large, and little of the spirit of freedom is developed. The best result is in the education of the children of the colonists, who are taught horticulture and similar pursuits, which has enabled some of them to acquire desirable situations. This is distinctly worth doing even for a few, but the colonies are an expensive way of doing it, and they can not be said to contribute much to the solution of getting the unemployed on the land.

In 1906 the benevolent society consisted of 83 branches with 8,944 members, represented in practically all the cities and large towns of Holland. Each ward or town contributing a certain amount is entitled to send a certain number of indigent persons to the colony. The men sent are usually over 40 years of age and are men who for one reason or another have not been successful in the city, but are recommended by charitable associations and societies. Most of them are unskilled laborers, and few of them have any knowledge of agricultural work. Frederiksoord, the best known of the three, has a population of 1,900, and the work on which colonists are engaged is

chiefly agricultural, although it includes dairying, brick making, mat making, and basket work. Wages paid for basket making by piece-work amount to about 32 cents per day.

On arrival each laborer's family is housed in a separate cottage with a garden, and the members of the family who are capable of working are given some light employment. The man himself is set to work on one of five large farms, in the central dairying establishment, or in the basket-making or mat-making workshops. The children who are too young to work are sent to the public schools, which are built and maintained by the Government. A speciality is made of teaching the older boys horticulture or tree raising. After the laborer has been in the colony a certain number of years, at least two, he may be promoted to the class of "free farmer," provided there is a vacancy. At present there are over 150 free farms of $6\frac{1}{4}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ acres, all in good condition. The necessary capital is advanced by the colony, and in many cases the free farmer has more than doubled the value of his stock and plant.

The three colonies receive married men with their families, as well as unmarried men. At Frederiksoord there are at least 400 families. As a rule a colonist is not capable of earning his own living until he has been two years in the colony, so that this is the shortest probation possible in which to qualify for the position of a free farmer. Sometimes men remain four or five years before they obtain this promotion. The holdings are cultivated on what is practically a life tenure. Rent is paid to the colony, which provides stock and seeds and the necessary credit. If the free farmer conducts himself well, he can hold his farm until death, while frequently in such a case the widow is allowed to retain the holding, providing she can cultivate it herself with the aid of the members of her family. In a few cases the daughter of a free farmer who marries the son of a colonist takes over the farm, but there is no legal right to a holding under such circumstances, and a farmer might possibly be expelled without compensation for improvement. Such cases, however, are few and far between. Besides growing enough food to supply his family, a free farmer keeps two or three milch sheep and four or five pigs; for the rest the principal produce is butter and potatoes. Generally speaking, the credit of the farmers is improving, and there are few bad debts. No interest is charged on loans, but the amount due to the colony by the free farmers is steadily decreasing.

For the aged and invalids at Willemsoord, Dutch benevolence has erected a homelike and attractive old men's home. Altogether the life of the colonists in the central farms or in their little cottages, widely scattered over the broad acres, usually neat and well kept, and each with its little patch of ground for cultivation, is attractive, but the Dutch colonies can not be considered sociologically of great im-

portance. To carry large numbers of needy families in this way, would be, to say the least, very expensive, and while in Willemsoord, on the whole the best of the colonies, one is conscious of an attractive spirit of peace and quiet, there seems lacking that spirit of progress, of endeavor, and of self-reliance which freemen should have. The cost to the society for each man, woman, or child at the colonies is said to be about \$7.50 annually, without allowing for interest on the capital invested. A number of children (orphans and children of paupers) are boarded out with the colonists by poor-law authorities and charitable societies, the money paid for their maintenance going to the persons in whose houses they live. Children of from 4 to 8 years of age are preferred; those coming to a colony after attaining the age of 8 are difficult to deal with. In no case are children over 12 years taken.

GERMAN HOME COLONIES.

Only two of Germany's labor colonies have attempted to get the colonists at all permanently on the land. This idea, which the Germans call the establishment of Heimat-kolonisten (home colonists), was broached as long ago as 1886, but with small result. At Friedrichwilhelmsdorf, near Walsdorf, about 3 miles from Bremerhaven, 12 colonists were taken on the understanding that it meant permanent settlement if they proved industrious and capable. It has proved very slow work. At the present time there are only four or five colonists permanently settled on farms of their own, and some forty or fifty are in the probation stage working on the farm.

Another and more successful experiment was begun in December, 1898, by the executive committee of the town labor colony at Hamburg. It acquired an estate of over 900 acres at Schäferhof in Holstein, which has now developed into one of the most interesting and attractive of all the German labor colonies.

A member of the central board in 1903 thus described its aims and results at that time:

Whereas up till now the colonies have had a constant succession of inmates who, on account of their want of strength and skill, have been hardly able to do as much as one-half or one-quarter of a man's work, we have in our permanently settled inmates at our home colony at Schäferhof got together a set of workmen who have so far done really wonderfully good work. Our home colonists, who now number 100, not only do all the agricultural work on the Schäferhof estate of over 875 acres, but also, even in the first four years, when there were many fewer colonists, they helped us to build a big cow house, a colonists' house with cubicles for 60 men, and a splendid greenhouse, which last, indeed, they built entirely themselves. Besides this they have in the same period put 113 acres of heath and moorland into cultivation, and have macadamized a length of 2,040 yards of field roads, which

they carried out in an altogether satisfactory manner, and for which they broke up about 400 cubic yards of stone. In the last two years they have planted out and tended 7,854,500 saplings for other people, and 83,000 oak, fir, apple, and pear tree saplings for the colony.

The colony owes part of its success to the generosity of the rich men of Hamburg, who have erected buildings for it, among the most substantial and attractive to be found in all the German colonies, supplied in many cases with up-to-date conveniences, while many of the barns for the stock are models of their kind. A spirit of success reigns at Schäferhof not found in other colonies. A report of this colony, made in 1907 (for the year 1906), shows the progressive spirit of the colony.

The regular agricultural occupations were carried on with success, and experiments were made with manures and regarding adaptability of soils to various products. During the year the nursery sold and delivered 600,000 4-year-old pine trees, 60,000 3-year-old birch trees, 10,000 2-year-old birch trees, 700,000 3-year-old common alders, 10,000 2-year-old common alders, 30,000 4-year-old ash trees, 5,000 3-year-old Canadian poplars, and 30,000 2-year-old white alders. The colony was also successful in the breeding of horses, cattle, and other domestic animals, for the shelter of which necessary buildings were erected by the colonists. At the close of the year there were 97 men at the colony, of whom 74 had been there less than one year.

This colony is typical to a large extent of all the German colonies. Religion is a prominent feature of the colony, and is an essential characteristic of all the German colonies. Frequent references to gifts by donors are made in the reports of the colony. None of the colonies pretends or aims to be economically independent.

The report shows that Schäferhof is a permanent free home for workmen, the most of whom are able to do considerable work, but not capable, for one reason or another, of winning their own way in life. There is little or no attempt to get families or single men in homes of their own on the land. At Schäferhof the men all live in the dormitories and general living rooms of the colony. Schäferhof, therefore, must be considered as a very prosperous and unusually attractive permanent farm home for the only partly employable. It must not be considered an endeavor to get other employed workmen on to the land. No existent colony, so far as known, has succeeded in this, only the Dutch free colonies even aiming at this end.

MEANS OF RELIEF OTHER THAN EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS FOR THE TEMPORARILY UNEMPLOYED WHO ARE EMPLOYABLE.

Thus far consideration has been given to the needs only of those who are unemployed and without prospect of returning to their former work—those who for one reason or another find themselves in need of a new position or a new career. The needs of those only

temporarily unemployed—who have work in prospect, but who through the temporary shut down of a mill, mine, or other establishment, or for some other cause, are in temporary need—are next considered. Their need, generally speaking, is not for a new situation, but, as stated above, for some form of temporary aid to enable them to tide over the waiting time. The form of this relief which has been most developed and is in many ways the best is the trade union out-of-work benefit.

TRADE UNION OUT-OF-WORK BENEFITS.

This form of relief for the temporarily unemployed is developed more or less wherever there are trade unions. It is considered here, however, but briefly, for the reason that this is one of the subjects on which Europe has least to teach America. American trade union benefits, though not to be compared with those paid by British unions, exceed those of any other country in the world, except England. This is partly because most of the American unions are stronger than the continental European trade unions and partly because wages in the United States in most trades, being materially higher, members of American trade unions can and do pay higher dues to their unions, and therefore the unions can and do give larger and more out-of-work benefits.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The trade unions of Great Britain, in proportion to the population of the country, lead the trade unions of the world. They lead in numbers, in extent of influence, in solidarity of organization, in many ways. They lead in the amount of insurance or benefits given to those out of work. Trade unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor reported, in 1905, \$85,050 paid out in unemployed benefits.^(a) This is not the whole amount paid out in such benefits in the United States, but it is a large share of it. Only 15 national unions paid such benefits, though the above amount does not include large sums paid out by local lodges or branches of the national unions, of which no report is made to the national officers. Of this sum, too, a large portion was paid out by a few unions. The cigar makers alone, in 1905, paid out \$29,872 in unemployed benefits, while in 1896 they paid out as high as \$175,767, showing what the Americans can do, and on occasion have done, in times of especial need. But in Great Britain, in 1904, 81 of the 100 principal unions paid out in unemployment dues £647,722 (\$3,152,139). This is nearly \$3 per head for the 1,127,529 members of the 100 unions covered by the report, while in the 125 national unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor so few of the unions reported such benefits

^a Bulletin of New York Department of Labor, March, 1906.

to the national officers that the average is less than 6 cents. The following table from the Report of the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1902-1904, shows the expenditure of the 100 principal unions for ten years:

UNEMPLOYED BENEFITS PAID BY 100 PRINCIPAL TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, BY GROUPS OF TRADES, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Building, 12 unions.	Mining and quarry- ing, 15 unions.	Metal, engineer- ing, and ship- building, 15 unions.	Textile, 22 unions.	Clothing, 4 unions.	Trans- porta- tion, 10 unions.	Other, 22 unions.	Total, 100 principal unions.
1895.....	\$254,737	\$331,146	\$935,852	\$244,040	\$14,118	\$17,057	\$231,329	\$2,028,279
1896.....	122,144	208,753	550,070	171,496	11,680	15,042	196,534	1,275,719
1897.....	117,847	121,064	947,069	205,055	9,709	16,337	186,757	1,603,838
1898.....	108,275	66,841	523,684	170,493	10,322	86,521	195,614	1,161,750
1899.....	118,144	49,867	396,678	131,965	6,711	14,682	197,161	915,208
1900.....	225,587	21,505	456,585	300,078	7,971	17,578	251,710	1,281,014
1901.....	327,165	86,269	655,727	219,392	8,375	16,935	281,303	1,595,166
1902.....	359,167	91,860	996,294	275,726	6,604	16,473	317,496	2,063,620
1903.....	393,223	87,694	1,090,305	556,358	7,378	17,471	327,895	2,480,324
1904.....	668,618	229,650	1,482,015	348,626	8,687	21,413	393,130	3,152,139

The report says of this table:

Under the heading of "unemployed benefits" are included not only ordinary weekly benefit or "donation," but also payments to members traveling in search of employment, payments on account of fires at works, failures of firms, temporary stoppages and breakdowns of machinery, emigration grants, special grants during times of excessive slackness in trade, and all other payments on account of unemployment, except such as have already been treated of under the head of "dispute benefit." During 1904 81 of the 100 unions, representing 84 per cent of the total membership of the 100, paid unemployed benefit in one form or another, and sometimes in several forms. The expenditure incurred by the 100 unions on unemployed benefit during the ten years 1895-1904 is shown by groups of trades. * * *

It will be seen that a greater expenditure was incurred on this benefit during the years 1902-1904 than in any other years in the table, the total spent in these three years (£1,581,441) [\$7,696,083] being only slightly less than that expended during the previous six years, 1896-1901 (£1,609,513) [\$7,832,695].

The unemployed benefits of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, which is one of the largest unions, were £90,814 (\$441,946) for 70,763 persons, or £1 5s. 8d. (\$6.25) per head, in 1904. The Amalgamated Engineers, a still larger union, with 96,106 members, spent £120,560 (\$586,705), or £1 5s. 1d. (\$6.10) per head. The Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, with 48,776 members, spent £82,697 (\$402,445), or £1. 13s. 11d. (\$8.25) per head. Mr. Percy Alden (^a) says that the highest rate of payment with which any society begins is 18s. (\$4.38) per week (London Coach Makers), and the lowest 3s. 6d. (85 cents) (a textile union).(^a) Many of these unions, though not all, have special unemployment dues, so that the

^a The unemployed, p. 58.

payment becomes a regular insurance premium against unemployment. "In England," says Mr. Alden, "there are over 200 unions giving unemployed benefit, these unions being chiefly found in the engineering, iron, shipbuilding, building, textile, clothing, and printing trades. As a rule the payments to the unemployed are graduated on a descending scale, but there is no uniform rule, and there is a growing feeling among trade unionists that a high scale of payment established at the outset tends to encourage the malingerer." (a)

THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

Trade unionism is not so strong in Germany as in Great Britain, and naturally does not do so much in unemployed benefits, but the following table, compiled from the recent report upon unemployment by the Labor Department of the German Imperial Statistical Office, gives for 1904 the facts as to unemployed benefits of the German unions. (b)

EXPENDITURES OF THE GERMAN TRADE UNIONS FOR 1904.

Societies.	Unemployment (in loco).	Strikes.	Victimized and locked out men (Gemassregelten).	Unemployment (traveling).	Moving.	Other benefits (sick, death, etc.).	Total of benefits.	Total of all expenses.
Trade unions (Gewerkschaften).....	\$380,663	\$1,359,985	\$127,618	\$153,943	\$147,967	\$425,034	\$2,595,210	\$4,221,823
Hirsch-Duncker trade unions (Gewerkvereine).....	(b)	c 57,276	a 16,984	74,260	235,063
Christian trade unions (mainly Roman Catholic).....	d 31,740	(b)	14,013	45,753	e 169,384
Independent societies (1903).....	6,962	283	631	244	11,572	19,692	161,530

a Including expenditures for cases of distress.

b Included in expenditures for strikes.

c Including expenditures for unemployment.

d Including expenditures for trade disputes.

e Other Christian unions not yet joined had total expenses of 382,943 marks (\$91,140).

This shows that, including benefits paid out for traveling and moving, something like 3,000,000 marks (\$714,000) was paid out for unemployment in 1904. The membership of the unions in that year was as follows:

Trade unions	1,052,108
Hirsch-Duncker unions.....	111,889
Christian trade unions.....	118,917
Independent societies.....	74,458
Total.....	1,357,372

a The Unemployed, p. 58.

b Die bestehenden Einrichtungen zur Versicherung gegen die Folgen der Arbeitslosigkeit. Teil III., p. 239.

This makes an average expenditure of over 50 cents per head for each member of the unions. The rates of payment to the unemployed were about 30 cents per day for an average of about 125 days. Members are generally entitled to support after a membership in the union of three months (in some cases six months).

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

In Austria-Hungary, according to the *Gewerkschaft*, the organ of the Austrian trade unions (Social Democratic), the amount of benefits paid out for unemployment by the Austrian unions in 1905, with 323,099 members, was nearly \$149,000, and for traveling benefits \$24,000, or together about 54 cents per head. The similar amounts paid out by 40 Hungarian unions, with 71,173 members, were \$33,550 and \$8,000, or about 58 cents per head.

THE GHENT SYSTEM.

A system which has been successfully operated in several countries of Europe and is now being extended to others is the so-called Ghent system, which is said to have originated in 1900 in Ghent, Belgium.

The creation of the plan followed the report of a special commission on unemployment, which reported April 10, 1900. The idea was to make grants from a municipal fund to trade unions which had unemployment benefits; the subsidy to be granted to the trade union to be proportionate to the amount of the unemployed benefit paid by the trade union. There was a section of the scheme which was to apply to nonunionists who paid dues to a special fund for the purpose, but this portion of the plan has proved a total failure. The plan of making grants to the trade unions, however, has been a marked success. The plan was adopted October 29, 1900, and since then has been only slightly changed. The exact details are of interest, as the plan has worked with marked success and has been copied in practically all the Belgian cities and is now being introduced into France, Holland, Denmark, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Scandinavia, and other countries. The rules as modified down to February 22, 1904, are as follows:

ARTICLE 1. There is established by the city of Ghent and its suburbs ("The Ghent Agglomeration") a special fund to encourage provision against unemployment. This fund shall receive from the communal administrations of the Ghent Agglomeration annual subsidies, the amount of which shall be determined by the communal councils according to needs and circumstances.

Each subsidy shall be payable January 1. The affiliated communes shall pay interest at the rate of 3 per cent per annum on all sums paid after the date when they are due.

The city of Ghent shall advance the cost of administration of this fund. The other communes shall contribute to this expense in proportion to their population.

The subsidies of the various communes shall be carried in a special account, each commune being required to look out for the needs of the unemployed having residence within that commune.

ART. 2. This fund shall be administered by a committee elected every three years. Ten members of this committee shall be appointed by the communal council of Ghent. Each member shall have an alternate, who shall replace him in case of resignation.

Three of the delegates from Ghent shall be communal councilors and five shall be members of the associations of workmen and of employees affiliated with the fund.

Any member who shall have absented himself without cause for three consecutive meetings shall be considered as having resigned, and provision shall be made for his replacement.

The communal council shall fill all vacancies which may occur in the administration of this fund through resignation, retirement, or otherwise.

The burgomaster of Ghent, or an alderman delegated by him, shall have the right to preside at the meetings of this commission. In such cases he shall have a casting vote, but only in case of a tie.

Each one of the suburban communes affiliated with the fund shall also have the right to appoint one delegate, who shall have the same rights as the ten delegates of the communal administration of Ghent.

ART. 3. The resources referred to in article 1 shall constitute the ordinary budget of the unemployment fund.

These resources shall be employed exclusively to aid the workmen and salaried employees of the affiliated communes in getting adequate unemployment benefits.

To these ordinary resources may be added the proceeds of subscriptions, festivals, bequests, or other donations.

These extraordinary resources, other than the communal subsidies, shall constitute a special account which the committee shall have power to employ for the purpose of combating the effects or causes of unemployment in any manner which may seem to it to be most efficacious.

ART. 4. The special fund shall encourage provision against unemployment in the following two ways:

First. By adding to the insurance benefits granted by the trade unions to their members out of employment;

Second. By augmenting the efficacy of savings made with the purpose of combating the financial consequences of unemployment.

ART. 5. The special fund shall increase the insurance benefits accorded by the labor unions by granting the unemployed a subsidy proportionate to the amount of the unemployment benefit.

The unemployment benefits shall not be increased by more than 100 per cent nor be granted to one member for more than sixty days per annum nor amount to more than 1 franc [19 cents] per day.

Strikes and lockouts or their consequences, as well as illness and physical incapacity for work, shall not be reasons for indemnification by the unemployment fund.

ART. 6. Associations of workmen and salaried employees who wish to have their members participate in the subsidies of the present fund shall report each month the number and amount of benefits which they have paid, and must submit annually the balance sheet of their operations, as well as forward their by-laws and regulations.

ART. 7. The committee shall appoint an auditor, whose duty shall be to examine into the correctness of the information furnished by the associations and individuals.

This auditor shall have the right to control all the books of the participating associations in regard to insurance against unemployment and to communicate to the committee the data thus obtained.

All the members of the committee shall pledge themselves not to divulge any personal information which they have obtained from the said books.

ART. 8. Any association or person refusing to submit to the requirements of these by-laws and the regulations which shall be adopted shall immediately cease to participate in the subsidies.

The committee is authorized to impose regulations for the purpose of control, to which all the associations and persons affiliated with the fund must submit within three months after notice to those concerned. Under the same conditions it can adopt general measures for the purpose of removing abuses which have been brought to its notice.

The retirement of the offender shall cease after he has submitted to the measures imposed.

ART. 9. Workmen and salaried employees not belonging to a trade union affiliated with the fund can participate in the subsidies granted to those who save to provide for unemployment.

The subsidies shall be given in one of two ways: Either directly to individual saving persons or to members of associations affiliated with this part of the unemployment fund.

ART. 10. By submitting to the measures of control prescribed by the regulations every unemployed workman and salaried employee who is a bona fide possessor of a savings account in the general savings and retirement fund can, when he makes withdrawals of savings, obtain the same additional payments as members of organizations insured against unemployment.

Every mutual association, cooperative association, labor union, establishment fund, workmen's society, or other group which has organized a system of savings for the purpose of relief of unemployment can be authorized to organize for itself the control under conditions agreeable to the committee of the fund.

The payments granted to owners of savings accounts shall not exceed the amount of those granted to insured persons.

The committee is authorized to permit the affiliation of all associations which, under any form whatever, have for their object the encouragement of provision against unemployment, and is authorized to grant to the members similar subsidies in appropriate form.

ART. 11. Any unemployed person who refuses employment indicated by the committee shall be excluded from participation in the benefits.

The committee shall, for this purpose, put itself into the closest possible communication with other institutions, public or private, which make efforts to overcome unemployment.

ART. 12. Each month the committee shall fix the amount of the additional payment which in case of unemployment shall be made to the amount of the insurance benefits and savings withdrawals.

ART. 13. For those communes of Ghent and its suburbs which consent thereto the committee is authorized to employ the reserves of preceding years and sums especially designated for this purpose, to constitute a special fund with the object of prolonging the period of additional payments to workmen and salaried employees who continue to be unemployed after their benefits have been exhausted.

These special subsidies, which shall be equal in amount to the last additional payments received, may be granted for half of the length of time for which benefits have been obtained.

ART. 14. The committee shall publish annual reports of its operations.

ART. 15. The committee shall adopt at its first meeting regulations indicating the details of organization, the exact conditions of participation, and the formalities to which the payments shall be subject.

The Ghent fund in aid of insurance against unemployment, so constituted, began operations in August, 1901, and a report upon it to the Milan Congress of 1906 shows its success.

The sums paid out by the municipality up to 1905 were as follows:

1901.....	6, 253. 84 francs (\$1, 206. 99)
1902.....	16, 171. 10 francs (\$3, 121. 02)
1903.....	17, 018. 63 francs (\$3, 284. 60)
1904.....	20, 641. 60 francs (\$3, 983. 83)
1905.....	16, 033. 77 francs (\$3, 094. 52)

In 1903 the fund was enabled to increase the amount paid out to those unemployed for a long period. Thirty-three unions having unemployment benefits have availed themselves of the funds. These unions had (1906) a membership of 13,241. The number of unemployed actually aided has not been small. In 1901 (five months) it was 2,089; in 1902, 3,250 for 31,325 days; in 1903, 2,711 for 30,296 days; in 1904, 3,010 for 36,402 days. The activities of the bureau in 1903 spread beyond Ghent to the neighboring villages. The effect upon the unions was to induce them to increase their own unemployment insurance funds and also to build up the unions by making it more desirable for the men to belong to them. The total amount paid out for unemployment from August 1, 1901, to September 1, 1903, was 120,845.70 francs (\$23,323.22), of which sum 36,963.91 francs (\$7,134.03), or 30.6 per cent, came from the municipal fund.

In the part of the original plan devoted to aiding the insurance against unemployment on the part of nonunionists it was proposed to create an especial saving fund for this class, and men out of employment, who had insured themselves in this fund, were to be aided by the general fund in proportion to the amounts they had paid in. This part of the plan was a complete failure.

A report published by the managing committee of the fund in 1903 says of this part of the plan:

The members of this association are authorized to arrange among themselves for the receipt of thrift contributions, and to verify themselves the accuracy of declarations of unemployment, and the fulfillment of the necessary formalities. The requisite special authority for the creation of this thrift fund was given on February 25, 1903, but up to the present time this fund has not, so far as we know, produced any results. In any case the experiment has been in existence for so short a time that it is not possible to draw from it any definite conclusions.

The general plan was so successful that it was soon copied. Antwerp created a fund in 1902 on almost exactly the same lines, only with some cooperation with the Antwerp labor exchange (public employment bureau). This fund, too, has succeeded, and with a still greater effect in increasing the amounts paid by the trade unionists themselves. In 1902 the unions paid in unemployment dues 8,787 francs (\$1,695.89), and received 5,284 francs (\$1,019.81) from the fund; in 1903 they paid 19,050 francs (\$3,676.65) in unemployment dues and received 8,766.12 francs (\$1,691.86) from the fund; in 1904 they paid 27,988 francs (\$5,401.68) and received 14,213 francs (\$2,743.11) from the fund.

From Antwerp the movement spread over Belgium and into Holland. At present every Belgian city having 40,000 inhabitants, except Verviers (where it is being agitated), has adopted the system. Several of the Provinces also have adopted it—West Flanders, Hainaut, and others.

The number of unemployed insurance funds in Belgium and their credits from 1900 to 1906 were as follows:

In 1900, 1 fund, with a credit of.....	1,500 francs (\$289.50)
In 1901, 2 funds, with a credit of.....	11,500 francs (\$2,219.50)
In 1902, 10 funds, with a credit of.....	41,500 francs (\$8,009.50)
In 1903, 16 funds, with a credit of.....	58,150 francs (\$11,222.95)
In 1904, 18 funds, with a credit of.....	60,800 francs (\$11,734.40)
In 1905, 24 funds, with a credit of.....	66,500 francs (\$12,834.50)
In 1906, 32 funds, with a credit of.....	82,650 francs (\$15,951.45)

The number of unions affiliated to these funds, their membership, and the amounts paid out from 1900 to 1904, were as follows:

In 1900, 3 unions, with 289 members, which paid out.....	1,220 francs (\$235.46)
In 1901, 29 unions, with 13,285 members, which paid out.....	19,090 francs (\$3,684.37)
In 1902, 105 unions, with 15,740 members, which paid out.....	68,992 francs (\$13,315.46)
In 1903, 143 unions, with 21,349 members, which paid out.....	72,298 francs (\$13,953.51)
In 1904, 140 unions, with 22,554 members, which paid out.....	84,187 francs (\$16,248.09)

THE FRENCH SYSTEM.

The French system is slightly different from the Belgian.

Following a discussion by the French Chamber of Deputies in 1904 of the subject of the unemployed in France, a fund of 110,000 francs (\$21,230) was voted for 1905 to aid trade union or local associations having insurance funds against unemployment. The plan adopted was the Ghent plan with a few modifications. The money granted was to be paid to the union or association itself, on the condition of its being limited to one trade, that it have at least 100 members, that these members pay an out-of-work due, and that the union or association handle the fund without charge. Only in communes of fewer than 20,000 inhabitants could the unions or associations be mixed, and unions or associations of fewer than 50 members could receive a subsidy if they were also subsidized by the commune. The amount of the subsidy was to be proportioned to the amount granted to the unemployed by the union or association, not to exceed 2 francs (39 cents) per day and for not more than sixty days in one year. A commission of 11 members, of whom 4 were to be administrators of such local insurance funds, was to have the general fund in charge.

By a decree of December 31, 1906, several modifications were made in the law, the principal of which are as follows: Unions or associations having more than 50 but fewer than 100 members may receive grants on condition of also receiving grants from the local commune. Grants may also be made in communes of 20,000 to 50,000 inhabitants to associations composed of representatives of different trades. The minimum grant from the State is fixed at 10 francs (\$1.93) half yearly, provided that the association has had continued existence during the half year and has paid at least 30 francs (\$5.70) in half-yearly indemnities against unemployment. Mutual aid societies having unemployment funds were allowed a representative on the general committee.

The following table, published in the Bulletin de l'Office du Travail for October, 1907 (p. 1043), gives the workings of the plan in 1906:

STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT FUNDS IN FRANCE, 1906.

Class of unions or associations.	Number of funds receiving subsidies.	Average membership of funds.	Number of unemployed.	Days unemployed were aided.	Indemnities paid by the funds.	Amount on which subsidies were calculated.	Amount of subsidies.
Federations.....	3	18,714	5,705	62,729	\$28,414	\$26,667	\$6,401
Local associations:							
Trade union funds of at least 100 members.....	19	14,698	1,506	27,099	9,334	7,146	1,142
Trade union funds of 50 to 100 members, subsidized by the commune or the department.....	1	62	60	553	107	107	17
Inter trade union funds of at least 50 members, subsidized by the commune or department and situated in cities of less than 50,000 population.....	2	174	128	1,504	585	575	93
Trade union funds with traveling benefit.....	6	693	417	417	67
Funds subsidized by application of article 12, decree of December 31, 1906 (a).....	2	100	57	82	33	32	8
Funds subsidized by application of article 23, decree of December 31, 1906 (b).....	1	94	9	156	60	60	10
Funds which have changed their character from one semester to another.....	2	221	23	228	88	88	15
Total.....	36	34,063	8,181	92,351	39,038	35,092	7,753
Funds subsidized for one semester only..	28	4,990	2,141	15,316	3,130	2,793	449
Grand total.....	64	39,053	10,322	107,667	42,168	37,885	8,202

^a Minimum allowed to unions paying at least 30 francs (\$5.70) the semester to the insured.

^b Making certain allowances for the years 1906 and 1907.

Already local bureaus to insure the unemployed have been established at Dijon, Limoges, Amiens, Agen, Asnières, Boulogne, Castres, Cherbourg, Châlons-sur-Marne, Issoudun, Lyon, Mâcon, Tarbes, Bourges, Melun, Vierzou, Toulouse, etc., while Paris is preparing to fall into line.

ITALY.

In Italy the Umanitaria, a philanthropic society to help the needy and the unemployed, has established (July 1, 1906) an endowed unemployment insurance bureau, on the Ghent plan, except that, being endowed, it pays larger benefits. It has already achieved considerable success, as is shown by the following statement from the organ of the Italian labor bureau, the Bolletino dell' Ufficio del Lavoro, April, 1907:

Members relieved	588
Days of relief.....	13,856
Receipts from the unions.....	15,132.25 lire (\$2,920.52)
Contribution of the Umanitaria.....	5,827.75 lire (\$1,124.76)
Total amount of receipts.....	20,960.00 lire (\$4,045.28)

The unions giving unemployment relief were only 24 out of 37. Each one of the out-of-work members received relief for twenty-three and five-tenths days, a sum of 35.65 lire (\$6.88), of which 25.74 lire (\$4.97) were given by the associations and 9.91 lire (\$1.91) by the Umanitaria. The relief per day was 1.51 lire (29 cents), of which 1.09 lire (21 cents) came from the associations and 0.42 lira (8 cents) from the Umanitaria.

The contribution of the unions for the whole number of persons relieved was 72.2 per cent and that of the Umanitaria 27.8 per cent.

Of the 24 unions giving nonemployment relief, those having the most unemployed were the typographical unions, which received the assistance of the Umanitaria to the extent of 69.8 per cent of the total amount of relief given.

OTHER COUNTRIES.

The Ghent system is spreading into other countries. In Germany it has as yet been adopted in only one city—Strassburg. The system, however, is being adopted in Norway, Denmark, Holland, and in at least two Swiss cities—Basel and Zurich. Its development, however, in these countries is yet too new to call for special notice, except that the general adoption of the system is a marked tribute to its merits and success.

INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT APART FROM TRADE-UNION BENEFITS.

The direct insurance of workmen against unemployment by State, charitable, or commercial bodies, apart from the trade unions, has been often proposed and more rarely discussed, but as yet very little tried. In the United States and in England there has been practically no attempt in this line. In Germany, where so much has been accomplished in industrial insurance against old age, sickness, and accident, the important and voluminous report upon the subject of unemployment referred to elsewhere has been issued and an imperial commission has been engaged in the study of the subject. The German accident insurance system allows those who have received accident insurance benefits to continue to receive these benefits even after recovery, if it can be shown that they are still out of work, but endeavoring to find work. For this class of persons this does constitute State aid in case of unemployment.

So far as municipalities are concerned, though Strassburg has in substance adopted the Ghent system of municipal aid to trade unions, and Munich has adopted the principle, while Baden is planning to

introduce the system into all her large cities, apart from aid to trade unions the only actual local attempts at unemployment insurance have been at Cologne and more recently at Leipzig.

Apart from these cities the direct insurance of the unemployed has been tried only in Switzerland, and that with no marked success, though with results which it is important to study.

SWITZERLAND.

The Swiss experiments began with a private bureau for the insurance of the unemployed, established at Bern in 1892, by the League of Manual Laborers through the efforts of Doctor Wassilieff, the labor secretary. It was founded on the principle that each one of its 600 members should pay dues in proportion to the wages earned and receive a benefit when out of work. The bureau, however, soon applied for municipal aid, and it was decided in January, 1893, to make it a municipal bureau. This took effect on April 1 of that year. Its regulations have been altered several times, but in the main its method of working has been as follows: Insurance in the bureau is voluntary upon the part of the workingmen and is open to any able-bodied Swiss citizen not over 60 years of age, living in Bern. Employees of the municipality are compelled to insure themselves. Men who have been insured in the bureau for at least eight (formerly six) months and have paid full 8 monthly premiums, if they have had employment for at least six months in the year, may, during the winter months, claim a daily allowance of about 29 cents a day for single men after they have been unemployed one week. No payment may be for more than ten weeks (originally two months). Unemployment due to incapacity for labor gives no claim to unemployment pay. The payment is about 10 cents more for married men than for single. In 1905 the number insured in the bureau was still 600, two-thirds of whom were married and 50 per cent of whom had been without work at least once between 1903 and 1905. They were almost exclusively from the building trades. In the year 1906-7 21 per cent of the receipts came from the dues of the insured, over two-thirds from the municipality, and about 6 per cent from employers and donations. The amount of the annual grant made by the municipality to cover deficits was increased from 5,000 francs (\$965) in 1894-95 to 7,000 francs (\$1,351) in 1895-96 and 12,000 francs (\$2,316) in 1899-1900. For one year (1900-1901) it was 13,200 francs (\$2,547.60), since which it has remained at 12,000 francs (\$2,316). The insurance bureau is worked in close connection with the Bern municipal employment bureau. The following table gives

particulars as to the number of persons insuring themselves and the number of persons unemployed in each of the financial years from 1893 to 1907:

PERSONS INSURED IN THE BERN BUREAU FOR THE INSURANCE OF THE UNEMPLOYED, AND NUMBER AND PER CENT UNEMPLOYED, 1893-94 TO 1906-7.

Year.	Number of insurers.					Proportion of insurers reporting themselves unemployed.
	At beginning of year.	New insurers during year.	Whose insurance lapsed in year.	At end of year.	Who reported themselves unemployed.	
1893-94.....		404	50	354	216	<i>Per cent.</i> 61.0
1894-95.....	354	126	67	413	226	54.7
1895-96.....	413	357	226	544	325	59.7
1896-97.....	544	290	340	494	242	49.0
1897-98.....	494	113	181	431	295	68.4
1898-99.....	431	235	123	543	375	69.1
1899-1900.....	543	151	109	585	297	50.8
1900-1.....	585	171	159	597	380	63.7
1901-2.....	597	171	124	644	248	38.5
1902-3.....	644	304	229	719	292	40.6
1903-4.....	719	214	335	598	297	49.7
1904-5.....	598	185	190	593	305	51.4
1905-6.....	593	196	175	614	234	38.1
1906-7.....	614	126	169	571	239	41.9

The following table shows the receipts and expenditures of the bureau for each year 1893-94 to 1906-7:

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE BERN BUREAU FOR THE INSURANCE OF THE UNEMPLOYED, 1893-94 TO 1906-7.

	1893-94.	1894-95.	1895-96.	1896-97.	1897-98.	1898-99.	1899-1900.
RECEIPTS.							
Payments by members.....	\$217.09	\$268.79	\$310.77	\$378.57	\$329.64	\$407.13	\$426.82
Contributions by employers...	183.27	328.81	318.06	316.91	210.37	247.81	286.41
Donations.....	194.14	689.43	226.29	1,111.29	47.42	1,077.60	121.39
Municipal grant.....	913.93	965.00	1,351.00	1,351.00	1,351.00	1,351.00	2,316.00
Interest.....		2.83	7.87	9.91	29.74	19.25	15.95
Total.....	1,508.43	2,249.86	2,213.99	3,167.68	1,968.17	3,102.79	3,166.57
Surplus from preceding year.....			255.07	347.76	1,316.51	900.55	647.99
Grand total.....	1,508.43	2,249.86	2,469.06	3,515.44	3,284.68	4,003.34	3,814.56
EXPENDITURES.							
Expenses of administration....	184.18	114.91	74.76	31.49	29.43	39.95	17.43
Heat.....	4.95	10.82	17.82	16.79	12.60	16.34	17.12
Contributed to employment bureau.....			96.50	96.50	96.50	96.50	96.50
Payments to unemployed.....	1,319.13	1,869.06	1,932.22	2,054.15	2,245.60	3,202.56	3,191.16
Total.....	1,508.43	1,994.79	2,121.30	2,198.93	2,384.13	3,355.35	3,322.21

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE BERN BUREAU FOR THE INSURANCE
OF THE UNEMPLOYED, 1893-94 TO 1906-7—Concluded.

	1900-1.	1901-2.	1902-3.	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.	1906-7.
RECEIPTS.							
Payments by members.....	\$600. 65	\$528. 92	\$758. 59	\$896. 79	\$904. 41	\$907. 60	\$737. 78
Contributions by employers...	308. 36	16. 21	8. 10	140. 50	233. 86	261. 82	201. 44
Donations.....	293. 71	120. 24	120. 86	94. 91	102. 29	44. 20	14. 78
Municipal grant.....	2,547. 60	2,316. 00	2,316. 00	2,316. 00	2,316. 00	2,316. 00	2,316. 00
Interest.....	11. 27	9. 86	21. 24	35. 61	78. 11	141. 96	194. 38
Total.....	3,761. 59	2,991. 23	3,224. 79	3,483. 81	3,634. 67	3,671. 58	3,464. 38
Surplus from preceding year...	492. 35	369. 81	^a 468. 54	1,019. 74	2,134. 57	3,636. 24	6,067. 63
Grand total.....	4,253. 94	3,361. 04	3,693. 33	4,503. 55	5,769. 24	7,307. 82	9,521. 41
EXPENDITURES.							
Expenses of administration....	75. 05	29. 58	65. 59	68. 83	20. 26	24. 91	90. 42
Heat.....	11. 58	13. 95	9. 46	12. 27	7. 94	23. 69	31. 92
Contributed to employment bureau.....	96. 50	96. 50
Payments to unemployed.....	3,701. 00	2,501. 38	2,598. 54	2,287. 88	2,104. 80	1,202. 19	1,892. 31
Total.....	3,884. 13	2,641. 41	2,673. 59	2,368. 98	2,133. 00	1,250. 79	2,014. 65

^a This is not the correct balance of the figures shown in the preceding column, but it is the equivalent of the amount shown in the original official report—2,427.65 francs.

It will be seen from the above table that the bureau does not rest upon a self-supporting basis. The payments by the members in 1906-7 were less than two-fifths of the amount of the payments to the unemployed members. The bureau is mainly supported by the grants of the municipality and by small donations. Nor does it accomplish a large work. The payment of 9,804.70 francs (\$1,892.31) in the last financial year to 239 persons means an average of 41.02 francs (\$7.92) per unemployed person. This can scarcely be called an insurance. It is at best a disguised charity calling out some thrift and saving in those who receive the aid. In 1906, 193 of the members were in the building trades, 394 were laborers, agricultural or otherwise, and 27 were of other occupations. This shows that the bureau is an institution for aiding those in the winter months whose occupation makes them largely idle at that season.

Opinion seems divided in Switzerland as to whether the bureau is a success. It certainly has not accomplished large results, but some argue that it has continued in existence now for fifteen years and has steadily done good, if not large good. It is generally believed in Switzerland that the main trouble with the bureau is that insurance in it is voluntary.

Professor Reichesberg, of Bern, observes that the relatively high proportion of the insured workmen who became unemployed "is connected with the fact that insurance is voluntary, and consequently, as a rule, such men only insure themselves as have been accustomed to become unemployed in the winter months. The number of persons having claims on the fund would probably have been still greater if the men who entered their names as insurers had kept up their pre-

mium payments for a longer time than they did. But, either from carelessness or other causes of one kind or another, a large number of insurers fail to keep up their premium payments and accordingly lose all claim on the fund. It is true that the insured workmen who have been entitled to claim unemployed pay from the fund have so far received what was due to them; but the fund is never certain beforehand that in any given set of circumstances it will be in a position to discharge its liabilities. The fear that this might not be the case led, in the winter of 1898-99, to the reduction of the amount of the unemployed pay after the first four weeks of unemployment."

Dr. E. Hoffman, a member of the National Council from Frauenfeld and author of an important report upon unemployment to the Swiss Federal Department of Industry, remarks: "Only upon one point has a practically unanimous opinion been arrived at—that is, upon the entirely impracticable character of voluntary municipal unemployed insurance—an opinion largely based upon the experience of the Bern fund." (a)

The St. Gallen experiment.

On May 19, 1894, the great council of the Canton St. Gallen gave power to the municipal and communal authorities to establish an insurance fund against unemployment which should be compulsory on all men not earning more than 5 francs (97 cents) per day. Any man earning more than this could be insured if he so desired. Women could be insured either voluntarily or compulsorily, as the managers of the fund thought to be wise. The bureau was established July 1, 1895. The general conditions under which the fund was conducted were as follows: The weekly dues from the insured were to be 15 centimes (3 cents), 20 centimes (4 cents), and 30 centimes (6 cents) for daily wages of 3 francs (58 cents), 4 francs (77 cents), and 5 francs (97 cents). No one was to receive unemployed pay if work could be found for him in the trade to which he belonged at rates current in his district. Payments for unemployment were to begin only after dues had been paid for an uninterrupted period of six months. In case of foreigners a longer period was required. The expenses of administration were to be met out of moneys of the police department. The other expenses of the fund were to come from (a) the dues paid by the insured; (b) voluntary subscriptions and donations; (c) by grants from the municipalities or communes not to exceed 2 francs (39 cents) per person per year; (d) subsidies from the Canton; (e) subsidies, if any should be granted, from the Swiss Federal Government. Payments for unemployment were a daily sum of 1.80 francs (35 cents) for a maximum period of sixty working

^a *Sociale Praxis*, June, 1903, col. 956.

days in any one year to men earning 3 francs (58 cents) or less; 2.10 francs (41 cents) to men earning from 3 to 4 francs (58 to 77 cents), and 2.40 francs (46 cents) to men earning from 4 to 5 francs (77. to 97 cents) a day. In times of necessity the committee of management was empowered to reduce the payment of unmarried men, but not to a lower figure than 1 franc (19 cents) per day. Men whose unemployment was caused through serious misconduct or having ceased to work on account of strike, or who refused work without reasonable ground, or who were incapable of work because of accident, sickness or other causes, or who were in the army, could not claim unemployment pay. Unemployment for less than five consecutive days within three months gave no right to a payment. The committee of management was to consist of 9 members, 2 to be appointed by the municipal council and 7 chosen from the insured workingmen.

The experience at St. Gallen was, if anything, less favorable than at Bern. Great difficulty was found in inducing the workingmen to become insured. Those who did become insured were those receiving the smaller wages. The higher class of workingmen did not favor the plan. Various criticisms were made of the system; the management of the fund was criticised, and the whole experiment soon became so unsatisfactory that the bureau was closed June 30, 1897. In the course of its two years' existence the fund had received from the municipality 22,135.55 francs (\$4,272.16) and from the Canton 6,000 francs (\$1,158). Nevertheless, when the fund was closed there was still a deficit of 4,516.19 francs (\$871.74). Doctor Schanz states that one-fourth of the workingmen of St. Gallen were never insured at all, and that of those who were insured 15.6 per cent were not entitled to make any claim on the fund, in most cases because their minimum period of premium payment had not expired.

The English Report on Agencies and Methods for Dealing with the Unemployed in Certain Foreign Countries, by Mr. D. F. Schloss (1904), speaking of the St. Gallen experiment, says:

One reason for the failure of this scheme is said to have been that the administration of the fund was made part of the business of the poor law department of the St. Gallen municipality, a fact which gave the scheme at once an outdoor relief complexion and added to the hostility of the better situated among the working classes. What is more, the officer in charge of the poor law department, though his work was thus greatly increased, received no extra pay for the performance of his duties in connection with the fund. * * *

The manner in which the scheme was carried out appears to have been very defective. The rules governing the administration of the fund were not properly observed in actual practice. Thus, in the first year of the fund, men who had not fulfilled the requirement that they should have paid their premiums for an uninterrupted

period of six months, and who were months in arrear with their payments, were allowed to receive unemployed pay, merely having their arrears, plus a fine of 1s. 7.2d. (39 cents) per month, deducted from this pay.

Altogether, it may be said that the manner in which this St. Gallen scheme was carried out was so unsystematic and that in its organization so much want of judgment was shown that its value as an experiment is not great. So far as it goes, the experience gained in this attempt to introduce compulsory insurance against unemployment can not be held to be favorable, though, of course, it may not be impossible that a different scheme, better administered, might be more successful. At the same time it appears sufficiently proved that the difficulties in the way of any such system must always be very considerable.

The Basel experiment.

In the spring of 1901 the Basel Labor Federation established a bureau and an unemployed fund on the following basis:

It was to be open to all workmen in Basel, whether trades-unionists or not. Its funds were to come (a) from monthly dues of its members; (b) annual contributions for honorary members; (c) donations and collections; (d) grants from the trade unions; (e) subsidies from the Canton. The monthly dues were as follows: From men earning 4 francs (77 cents) or less per day, 40 centimes (8 cents) per month; from those earning from 4 to 5 francs (77 to 97 cents) per day, 50 centimes (10 cents) per month; from those earning over 5 francs (97 cents) per day, 60 centimes (12 cents) per month. The amount to be paid to the unemployed was to be determined by the management. No one could claim any payment until he had been out of work fifteen days after reporting himself as unemployed. If, in the meantime, he had received work, he was bound to report it, or if he got temporary employment his claim was to be reduced by one day's benefit for every two days' temporary employment.

Unemployed pay could not be given except to those who had made payment to the fund for at least six months. Anyone in arrears with his dues was to pay a fine of 1 franc (19 cents). This system also received aid from the Government, the Basel government contributing, in 1901-2, 1,000 francs (\$193) to the fund, though the management of the bureau is in the hands of the trades-unionists, the Canton, however, being represented on the management. Municipal employees were compelled to be insured in the fund.

The fund has not been a great success. In 1902-3, 1,174 persons were insured in it; in 1904-5, 401, and in 1905-6, 498. Two-thirds of the insured were in the building trades. In 1906, 207 of the 498 members insured were out of work.

The following table shows the membership and financial status of the bureau from 1901-2 to 1905-6:

MEMBERSHIP, RECEIPTS, AND EXPENDITURES OF THE UNEMPLOYMENT BUREAU OF THE BASEL LABOR FEDERATION, 1901-2 TO 1905-6.

	1901-2.	1902-3.	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.	Total.
Active members.....	866	1,174	506	401	498
Honorary members.....	91	86	69	(a)	(a)
Unemployed members.....	102	168	106	126	207
Receipts:						
Dues from active members.....	\$417.19	\$451.31	\$333.54	\$356.82	\$370.54	\$1,929.40
Contributions from honorary members.....	\$261.51	\$242.02	\$187.21	\$182.39	\$180.84	\$1,053.97
Cantonal subsidies.....	\$193.00	\$193.00	\$386.00	\$386.00	\$386.00	\$1,544.00
Grants from cooperative society.....	\$193.00	\$193.00	\$193.00	\$193.00	\$772.00
Donations from individuals and from other societies.....	\$76.44	\$43.59	\$13.16	\$5.39	\$1.26	\$139.84
Miscellaneous.....	\$14.85	\$50.35	\$26.47	\$40.14	\$41.95	\$173.76
Total receipts.....	\$1,155.99	\$1,173.26	\$1,139.38	\$1,163.74	\$980.59	\$5,612.97
Expenditures:						
Allowances to unemployed members.....	\$556.23	\$1,038.09	\$759.72	\$853.06	\$1,301.67	\$4,508.77
Other expenses.....	\$82.13	\$97.77	\$66.67	\$59.92	\$190.15	\$496.64
Total expenditures.....	\$638.36	\$1,135.86	\$826.39	\$912.98	\$1,491.82	\$5,005.41

^a Not reported.

In the above table virtually the same results are shown in Basel as in the Bern municipal bureau. The bureau here is no more successful in being self-supporting than the one at Bern, nor does it accomplish large results. In the first two years quite a number joined the bureau, perhaps owing to its novelty, and quickly dropped out, but since these two years, the numbers and their payments have remained fairly steady. This, taken in connection with the fact that most of the members are of the building trades, shows that, while the bureau has not met a general need, it is made use of by a steady proportion of men whose occupation involves more or less suspension of work in the winter months. For them the bureau is a help. Men making use of the bureau year by year come to be known by the management. The officers of the bureau know who are reliable men. Sources of waste and weakness are eliminated. The advocates of the work of the bureau argue that while this bureau and that of Bern has to be aided by the Canton, it must be remembered that in some way in every country the unemployed are an expense to the community, and the question arises if this way, which makes the unemployed pay something, is not one of the best ways to aid them. It is noteworthy that the Swiss Federal Council in 1907, while voting federal aid to the public employment bureaus, voted to consider still further the question of federal aid to the bureaus of insurance against unemployment. The conclusion seems to be that while these bureaus are not to be declared wholly failures, as some writers assert, their usefulness is not yet great, and they are to be classed rather as small but interesting experiments.

GERMANY.

The experience in Germany with unemployment insurance has not been essentially different from that of Switzerland. As stated above, no attempt has been made for any scheme of this kind for the Empire. In only two cities have there been experiments in this line—Cologne and Leipzig.

The Cologne bureau for insurance against unemployment in winter was established May 9, 1896. The system adopted (according to the rules as amended in 1898 and again in 1901) is as follows: The object of the bureau is to provide, with the assistance of the Cologne employment bureau, an insurance against unemployment during the winter (December 10 to March 10) for the benefit of male work people in the Cologne district.

Membership consists of workmen, employers, honorary members, and other contributors. Employers make one payment of 300 marks (\$71.40), honorary members pay 5 marks (\$1.19) annually, workmen pay 1 mark (24 cents) or over per month.

The receipts are composed of the dues of members, contributions of societies, donations of employers and benevolent persons, and subsidies by the city of Cologne.

Originally workmen of 18 years or over, who had lived at least two years in Cologne, were admitted on payment of uniform dues of 25 pfennigs (6 cents) per week for twenty-six consecutive weeks, beginning April 1. These conditions have been changed several times in a number of ways. The weekly dues must now be paid for thirty-four weeks, and their amount was first changed to 35 pfennigs (9 cents) for mechanics, while unskilled laborers were to pay 25 pfennigs (6 cents). The residence required for membership was reduced from two years to one (March, 1898), and for soldiers honorably discharged during the autumn to six months (March, 1901). In March, 1903, the dues were raised to 30 and 40 pfennigs (7 and 10 cents), respectively, and in March, 1905, to 35 and 45 pfennigs (8 and 11 cents), respectively. A provision was introduced that only workmen who have a regular trade should be admitted as members; idlers and temporary inhabitants of the city are excluded.

The insured receive 2 marks (48 cents) per day for twenty days if married, and 1.5 marks (36 cents) if single. For thirty days thereafter the amount is reduced one-half in each case. Later the distinction between married and single people was abolished, and 2 marks were paid to all insured for twenty days and 1 mark for twenty-eight days after.

These benefits are forfeited if a member has not paid his dues; if he was permanently unemployable at the time he entered the organization; if he has lost his work through sickness or old age; if he has

a claim upon sick benefit, accident, invalid, or old-age insurance; if he lost his work by his own fault; if he declines suitable work when offered, and if he leaves Cologne. It is held that the imperial insurance fund covers most of these cases.

The general management of the organization is representative of the interested classes. The chief burgomaster of Cologne is president, and the executive committee consists of the head of the general employment bureau—a municipal institution—and 24 members, 12 of whom are elected by the insured, and 12 patrons or honorary members, six of whom must be employers and six neither employers nor employees. All members have the right to vote at the annual meeting.

One of the greatest advantages of this organization is its close connection with the municipal employment bureau, since many members—90 per cent in 1904-5—are thus given work, even during the winter. This relieved the treasury to such an extent that the city did not need to make a contribution for several years. The moral effect of getting work is of course evident.

Experience has shown that the working people have not been enthusiastic concerning this scheme. Unskilled laborers were unable to pay the dues, and skilled mechanics who had a fair chance to be employed during the winter did not care to insure. The organization became, consequently, an institution chiefly for skilled workingmen who were certain to be unemployed during the season; for example, carpenters, masons, etc. These men draw, of course, more than they pay in, and the organization is therefore less an insurance institution than one of disguised philanthropy for which employers, honorary members, and the city furnish the means.

A comparison for the different years shows the growth of the organization.

PERSONS INSURED AND ALLOWANCES PAID BY THE COLOGNE BUREAU FOR INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT IN WINTER, 1896-97 TO 1906-7.

Year.	Persons insured.			Insured persons unemployed.		Days for which unemployed found work.	Days for which unemployed allowances were paid.	Total allowances paid.	Amount contributed by persons insured.	
	Total.	Policies lapsed.	Remaining insured.	Number.	Per cent of those remaining insured.				Total.	Per cent of allowances paid.
1896-97....	220	88	132	96	72.7	2,181	1,408	\$560.49	\$238.12	42.5
1897-98....	324	88	236	151	64.0	2,646	2,197	829.52	526.75	63.5
1898-99....	347	65	282	144	51.1	2,857	2,025	795.69	581.85	73.1
1899-1900..	256	30	226	154	68.1	3,708	2,772	1,120.59	478.26	42.7
1900-1.....	571	35	536	441	82.3	6,478	12,658	4,602.38	1,085.70	23.6
1901-2.....	1,205	100	1,105	842	76.2	15,853	18,258	7,150.95	2,721.35	41.4
1902-3.....	1,355	90	1,265	1,008	79.7	23,946	16,045	6,856.07	3,424.55	49.9
1903-4.....	1,624	123	1,501	1,164	77.5	26,715	22,910	9,499.77	4,705.78	49.5
1904-5.....	1,717	121	1,596	1,271	79.6	29,648	25,084	10,194.02	4,946.16	48.5
1905-6.....	1,510	147	1,463	1,087	74.3	28,714	13,414	5,627.51	5,160.28	91.7
1906-7.....	1,255	100	1,155	980	84.8	18,238	24,086	9,523.33	4,092.22	43.0

The report of the insurance for 1906-7 shows that of the 1,255 persons insured 38 were from 18 to 20 years of age, 376 from 21 to 30, 423 from 31 to 40, 239 from 41 to 50, 152 from 51 to 60, and 27 from 61 to 70. There were 1,039 married and 216 single persons. Of the 980 unemployed 923 were in the building trades. The number who reported their unemployment immediately on losing work was 535, 307 reported in from 1 to 5 days, 35 in from 6 to 10 days, 24 in from 11 to 15 days, 11 in from 16 to 20 days, 27 in from 21 to 40 days, and 41 in 41 days or over. Sickness was the main cause of the delayed reports. The following table shows the number of skilled and unskilled persons receiving payments for each specified number of days:

PERSONS RECEIVING ALLOWANCES FROM THE COLOGNE BUREAU FOR INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT FOR EACH SPECIFIED NUMBER OF DAYS, 1906-7.

Number of days.	Skilled workers.	Unskilled workers.	Total.	Number of days.	Skilled workers.	Unskilled workers.	Total.
1 to 5.....	24	48	72	31 to 35.....	21	77	98
6 to 10.....	23	75	98	36 to 40.....	14	52	66
11 to 15.....	17	70	87	41 to 45.....	10	32	42
16 to 20.....	33	80	118	46 to 47.....	6	17	23
21 to 25.....	45	99	144	48.....	24	71	95
26 to 30.....	32	80	112				

The following table shows the number of persons receiving each specified allowance:

PERSONS RECEIVING EACH SPECIFIED ALLOWANCE FROM THE COLOGNE BUREAU FOR INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT, 1906-7.

Allowance received.	Number of persons.	Allowance received.	Number of persons.
1 to 5 marks (\$0.24 to \$1.19).....	27	41 to 45 marks (\$9.76 to \$10.71).....	144
6 to 10 marks (\$1.43 to \$2.38).....	40	46 to 50 marks (\$10.95 to \$11.90).....	112
11 to 15 marks (\$2.62 to \$3.57).....	47	51 to 55 marks (\$12.14 to \$13.09).....	98
16 to 20 marks (\$3.81 to \$4.76).....	49	56 to 60 marks (\$13.33 to \$14.28).....	66
21 to 25 marks (\$5 to \$5.95).....	54	61 to 65 marks (\$14.52 to \$15.47).....	42
26 to 30 marks (\$6.19 to \$7.14).....	32	66 to 67 marks (\$15.71 to \$15.95).....	23
31 to 35 marks (\$7.38 to \$8.33).....	43	68 marks (\$16.18).....	95
36 to 40 marks (\$8.57 to \$9.52).....	83		

The following table shows the receipts and expenditures of the bureau for the year ending March 31, 1907:

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE COLOGNE BUREAU FOR INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT, 1906-7.

Receipts.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
In treasury April 1, 1906.....	\$32,905.46	Advertising.....	\$103.27
Subsidy from the city.....	4,760.00	Printing.....	73.70
Annual payments from honorary members.....	610.47	Postage.....	31.14
Weekly dues of the insured.....	4,153.28	Office supplies.....	37.36
Miscellaneous.....	1.43	Imperial Industrial insurance costs ..	9.69
Interest.....	1,512.05	Salaries.....	559.90
		Rent of office.....	165.29
		Miscellaneous.....	44.51
		Notices.....	27.88
		Dues returned.....	61.06
		Premiums paid.....	9,523.33
		In treasury March 31, 1907.....	33,305.56
Total.....	43,942.69	Total.....	43,942.69

The Leipzig bureau insures against unemployment all the year round. Membership is voluntary and is confined to men of 16 to 60 years who have lived in Leipzig for at least one year. The dues vary according to the risks of unemployment in the trades—30 pfennigs (7 cents) per week for the smallest and 60 pfennigs (14 cents) per week for the greatest, with two intermediary classes. The benefits are uniform and amount to 1.20 marks (29 cents) per day for forty-two days, beginning with the fourth day of unemployment, provided the unemployed was not to blame for losing his work. Members who have not drawn benefits for two years receive special privileges, either in an extension of time or in a reduction of premiums. The organization has no connection with any employment bureau and has but few results to show since operations began in March, 1905.

Why Germany has not developed State insurance against unemployment as it has other forms of industrial insurance is a question often asked. Even the Ghent plan, extending as has been stated through several other European countries, has scarcely entered Germany. At Munich the principle of municipal insurance has been adopted, but as yet even here there has been no action. Cologne and Leipzig still remain the only instances of unemployment insurance apart from trade-union benefits in the Empire.

The reason is to be looked for in more directions than one. The German trade unions have not particularly desired it. Committed to social democracy more than in most countries, their members often in conflict with the Government, they have not seemed particularly desirous of seeing the Government enter this field in which they themselves are doing considerable.

A second reason probably is that Germany with its recent rapidly progressing industrial life has not felt the unemployment question quite so keenly as some other countries.

Thirdly, the Government itself has been fully occupied in developing other forms of industrial insurance.

The feeling has existed among Germans that unemployment insurance is on many grounds more difficult to establish and administer than other forms of insurance. Personal questions and moral questions enter much more into this field than in most fields. Few persons will seek sickness or accident in order to get an insurance payment. But people might be tempted to quit work if they could get even a small unemployment payment. These and a multitude of other reasons have probably entered in. It is interesting in any case to consider the conclusions on the subject in the exhaustive three-volume report on unemployment which the Labor Department of the

Imperial Statistical Office made to the Reichstag in 1906. These conclusions are as follows:

Conclusions of the Report of the Imperial Statistical Office of Germany on "The Existing Institutions for Insurance against Unemployment," made to the Reichstag in 1906.^(*)

The Imperial Statistical Office has no proposals of its own to offer, but has restricted itself to giving a comprehensive account of the existing systems and proposals. From this account it may be concluded that the struggle against unemployment itself has to take the form not of insurance, but partly of preventive measures of a general character, such as the regulation of production, general economic policies, raising the standard of general education, regulation of the conditions of entrance to trades, etc., and partly of finding employment for the existing labor supply, and of creating employment, such as relief work. On the other hand, insurance offers only a relief from the consequences of unemployment without removing the cause.

The statement of the facts concerning unemployment showed that as far as the temporary unemployment of a limited class of persons was concerned, it was an economic phenomenon occurring with some regularity and definiteness, and that on the basis of experience an estimate might be made as to the time of its occurrence as well as to its duration and extent. There would therefore be no insurmountable difficulties to a system of insurance from the purely insurance point of view. Furthermore, it has been shown that the risk of unemployment varies greatly in different occupations, so that the need of relief from the results of unemployment is not uniform in all occupations. On the other hand, it has been shown that in some occupations—such as agriculture, transportation on inland waterways, the building trades—the temporary stopping of work during a certain time of the year is a characteristic of the method of operation of these industries. In part this fact finds expression in the wages paid in these industries, and in part requires special consideration of the importance of such unemployment in view of peculiar conditions in some industries, as in agriculture.

The difficulties of a system of insurance against the results of unemployment come emphatically from another direction. The principal difficulties arise, first, in connection with the determination and definition of what sort of unemployment is entitled to benefits, and, second, in connection with supervising the carrying out of this definition in actual practice. Enforcing the requirement that any offer of work must be accepted by the workman brings further difficulties. The problem of checking or controlling the facts concerning unemployment of large numbers of unorganized and unemployed men has not yet been solved anywhere in actual practice.

In considering those forms of solving the problem which involve the use of the funds of the state for insurance against unemployment, it has been shown that a system of compulsory insurance against un-

^{*} See Die bestehenden Einrichtungen zur Versicherung gegen die Folgen der Arbeitslosigkeit, Part I, pp. 665-667.

employment for all workmen—the effort in St. Gallen was the only practical attempt of this kind—places burdens on classes of occupations for which the risk of unemployment either does not exist or is very slight. On the other hand, adjusting the premiums to correspond to actual risk is extremely difficult. Aside from the question of the necessity of giving the insurance such a scope, it was also shown that systems of insurance against unemployment for all workmen, when managed by government officials, have to make use of certain tests, and have to restrict the definition of what sort of unemployment is entitled to benefits. Workingmen would probably regard these tests and limitations as a restriction on their freedom of migration and as an interference with the objects sought by their unions. This is particularly true both in the treatment of a workman who voluntarily gives up his place and the requirement that a workman must accept any job offered to him.

If the insurance system covers a large number of persons, the risk of its abuse is very great. The check afforded by the employment bureau alone has not yet shown itself as sufficiently effective, as it is still possible, while receiving benefits, to secretly get a position or to get partial employment. It is as yet unsettled whether, under the conditions prevailing in large cities, the employment bureau will ever be in a position to accomplish what a universal unemployment insurance system requires.

The solution offered by voluntary insurance against unemployment can count only on those persons who themselves realize their need of insurance. Experience has shown that, aside from the organized workmen, these persons are but few in number. To judge from previous experience, in the worst situated workmen there is lacking, first, the personal initiative to take out the insurance, and, second, income sufficient to pay the premiums regularly. Unemployment insurance funds of the voluntary type, therefore, can depend on enrolling only a very limited number of workmen, and those will be of the better situated class. In the existing voluntary funds it is those engaged in the building trades especially who have made provision of this kind.

A compromise between the compulsory and the voluntary systems of insurance which has many advantages consists of the system of granting subsidies to the existing institutions for the relief of unemployment. The subsidies are granted to (a) workingmen's associations and (b) other organizations which, through public officials, provide aid in case of unemployment. In Belgium this plan has been adopted by the communal administrations and in France by the national administration. Since in most countries the proportion of workingmen who are organized is relatively small, the greater part of the workingmen are not included in such a system. The plan to remove this difficulty by providing an equal relief for the unorganized workmen through granting subsidies to savings has everywhere been proved to be difficult of execution. Such arrangements, wherever tried, have so far not attained any degree of importance. On the other hand, general insurance funds for unorganized workmen to complete the system have never yet been established, but would be required to equalize the system in favor of the unorganized workmen. An extension of the system in use in Belgium and

France is contained in the proposals made to the commissions considering this problem in Norway and Denmark. These proposals all seek to remove the serious objections raised against a one-sided grant to labor unions only, by suggesting a better method than the creation of savings institutions for unorganized workmen. With the exception of Belgium, all solutions involving the participation of the Government are either in their first stage of development or are only projects, and have as yet not produced results which would permit of a definite conclusion as to their value. As far as the participation of the communes is concerned, the experience of Belgium, on the whole, has not been unfavorable. The serious difficulties connected with this solution of the problem have already been discussed in the report.

For a limited class of workmen, assurance against the results of unemployment through various systems of self-help without the assistance of public funds, has been successful to an increasing extent in all countries. This has taken place partly through the labor organizations and partly with the assistance of cooperative consumers' societies. Workingmen, however, only partly admit that self-help alone is the normal form of assurance against the results of unemployment; they take the ground that leaving workmen to systems of self-help burdens them unjustly, that unemployment is a consequence of the existing economic order, and that therefore the cost of the assurance should be borne by society as a whole. In this connection, however, it should not be overlooked that this reasoning can not be restricted to workingmen; exactly the same claim could be made for any person who is economically dependent, and this in consequence would lead to the demand for a state insurance of everyone not independent in the economic sense.

The objection that leaving workmen to systems of self-help burdens them unjustly is also raised against the system of compulsory saving which has been proposed as a substitute for insurance against unemployment, and which, in opposition to the insurance principle of "all for one," is based on the individualistic principle of "each for himself."

All proposals are agreed and all practical experience has shown that for every form either of insurance or of unemployment relief the existence and development of employment agencies is of the highest importance.

UNEMPLOYED RELIEF WORKS.

A means of relief for the temporarily unemployed is the provision of relief works by the municipality, state, or other government, philanthropic, or charitable body. Normally such relief is not, or at least should not be, necessary. Especially is this the case if there be developed a good system for finding men work and again of insuring against unemployment until they do find work. Yet frequently there come periods—in some countries almost every winter—when even the most skilled and those most anxious for work can not find it, when trade unions are unable adequately to help their members, and when no system of insurance against unemployment has yet

been found able to meet the requirements. In all countries various forms of relief works have been instituted at such times with manifold results of experience and frequently with success. Such relief works when offered are made use of somewhat by the trades-unionist and the skilled artisan temporarily thrown in need, but more usually they are needed by the nonunionist, the unskilled and the lower class of labor bordering upon the unemployable.

On this subject Great Britain has had more experience than any other country.

This study is of especial importance to America, for during the hard times of 1893-94 most of the larger American cities tried one form or another of relief works. With the exception, however, of the vacant-lot plan American attempts have been so desultory, so short-lived, and usually so unsuccessful, that there is especial value in learning how England, beginning under conditions in many ways similar to American conditions, has nevertheless worked out some very definite conclusions and some distinct successes.

English efforts, especially those made in times of exceptional distress, have resembled the American efforts to meet the problem, and from these efforts a considerable amount of experience has developed.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Great Britain's modern experiments began in 1861. The winter of 1860-61 was unusually severe, and a fund of about £40,000 (\$194,660) was raised in London and distributed mainly through the police courts. Again in 1863-64, chiefly on account of the cotton famine, there was great distress in Lancashire from lack of work. A special measure was enacted, placing £1,200,000 (\$5,839,800) at the disposal of the authorities to organize relief work, and sewers and similar works were undertaken. A total of 7,838 men were employed and paid from funds provided by the act, and it was estimated that about 38,014 persons were supported by means of the public works.

In 1886 a fund known as the Mansion House Fund was raised in London, but it is generally thought that it was not wisely spent. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, at that time president of the Local Government Board, issued a circular emphasizing the great need of providing work for the unemployed which would not pauperize. It enumerated various kinds of work and laid stress on the advantages of spade labor. It also recommended "That the wages paid should be something less than the wages ordinarily paid for similar work, in order to prevent imposture, and to leave the strongest temptation to those who avail themselves of this opportunity to return as soon as possible to their previous occupations." The Local Government Board under these conditions promised to facilitate loans. The distress, however, con-

tinued, and the next year the Mansion House Fund was revived, in order to assist the Metropolitan Gardens Association, which had for two previous years given some work to the unemployed. As a result of an appeal £5,303 (\$25,807.05) was raised and 394 men employed. Of these men it is said that little more than a hundred were permanently benefited, and none of them belonged to a trade or a friendly society, a fact which may be noted in nearly all relief works carried on by private charity.^(a) In 1892 other efforts were made. Thirty-three parishes in London undertook special relief work, mainly in street cleaning and repairing, sewers, etc. It was very differently conducted in different parishes, occasionally wisely, but usually with poor results. The amount of work given varied from two to six days per week. Wages varied from 4d. to 8½d. (8 to 17 cents) per hour, and from 3s. 2d. (77 cents) to 4s. (97 cents) per day. Outside of London work was given in 63 districts. The Mansion House Committee raised £1,315 (\$6,399), of which £565 (\$2,750) was paid in wages, £417 (\$2,029) for emigration, £108 (\$526) for relief, £83 (\$404) for tools, etc; 224 men accepted and performed relief work at 6d. (12 cents) per hour. The work was restricted to casual dock laborers; it was given mainly as a test, but good work was required and obtained.

This same year a royal commission on labor presented a report with considerable evidence bearing on the unemployed problem. Wide interest was aroused, and Mr. Fowler (later Sir Henry Fowler) published a Local Government Board circular emphasizing the necessity of cooperation between the boards of guardians and other local authorities so as to avoid pauperization.

In the winter of 1893-94 work to the unemployed was given by 27 district authorities, 7 in London. The most important of these were the relief works of West Ham and Poplar. In the case of West Ham between £2,000 (\$9,733) and £3,000 (\$14,600) was raised partly by grant from the municipal exchequer and partly by donations. The work consisted mainly in digging and leveling ground for the city, the men being employed for four days a week, six hours a day, at 6d. (12 cents) an hour.^(b) Mr. Alden says, regarding this:

The work was considerably more costly than it would have been if performed under contract, but the following facts must be borne in mind: In the first place, although these works would not have been undertaken under ordinary circumstances, the playing grounds thus created are still a valuable asset to the community as regards health and recreation. Secondly, a large number of the men were so physically weak that it was some considerable time before even the willing were able to do a hard day's work. These men must inevitably have

^a Percy Alden, *The Unemployed*, p. 9.

^b *Id.*, pp. 9, 10.

received outdoor relief, owing to the congested state of the work-house, but for the unemployed fund. It was far better that they should make some return of labor for the wages they received than take doles of food and money from the guardians and be thereby pauperized.^(a)

In 1895 new efforts were made; a House of Commons committee on distress from want of employment was appointed to consider the possibility of giving satisfactory relief, either in the shape of work or in any other way, with the view of tiding over the winter. The Local Government Board addressed a circular to the mayors of towns and the chairmen of district councils requesting information as to employment. The result of the inquiry showed that in 454 localities, with a population of 10,381,607 persons, there was exceptional distress due to the severity of the winter, and that in 154 localities, with a population of 3,722,372 persons, there was an exceptional want of employment due to local or general industrial causes apart from that due to the weather. The full report of the House of Commons was made the next year, 1896, but it reached few important conclusions. It was felt that the question was still in an experimental stage and that no important successes or results had yet been reached.^(a)

Between 1896 and 1903 very little was done. A somewhat general prosperity and the calling off of a large number of men to the South African war relieved for the time the pressure of the problem. But at the close of the war and on the return of the volunteers, together with some depression in trade, the unemployed question was again before the country. A national conference was called in the spring of 1903, attended by 587 delegates, representing 123 city and borough councils, rural district councils, boards of guardians, etc., with 118 trade unions, employers' associations, etc. The findings made by this conference were important. Perhaps the most important conclusion, however, was that the problem was a national problem and could be satisfactorily worked out only on a national basis—that is, the uniting of local efforts into a system under the supervision of the National Government. It was therefore urged that the Government appoint a minister of labor with a seat in the cabinet, one of whose duties should be to deal with the problem of unemployment and to devise and to promote plans both for the temporary and permanent utilization of the unemployed labor of the nation.^(b)

The same year a conference on the subject was called by the London County Council, which adopted a report October 27, 1903, calling upon the Government to take up the problem in a national way and to appoint a minister of labor.^(b)

^a The Unemployed, pp. 10 and 11.

^b The Unemployed, pp. 13-15.

It is thus significant how, after considerable experience, those who have studied the question in Great Britain have felt the need of organization to meet the problem from a national standpoint, as has proved necessary in Germany.

The following winter, 1903-4, the Mansion House Committee made some interesting experiments in connection with labor colonies; but these are considered elsewhere. In March, 1904, a bill was introduced into the House of Commons by Sir John Gorst to further the establishment of labor colonies. The same year the board of trade made its report on "Agencies and Methods for Dealing with the Unemployed in Certain Foreign Countries."

The main event of 1904, however, was the conference called by the metropolitan boards of guardians by Mr. Long, president of the Local Government Board. While not believing that there was any grave crisis and while refusing to allow any imperial money to provide employment, he did make certain recommendations. London was to be formed into one area and provision was to be made: First, for those resident in London temporarily disabled; second, for those who had been frequently or permanently in the workhouse and who it was believed could be reclaimed if put on the land; third, for the hopelessly irreclaimable who, it was proposed, should be detained in colonies. It is thus seen that the Government realized that the problem is a somewhat permanent one and must be met by separate action for various classes of the unemployed.

April 18, 1905, Mr. Gerald Balfour introduced into the House of Commons an unemployed bill which, after various alterations in the House and in committee, was passed and considered a great step forward, but did not sanction any expenditures to carry out the work, and the bill was therefore very much criticised by the friends of the movement. Early the same year (1905) Mr. Rider Haggard was appointed to report upon the agricultural and industrial settlements established in the United States by the Salvation Army, with a view of the practicability of adopting a similar plan, to be put in execution perhaps in Canada, and to which England could send some of her unemployed.

An unemployed fund which finally amounted to £153,635 (\$747,665) was formed on the initiation of Queen Alexandra in November, 1905. At first it was proposed that the fund should be disbursed by the distress authorities, under the Unemployed Workmen Act, but this plan was afterwards modified by allowing discretionary subscriptions to the fund to be applied through the medium of charitable agencies.

In the following pages is given a statement of the work of the distress committees under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, in

England and Wales during the first six months of the application of this law:

PROCEEDINGS OF DISTRESS COMMITTEES UP TO MARCH 31, 1906.

Applications received and entertained.

The following table gives particulars of the applications received and entertained by the committees:

APPLICATIONS RECEIVED AND ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

	Committees taking proceedings.	Applications received up to March 31, 1906.	Applications entertained.		Per cent of total applicants and dependents considered of estimated population (1905).
			Applicants.	Dependents.	
Distress committees in London.....	29	39,728	23,838	69,038	2.0
Other distress committees.....	85	71,107	49,979	130,927	1.6
Total.....	114	110,835	73,817	199,965	1.7

It will be observed that 37,018 of the applications were not entertained during the period mentioned. All these were, however, not rejected applications, for it is understood that in some instances the committees limited their investigation to the number of applicants for whom there was immediate prospect of finding work, and that in other cases the committees were only able to investigate a proportion of the whole number of applications by the 31st of March. It appears that 3,080 cases, or less than 3 per cent, were rejected solely on account of the applicants having received poor-law relief.

Ten distress committees acted for areas bordering on London, namely, the boroughs of Croydon, West Ham, East Ham, and Hornsey, and the urban districts of Edmonton, Erith, Leyton, Tottenham, Walthamstow, and Willesden. The number of applications received by these committees was 13,931. Of these, the applications of 11,808 persons were entertained. The number of dependents of the latter, so far as ascertained, was 33,504. The percentage of applicants, whose cases were entertained, and their dependents in these areas to the total population of the areas was 3.6.

Of the total number of applicants to the distress committees only 1,434 were women. Of these 575 applied to distress committees in London.

The census (1901) returns show that the male population (including young persons) engaged in occupations of all kinds in the 114 districts numbered 4,576,524. Calculated on this basis, and disregarding any increase between 1901 and 1905, the total number of men who applied to the distress committees and whose applications were entertained represented 1.6 per cent of the working male population. Similarly calculated, the male applicants to the distress committees in London whose cases were entertained formed 1.7 per cent of the working male population of London.

The largest numbers of applications to distress committees outside London were received in West Ham (4,692), Newcastle-on-Tyne^(a) (3,679), Leeds (3,387), Liverpool (3,075), and Bristol (2,900). In the metropolis six distress committees, viz, those of Fulham, Battersea, Hackney, Lambeth, Camberwell, and Islington, had between 2,000 and 2,500 applicants each.

In a few cases in which the returns give information on the subject it appears that the majority of persons applying were found to be married men with families.

^a Three thousand six hundred and seventy-nine applications were received at the labor bureau taken over by the committee; record papers were filled in for only 673 persons to whom the committee supplied work.

Ages and occupations of applicants.

The return shows the ages of the persons whose applications were entertained by the committees, as follows:

PERSONS WHOSE APPLICATIONS WERE ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND IN LONDON AND THE PROVINCES, BY AGES, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

Age.	London.		London and provinces.	
	Number.	Per cent of total of all ages.	Number.	Per cent of total of all ages.
Under 20.....	279	1.2	1,645	2.2
20 or under 30.....	5,413	22.7	18,389	25.1
30 or under 40.....	7,509	31.5	21,516	29.3
40 or under 60.....	9,450	39.6	27,610	37.6
Over 60 years.....	1,187	5.0	4,227	5.8
Total.....	23,838	100.0	a 73,387	100.0

* Not including 430 persons whose ages were not classified.

The occupations of the persons whose applications were entertained are shown in the following table:

PERSONS WHOSE APPLICATIONS WERE ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND IN LONDON AND THE PROVINCES, BY OCCUPATIONS, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

Occupation.	London.		London and provinces.	
	Number.	Per cent of total of all occupations.	Number.	Per cent of total of all occupations.
General or casual labor.....	11,995	50.3	37,902	51.5
Building trade.....	5,934	24.9	16,648	22.6
Engineering, shipbuilding, and metal trades.....	1,156	4.8	5,416	7.4
Boot and shoe making.....	231	1.0	1,284	1.8
Furnishing and woodworking trades.....	555	2.3	1,112	1.5
Food, drink, and tobacco trades.....	422	1.8	942	1.3
Domestic service.....	378	1.7	789	1.1
Textile trades.....	38	.1	745	1.0
Tailoring and clothing.....	117	.5	289	.4
Printing and paper trades.....	181	.8	323	.4
Other occupations.....	2,831	11.9	8,103	11.0
Total.....	23,838	100.0	a 73,553	100.0

* Not including 264 persons whose occupations were not classified.

The numbers registered in the building trade were highest in Plymouth (920), Bristol (883), West Ham (857), Camberwell (629), Hackney (592), Battersea (590), Brighton (565), and East Ham (503). It will be seen from the details that this trade was very largely represented in London and the neighborhood.

It will be understood that the persons classified in the above table as belonging to particular industries did not in all cases necessarily belong to the class of skilled laborers. It is evident from observations made in reports of the committees that some proportion of these were unskilled, or relatively less skilled hands; on the other hand, there is evidence that in some instances men preferred to register themselves as of the "casual or general labor" class in the hope of securing employment from the committees, which in the main consisted of rough, unskilled work.

Provision of work.

Of the 73,817 persons whose applications were entertained by the distress committees up to March 31, 1906, 41,321 are stated to have been provided with work.

Six distress committees outside London, among those which received applications under the act, reported that no work had been provided, viz, those for Hanley, Huddersfield, Aston Manor, Stockton-on-Tees, Gorton, and King's Norton and Northfield. In all these cases the number of applicants registered by the committees was small.

The following table shows the number provided with work by or through the medium of the committees:

PERSONS PROVIDED WITH WORK BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

	Number of committees providing work.	Total applicants entertained.	Provided with work.	
			Number.	Percent.
Distress committees in London.....	29	23,838	9,443	39.6
Other distress committees.....	79	49,263	31,878	64.7
Total.....	108	73,101	41,321	56.5

In the case of London men were selected by the committees from their registers (a) to fill the places allotted to the several committees by the Central (Unemployed) Body on the farm colonies, on work in the parks, etc., and on works carried out by certain borough councils to which the Central (Unemployed) Body contributed a proportion of the cost; and (b) to take up employment offered independently of the Central (Unemployed) Body, by the borough councils, and in some instances, by boards of guardians, the Metropolitan Asylums Board, etc.

As regards the work provided by the Central (Unemployed) Body, the following extract from a report made by them may be quoted: "On December 18 work was begun at Chingford (city corporation scheme). Operations were begun on January 22 at Long Grove on work offered by the London County Council, and on January 29 in 21 of the council's parks and open spaces. Schemes proposed by His Majesty's office of works were accepted and work was begun in Hyde Park on February 1 and on Primrose Hill on February 5. Cleaning out ponds in Clissold Park began on March 15 and the formation of a bathing lake on Tooting Common (in conjunction with the Wandsworth borough council) on March 19. The number of men employed on the foregoing works on March 31 was 851. Schemes of work were also arranged for with the borough councils of Battersea, Bermondsey, Camberwell, Fulham, St. Pancras, Shoreditch, and Wandsworth, the work consisting of laying out open spaces, recreation grounds and burial grounds, reducing a street gradient and piping and filling up ditches."

Provincial distress committees made use to some extent of their powers to carry out works providing employment for persons on their registers. But a majority of the men employed through the medium of these committees obtained work from the town or district councils, while smaller jobs were also provided in some cases by boards of guardians, asylum committees, and other bodies. In many such cases, the distress committees contributed toward the cost of the work.

The returns do not show that a large number of persons obtained employment with private employers through the instrumentality of the committee.

The following table shows the numbers provided with work by the various methods above alluded to :

PERSONS PROVIDED WITH WORK IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, BY METHODS USED, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

Method used.	London.		London and provinces.	
	Number.	Per cent of total employed.	Number.	Per cent of total employed.
Through the Central (Unemployed) Body for London.....	a 4,382	46.2	4,382	33.3
By distress committees.....			9,392	
By local authorities.....	a 4,004	42.2	21,691	52.4
Through other agencies.....	1,105	11.6	2,881	7.0
Total.....	b 9,491	100.0	c 38,346	c 92.7

^a Including 48 men who received employment both from the central body and a local authority.

^b See note a.

^c Not including 3,023 persons (or 7.3 per cent of the total) who received employment, but were not classified in the returns.

The nature of the work provided, the rates of pay, and some other details were required to be shown in the returns furnished by the distress committees, where such work had been provided by the committees or by local authorities with the assistance of contributions from the committees.

The work appears to have been mostly of a rough character, such as street cleansing, drainage work, road making or repairing, leveling, digging with a view to cultivation, excavation, etc.—pick and shovel work generally. In some cases work of a more skilled character, such as painting and building, was found, but several committees deplore their inability to provide suitable work for skilled hands.

The average time worked per head varied considerably. The plan of giving a limited number of days (three or four) in a week was fairly common. In Norwich the men worked on an average for six and a half weeks of four days each; in Bradford over eight weeks of twenty-eight hours a week; in Oldham four weeks of three days each. In West Ham the men provided by the distress committee with work (other than farm colony work) appear to have been engaged in four day shifts, about a third of them getting two such shifts, or eight days in all. More than a fifth of the men only obtained one shift of four days, and the average time for the whole number employed was rather less than eight and one-half days. In Wolverhampton, on the average, four and one-half days' work per man in all had been provided up to March 31, and in Edmonton the corresponding amount was three and three-fourth days' work.

The rates of pay appear to have varied between 4d. (8 cents) and 6½d. (13 cents) an hour for the rough unskilled work, the commonest rates being 5d. (10 cents) and 5½d. (11 cents). Where more skilled work could be given to suitable men, e. g., carpenters, builders, etc., the pay was higher. Applicants employed by the local authorities at the instance of the committees were stated in several cases to have received the current rates of pay.

The value of the work performed by the applicants employed by the distress committees or local authorities was very generally reported as inferior to that of work performed under ordinary conditions. The work seems frequently to have occupied longer time and required more supervision than is usual.

Labor exchanges and employment registers.

According to the returns received, 19 distress committees established labor exchanges or employment registers, and 13 committees took over existing exchanges. As regards the first-named cases it appears, however, probable from the returns that the labor exchange or employment registry established was in some cases not in fact separate from the registry established by the distress

committee under the act. Similarly in the case of some of the labor exchanges taken over by the committees it would seem that the work of the exchange was merged in that of the committee, although there is evidence that many of the committees proposed to continue again the labor exchange during the summer when the registry established under the act had been closed.

The opinions expressed as to the value of the labor exchanges, etc., were diverse. Several committees report favorably. Thus the Kingston-on-Hull committee state that 200 men had found work through the medium of the exchange, and describe it as a useful adjunct to the work of the committee. At the same time, several reports point to the difficulty of inducing employers of labor to apply to the exchanges, particularly in the earlier stages of their work.

Emigration and removal.

Twenty-five distress committees aided the emigration of applicants. The number of persons emigrated up to March 31 was 155, with 284 dependents (including 77 wives). The large majority emigrated to Canada.

In some instances it appeared that a larger number of persons applied for emigration than the number actually assisted to emigrate prior to March 31.

The number of applicants assisted by committees to remove to other areas was 43, with 19 dependents. The lack of means of obtaining regular information as to the demand for labor in other districts is pointed to as a cause of the little that was effected in this direction.

The assistance for emigration and removal was stated in most cases to have been given by way of loan.

The emigration and removal of persons within the metropolis was carried out by the Central (Unemployed) Body.

Acquisition of land—Labor colonies.

Four distress committees outside London hired or otherwise acquired land for the provision of temporary work for unemployed persons, namely, Southampton (47 acres); Leicester (18 acres); Oldham (6 acres), and Bradford (8 acres).

The only distress committee outside London to establish a farm colony was that of West Ham. In this case a market garden estate of 204 acres at South Ockendon, in Essex, was purchased for £7,000 [\$34,066], toward which a single donation of £2,000 [\$9,733] was received. Accommodation on the land was provided for 100 persons. In the aggregate 137 persons were admitted to the colony up to March 31, 1906, and the average period of employment for each person was fifty and four-tenths days. The average rate of pay, per week of forty-eight hours, worked out at 22s. 7½d [\$5.51] per man; this included 10s. [\$2.43] to 13s. 6d. [\$3.23] allowance for dependents, 6d. [12 cents] tobacco money, 1s. [24 cents] to 5s. [\$1.22] bonuses, and 8s. 5½d. [\$2.06] the cost of lodging, fuel, clothes, food, medical and traveling expenses. The receipts from the working of the colony amounted to £12 9s. 8d. [\$60.75].

With regard to the labor colonies under the management of the London (central) body, it appears from a report made by them that (i) in respect of the Hollesley Bay colony, the central body took over responsibility for the men already in the colony on December 12, 1905, and arranged for the dispatch of fresh men up to a total of 350. The average daily number of men employed was 237; (ii) temporary colonies were established at Osea Island, where, on March 31, 69 men were employed, the work consisting of sea-wall repairing, road making and trenching; on the estate of the Garden City Company at Letchworth, where, on March 31, 108 men had been provided, on an average, with work; and at Fambridge, where work for the prevention of encroachment by the sea was provided. Eighteen men were thus employed on March 31.

Finances of the distress committees.

The expenses incurred by distress committees in London were in accordance with the act to be defrayed out of a central fund under the control of the Central (Unemployed) Body, and are not shown in the appended return.

As regards the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, it appears that the total receipts from all sources during the period from November 23, 1905, to March 31, 1906, amounted to £46,757 [\$227,543]. This amount included £45,095 [\$219,455] from the Queen's unemployed fund. Out of the contributions called for from the rates, only £1,502 [\$7,309] was actually received up to March 31,

1906, but expenses chargeable against the rate contribution account were incurred in excess of this sum, and these would ultimately be met out of the contributions received after March 31.

The total expenditure during the same period amounted to £32,718 [\$159,222], including £27,044 [\$131,610] expended on various works (inclusive of farm colonies) and £5,674 [\$27,613] for salaries of officers, establishment and other charges. Included in the sum of £5,674 [\$27,613] is £4,440 [\$21,607] in respect of expenses incurred by distress committees with the consent of the central body.

Of the 89 distress committees outside London, 11 had no receipts or expenditures up to March 31, viz: Barrow-in-Furness, Coventry, Grimsby, Huddersfield, Ipswich, Merthyr Tydfil, Preston, Rotherham, West Hartlepool, Stockton-on-Tees, and Handsworth. Of these, however, three (Ipswich, Coventry, and West Hartlepool) had had no operations under the act of any kind.

The total receipts and expenditures (other than from loans) of the remaining 78 committees were as follows:

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF 78 DISTRESS COMMITTEES OUTSIDE OF LONDON, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

Receipts.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
Queens' unemployed fund.....	\$201,098.38	Provision of work.....	\$224,282.38
Other voluntary subscriptions.....	91,811.39	Labor exchanges, employment registers, and collection of information..	30,396.16
Rates.....	88,774.69	Emigration or removal.....	8,973.83
Other receipts.....	11,407.08	Other expenditures.....	8,852.16
Total.....	393,091.54	Total.....	272,504.53

The amounts raised in the various boroughs by voluntary subscriptions varied greatly. The largest amounts were collected in West Ham (£3,329) [\$16,201], Manchester (£3,515) [\$17,106], Norwich (£1,530) [\$7,446], Brighton (£1,300) [\$6,326], and Bristol (£1,240) [\$6,034]. In several cases no receipts of this nature occur.

In five cases the amounts contributed from rates were £1,000 [\$4,867] or over, viz: Leicester (£2,000) [\$9,733], West Ham (£1,500) [\$7,300], Bradford (£1,360) [\$6,618], and Cardiff and Portsmouth (each £1,000) [\$4,867].

Of the expenditure for the provision of temporary work £25,514 [\$124,164] was expended on work provided by the committees, £18,612 [\$90,575] was contributed to local authorities or other bodies toward the cost of work provided by them, and £1,961 [\$9,543] was expended by the distress committee of West Ham on the farm colony provided by them.

This portion of the report is given in full, as it sums up the English experience to 1906. In December, 1905, however, a new cabinet came into power, and Mr. John Burns, the well-known trade-unionist member of Parliament was appointed to the liberal cabinet as president of the Local Government Board which has charge of unemployment questions. He made the above report in March, 1906.

Before the end of the year the Queen's fund had reached a total of over £130,000 (\$632,645), much having already been distributed. During January and February the fund continued to be distributed, over £50,000 (\$243,325) going to London. The remainder was distributed over the country in sums varying from about £2,000 (\$9,733) in greater centers of population to sums as low as £25 (\$122) to £30 (\$146) to towns of the size of York and Reading.

During the winter there were several demonstrations of the unemployed, including one February 12 in Hyde Park, when thousands of

men marched from the Embankment to the park. A further demonstration, arranged by the Right to Work Council, was held in Queen's Hall, presided over by J. Keir Hardie, and addressed by Michael Davitt, H. M. Hyndman, Bernard Shaw, G. N. Barnes, and other labor members of Parliament. During February Mr. Burns declared emphatically against labor colonies under boards of guardians, a point on which those interested in the problem have always been divided. He decided, however, that distress committees might pay full rates of wages so long as they did not give a full week's work and so encourage the idea of permanency. He also allocated £200,000 (\$973,300) from the national exchequer for their use.

The Central Unemployed Committee for London during the winter organized eight schemes, which provided work for 3,500 men for periods varying from eight to sixteen weeks. The cost of these works was £50,000 (\$243,325), of which £42,000 (\$204,393) was received from the Queen's fund. The committee paid a trade-union rate of wages for the work. The Salvation Army sent to Canada some thousands of emigrants during the winter. In March one ship took 1,400, of whom 1,000 were breadwinners.

In no year previous to 1906 had such serious attempts been made by central and local administrators to grapple in some practical way with the problem. The act of 1905, despite its weakness and limitations, did a great service in allowing the provision of machinery unconnected with, at any rate uncontrolled by, philanthropic or denominational bodies.

With the opening of the year 1907 distress was widespread, especially in East and South London. On January 1, 1907, there were 17,560 names on the books of the 51 London and provincial public employment bureaus. This was despite the facts that during December occupation had been found by the bureaus for 3,400 persons; that the distress committees had provided periods of work for 8,245 persons, the aggregate number of days worked being 67,790, and the total wages paid £10,104 (\$49,171); and that many of the local authorities had also engaged large numbers of men in shoveling snow and street cleaning. Further, the above figures apply almost entirely to men belonging to no trade union or to unions without out-of-work benefit funds. Out of some 600,000 members of these unions, nearly 30,000 were upon out-of-work pay when the year opened.

The numbers provided with relief work by the distress committees during the first quarter of the year 1907 were: January, 13,158; February, 14,621; March, 15,398.

Several councils also started small but permanent works in the way of land reclamation—such as Manchester's scheme for reclaiming land at Boggart Hole Clough and Chat Moss, and the Dudley council

scheme for converting waste land to garden allotments; but these experiments, although on hopeful lines, hardly seriously affected the problem. During the summer of 1907 the numbers of men unemployed, both of skilled and unskilled workers, steadily increased, this not being due to a heavy fluctuation in any one industry, but to a movement covering a large number of industries, including the building trades.

The effect of this movement is shown in the numbers of applicants on the books of the public employment bureaus, which was at the end of May, 15,775; at the end of June, 16,125; and in July rose to 17,608.

The registrar-general's percentages of unemployed for the principal unions were: April, 3.3; May, 3.4; June, 3.6; July, 3.7; August, 4.0; September, 4.6; October, 4.7.

During the ten months from December 1, 1906, to September 30, 1907, the number of applicants registering for employment at the 50 metropolitan and provincial labor bureaus was about 120,000. Of these the bureaus found occupation for over 30,000, and were the means of directing many more to likely quarters of employment.

The reports of the distress committees for the four winter months, December 1, 1906, to March 31, 1907, show that a total of 51,422 applicants were given employment relief amounting to an aggregate of 522,321 days, or 10.1 days per head per month; the wages earned amounting to £79,614 (\$387,442), or £1 10s. 10d. (\$7.50) per head. At March 31 the names of 8,130 applicants for employment stood on the books of the distress committees.

For the winter of 1905-6 the following tables from the report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London (dated May 12, 1906) give much instructive detail:

AMOUNTS APPROPRIATED AND EXPENDED ON VARIOUS WORKS THROUGH THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON, TO MAY 12, 1906.

	Wages.	Maintenance of men.	Allowances to families.	Railway fares.	Supervision.	Petty expenses and sundries.
Hollesley Bay.....			\$20,095.36	\$34.96		
Osea Island.....		\$2,281.08	3,688.06	386.24	\$506.08	\$199.49
Garden City.....	\$157.65	1,249.43	3,954.32	392.63	451.41	522.85
Farnbridge.....	70.85	1,089.04	1,296.09	242.55	830.77	775.21
Chingford.....	19,413.60			2,568.74	958.56	139.69
Long Grove.....	18,646.97			3,145.44	835.68	78.74
London County Council parks.....	40,880.16			42.52	4,608.37	1,002.73
Clissold Park.....	7,130.78			2.80	612.85	47.35
Royal parks.....						
Tooting Baths Lake.....	8,506.93			131.13	503.64	
Morley and Bevan homes.....			134.66	17.95		
Women's work.....			5.35	1.50	4.14	
Central office.....						875.06
Total.....	\$94,806.94	\$4,620.15	29,173.84	6,966.46	9,311.50	3,641.20

^a For insurance of workmen.

^b See also column "Advances," p. 856.

AMOUNTS APPROPRIATED AND EXPENDED ON VARIOUS WORKS THROUGH THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON, TO MAY 12, 1906—Concluded.

	Plant and tools.	Advances.	Total expended.	Amounts appropriated.	Balance unexpended.
Hollesley Bay.....		£28,162.19	\$48,292.51	\$47,691.70	(b)
Osea Island.....	\$2.45		7,063.93	9,063.03	\$1,939.05
Garden City.....	39.99		6,768.31	14,599.50	7,831.19
Fambridge.....	£2,772.81		7,077.32	38,932.00	31,854.68
Chingford.....	201.98		23,282.57	23,282.57	
Long Grove.....			22,706.83	24,332.50	1,625.67
London County Council parks.....	2,497.47		56,825.08	65,697.75	8,872.67
Clissold Park.....			8,029.73	9,246.35	1,216.62
Royal parks.....		£8,029.73	9,141.70	19,466.00	10,324.30
Tooting Baths Lake.....			152.61	231.99	139.38
Morley and Bevan homes.....			10.99	4,866.50	4,855.51
Women's work.....			875.06	875.06	
Central office.....					
Total.....	5,514.68	36,191.92	190,226.69	£283,864.49	£94,238.61

^a Mainly for maintenance of men and for supervision.

^b Over-advanced. (A further allocation has since been made.)

^c Including contract work.

^d For wages and supervision.

^e Including \$25,579.54 appropriated by various London boroughs.

MEN EMPLOYED THROUGH CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON AT DIFFERENT DATES IN 1906 (INCLUDING BOROUGH COUNCIL SCHEMES WHERE FIGURES WERE OBTAINABLE).

	Nature of work.	Approximate number of men at work (apart from casual vacancies).				
		Jan. 31.	Feb. 28.	Mar. 31.	Apr. 27.	May 11.
London works:						
Chingford.....	Leveling for playing grounds.	370	372	367	(a)	(a)
Long Grove.....	Double digging for agriculture	300	414	419	60	(c)
London County Council parks.....	Leveling, etc.....	50	1,091	1,484	427	193
Royal parks.....	{(i) Leveling and digging gravel.....		186	187	144	145
Tooting.....	{(ii) Painting railings.....			165	220	244
Colonies (country work):	Open-air bathing lake.....					
Hollesley Bay.....	Agriculture and market garden work.	312	293	281	286	288
Osea Island.....	Roadmaking, sea walling, etc.	80	73	69	63	73
Garden City.....	Leveling.....		59	108	125	118
Fambridge.....	Reclamation of land by repair of sea walls.		10	18	110	125
Total.....		1,112	2,498	3,098	£1,369	1,186
Borough council work:						
Battersea.....	Recreation ground.....	(c)	(c)	97	70	27
Bermondsey.....	Laying out burial ground.....	(c)	(c)	40	24	(a)
Camberwell.....	Laying out open space.....	(c)	(c)	49	56	57
Fulham.....	New cemetery.....	38	65	60	57	50
Islington.....	Roadmaking at cemetery.....					(d)
Shoreditch.....	Laying out burial ground.....	(c)	(c)	15	9	4
St. Pancras.....	Open spaces and reducing gradient of road.	76	70	31	32	24
Wandsworth.....	Leveling, ditching, etc.....	21	6	(c)	(a)	(a)
Total.....		£135	£141	292	245	162

^a Closed.

^b Clissold Park only.

^c This total does not equal the sum of the items, but figures are given as shown in official report.

^d Not yet begun.

^e Not including 4 boroughs not reported.

NONCOLONY WORKS UNDERTAKEN OR CONTRIBUTED TO BY THE CENTRAL
(UNEMPLOYED) BODY OF LONDON, 1905-6.

CENTRAL WORKS.

Authority.	Place.	Nature and description of work.	Largest number of men employed.	Rate of wages per hour.	Hours worked per week.	Period of employment.	Estimated total cost to central body.
Epping Forest committee, corporation of the city of London.	Chingford Plain and Loughton.	Obliterating old cultivation marks; preparing cricket and football pitches; plowed land re-dug and leveled.	388	\$0.12	43	Dec. 15-Apr. 20	\$23,286
London County Council (asylums committee).	Long Grove Asylum.	Ditching; grubbing hedges; preparing cricket ground; excavating and forming paths; trimming and shaping banks and general agricultural work.	340	.14	43	Jan. 22-May 9	24,333
London County Council (parks committee).	Battersea Park.	Trenching and digging; removing large mound of debris; turning and incorporating mound of refuse for fertilizing purposes; raising and leveling turf, trimming shrubberies; road construction.	87	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 12	(a)
	Blackheath...	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; preparing cricket pitches and clearing heath.	66	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 27	(a)
	Brockwell Park.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; excavating and laying drain.	52	.12	43	Jan. 29-May 5	(a)
	Clapham Common.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; spreading and leveling soil.	42	.12	43	Feb. 12-Apr. 12	(a)
	Clissold Park.	Cleaning two lakes, repairing banks and islands, making paths, excavating and drain laying, lifting turf and depositing soil from lake, and leveling.	220	.14	43	^b Mar. 15	(a)
	Finsbury Park.	Raising level of playground, lifting turf, leveling and relaying, making up and leveling sidewalks.	91	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 20	(a)
	Hackney Downs.	Lifting turf, leveling and relaying, making up sidewalks.	42	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 14	(a)
	Hackney Marshes	Removing top soil and stacking it for park use, turf cutting, digging holes for tree planting, cleaning river, and making up river banks.	100	.12	43	Jan. 29-May 4	(a)
	Highbury Fields.	Lifting turf, leveling and relaying.	52	.12	43	Feb. 5-May 4	(a)
	Hilly Fields...	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying.	48	.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 12	(a)
	Horniman Gardens.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; making up sidewalks.	66	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 27	(a)
	Ladywell Recreation Ground.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying, making up and rolling sidewalks.	72	.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 12	(a)

* Not separately reported. Total for London County Council parks, £13,500 (\$65,698).

^b Date of beginning. Employment still in progress at time of report, May 12, 1906.

NONCOLONY WORKS UNDERTAKEN OR CONTRIBUTED TO BY THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY OF LONDON, 1905-6—Continued.

CENTRAL WORKS—Concluded.

Authority.	Place.	Nature and description of work.	Largest number of men employed.	Rate of wages per hour.	Hours worked per week.	Period of employment.	Estimated total cost to central body.
London County Council (parks committee).—Concluded.	Marble Hill, Twickenham.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; painting seats; getting trench out for water supply to fountain.	54	\$0.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 12	(a)
	Parliament Hill.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; filling in hollows and generally repairing drainage works.	59	.12	43	Feb. 12-Apr. 12	(a)
	Southwark Park.	Digging and leveling football ground.	40	.12	43	Feb. 5-Mar. 16	(a)
	Springfield Park.	Removing top soil and stacking it; trenching and digging around trees.	50	.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 27	(a)
	Streatham Common.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying for cricket and tennis pitches.	47	.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 12	(a)
	Tooting Common.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; making up gravel paths.	77	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 12	(a)
	Victoria Park.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; digging and leveling recreation ground; excavating sand pit.	96	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 27	(a)
H. M. office of works.	Wandsworth Common.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying.	37	.12	43	Feb. 12-Apr. 12	(a)
	Wormwood Scrubs.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying tennis courts.	42	.12	43	Feb. 12-Apr. 12	(a)
Wandsworth borough council.	Hyde Park ...	Excavating gravel and removing sand; removing iron posts, railings.	65	b. 97	43½	c Feb. 5	\$8,7.0
	Primrose Hill, Regent's Park.	Trenching on Primrose Hill.	80	b. 97	43½	Feb. 5-May 12	
	Tooting Common.	Excavation for bathing lake, 300 feet in length and 100 feet in width; completing same ready for use.	244	.14	43	c Mar. 17	19,4.6

^a Not separately reported. Total for London County Council parks, £13,500 (\$65,698).

^b Per day.

^c Date of beginning. Employment still in progress at time of report, May 12, 1906.

NONCOLONY WORKS UNDERTAKEN OR CONTRIBUTED TO BY THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY OF LONDON, 1905-6—Concluded.

BOROUGH SCHEMES ASSISTED BY CONTRIBUTION FROM CENTRAL BODY.

Authority.	Place.	Nature and description of work.	Largest number of men employed.	Rate of wages per hour.	Hours worked per week.	Period of employment.	Total cost.	Contribution from central body.
Battersea borough council.	Recreation ground, Latchmere road.	Laying out ground as recreation ground.	97	\$0.15	43	Feb. 14 (a).....	\$34,066	\$11,183
Bermondsey borough council.	St. Mary's Church burial ground.	Laying out as recreation ground.	40	01.22	43	Mar. 6 (a).....	4,054	1,460
Camberwell borough council.	One Tree Hill, Camberwell.	Laying out as recreation ground.	50	.14	43	Mar. 12 (a).....	4,867	4,867
Fulham borough council.	New cemetery	Laying out same.	60	.14	(d)	Dec. 11 (a).....	34,066	4,506
Islington borough council.	Islington cemetery high road, East Finchley.	Drainage work in connection with borough cemetery.	12	.13	44	June 1 (a).....	1,825	522
St. Pancras borough council.	Highgate road, Camden street, etc.	Laying out of the Highgate road and open spaces and reducing gradient of Camden street.	31	.14	(e)	Feb. 12 (a).....	8,273	2,166
Shoreditch borough council.	Hackney road	Laying out burial ground as an open space.	15	.12	43	(f)	1,825	365
Wandsworth borough council.	a Garratt Park.	Leveling recreation ground.	8	.12	43	Jan. 1-Mar. 3...	3,674	511
	b Kingston road.	Piping and filling up ditch.	17	.14	43	Jan. 1-Feb. 14..		
	c Wimbledon Park	Piping and filling up ditch.	21	.14	43	Jan. 8-Feb. 21..		

^a Date of beginning. Employment still in progress at time of report, May 12, 1906.

^b Per day.

^c Supervision, etc., by borough council free of charge.

^d Five days per week.

^e Seven and one-half hours per day.

^f Not reported.

MEN EMPLOYED ON VARIOUS WORKS LEAVING, FOR EACH REASON, UP TO MAY 12, 1906.

	Chingford.	Royal Parks.	Tooting Common bathing lake.
Prospect of work.....	34	34	5
Misconduct.....	26	1	6
Medically unfit.....	1	1	8
Emigrated.....	2	1	2
Sickness.....	1	12
Drink.....	3	2
No reason given or own accord.....	81	67	44
Transferred to local and other works.....	24	5
Nervous of water.....	1
Close of work.....	354

MEN EMPLOYED ON COLONY WORKS LEAVING, FOR EACH REASON, UP TO MAY 12, 1906.

	Holles- ley Bay colony.	Garden City colony.	Fam- bridge.	Osea Island.	Morley and Bevan homes
Date of commencement of work.....	Dec. 12, 1905.	Feb. 21, 1906.	Feb. 22, 1906.	Jan. 16, 1906.	Mar. 15, 1906.
Number of men employed from commencement of work to May 12, 1906.....	624	222	190	138	8
Number leaving on account of—					
Prospect of work.....	86	14	14	18	1
Misconduct.....	14	18	26	26	
Medically unfit.....	14	2			
Emigrated.....	26			4	
Sickness.....	11	9	3	5	
Trouble at home.....	14	3	4	4	
Died.....		1			
No reason given or own accord.....	135	55	11	11	
Dissatisfied.....	6		6	4	1
Army training.....	2				
Time expired.....	17				
Transferred to local works.....	10				
Migrated.....	1				
Nervous of crossing water.....			1		
Total leaving.....	336	104	65	72	2
Number of men at work May 12, 1906.....	288	118	125	66	6

Details furnished by distress committees showed that under the Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905 there were 38,605 applicants in London up to March 31, 1906, who reported their occupations. The following table shows the number in each occupation:

APPLICANTS TO DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON, REPORTING AS TO OCCUPATIONS, UP TO MARCH 31, 1906.

Occupation.	Number of appli- cants.	Occupation.	Number of appli- cants.
Building trades.....	15,436	Dealers.....	651
Woodworkers.....	1,657	Transportation.....	15,442
Metal workers.....	1,836	Civil and municipal servants.....	68
Sundry manufacturers.....	451	Service (various).....	863
Printing and paper trades.....	277	Unclassified.....	614
Dress.....	625		
Food and drink.....	685	Total.....	38,605

Of 37,569 applicants reporting as to conjugal condition, 29,751 were married, 7,121 single, 583 widowers, and 114 widows.

Of 37,651 applicants who reported their age, 5,326 were from 16 to 25 years of age, 11,149 from 26 to 35, 10,348 from 36 to 45, 6,935 from 46 to 55, 3,295 from 56 to 65, and 598 from 66 to 75.

The above tables show the nature of the relief works established with the cooperation of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, somewhat of the character of the men employed, and the main results.

Concerning the women's work, and also the colonies established for the unemployed, more detail is interesting.

Upon the difficult question of providing work for unemployed women there has been so much less written and done, compared with

what has been written and done for unemployed men, that the report of the women's work committee is of special interest. This report is taken from the preliminary report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London to May 12, 1906, and is as follows:

REPORT OF THE WOMEN'S WORK COMMITTEE.

Although both when the Unemployed Workmen Bill was before Parliament, and the regulations issued by the Local Government Board under the act, it was clearly stated that all the provisions of the act would apply to women equally with men, it was some little time before the distress committees or the central body began actively to take up the comparatively novel and particularly difficult task of dealing with unemployed women. On February 10, however, the women's work committee met for the first time, Mr. J. Ramsay MacDonald, M. P., being elected chairman.

Applications and schemes for assistance.

It was ascertained by inquiry among the distress committees that only 338 women had by that time been registered. The committee attributed this to the general assumption that no definite attempt need be made to meet the necessities of women, and to the absence of any previous experience according a prospect that registration would be of any avail. They, therefore, decided to ask the distress committees to make known the facts, by specially emphasizing on all notices issued that women were eligible to be registered as unemployed persons, and they at once began to prepare plans for the provision of assistance.^(a) Proposals for the establishment of a farm colony for women, and of laundries where the washing for the men's farm colonies might be carried on, were deferred, and it was decided to establish a workroom where women could be employed in making outfits and other articles for the use of the colonies or for emigrants sent out by the central body. Arrangements were also made with the Association of Trained Charwomen for the provision of a week's work for a few applicants recommended by the committee, the training of the women in such a way as to improve their industrial prospects being an essential feature of this scheme.

The distress committees were informed of these plans and asked to submit the record papers of cases recommended. In order that the experiments in the provision of assistance might be devised and carried out with constant reference to the character of the applications, the examination of these record papers was delegated to the women's work committee instead of to the classification committee.

Local workrooms.

As, however, by March 31, when the registers were closed, very few additional applications had been received, the scheme for a central workroom was abandoned on April 5, and it was decided as an alternative to invite the distress committees to take the initiative in preparing and submitting schemes for local workrooms for their own cases. These schemes, if approved, would then be undertaken and financed by the central body and managed with the cooperation of the distress committee. In this way it was hoped that local needs would be better met, and experience gained which would be useful in the future.

Several of the distress committees responded sympathetically, but only in the case of Poplar has local work actually been put in hand. The Poplar scheme provides for the employment of 20 women for at least five weeks in a workroom, organized in cooperation with Miss Cheetham of the Women's University Settlement, Canning Town, who is responsible to the central body for its management in accordance with the regulations of the Local Government Board and the requirements of the women's work committee. The workroom was opened on May 14. The women are employed for six hours a day for five days a week, and receive 2s. [49 cents] a day, while those who have families receive an additional allowance, on the same scale as the wives of men on the colonies, in respect of their children. The central body bears the whole expense and

^aA suggestive memorandum on the subject was circulated by the Women's Industrial Council.

provides the material. The product is of course the property of the central body, and consists of garments for sale on the colonies, or for the outfits of emigrants. The vacancies in the workroom not filled by Poplar women have been offered to the adjoining communities of Woolwich, Stepney, Bethnal Green, and Hackney. Only the first two have so far (May 26) sent any cases.

The needs of the emigrants sent out by the central body have also enabled the committee to "obtain" ordinary employment for a few of the best needlewomen among the applicants registered. Eleven women selected by a member of the emigration committee were recommended to apply to Mrs. Vatcher, of St. Phillip's vicarage, Stepney, who was responsible for the preparation of outfits for the East End Emigration Fund. The results were most encouraging. Only one proved unsuitable, one did not respond, and two had found work. The other seven worked steadily for nearly a month, and earned on the average about 10s. [£2.43] a week each.

An analysis of the cases dealt with up to May 3 shows the following results:

Number reported as registered by 24 distress committees.....	338
Number submitted by 10 distress committees as recommended for assistance (to May 3).....	116
Decisions of committee on cases submitted by distress committees:	
Recommended for workroom ^(a)	25
Recommended for training as charwomen ^(b)	15
Migrated to Wisbeach.....	1
Deferred for further consideration.....	4
Deferred for further information.....	17
Rejected as unsuitable or ineligible ^(c)	54

116

In comparing the figures it must be borne in mind that this is the first season in which any organized attempt to deal with unemployed women has been made. This fact affected both the number and the character of the applications and the cases recommended by distress committees. The work of this season has been experimental in a far higher degree even than that of dealing with unemployed men. Many questions—such as the distinction between cases of chronic poor relief and cases of industrial independence, or between exceptional unemployment and chronic under-employment or under-paid employment, and the difficulty of deciding whether or not a woman applicant is normally the breadwinner of a family or is herself dependent on husband or son—arose only in practice and could be decided only by experience. The numbers finally selected have also been limited by the small variety of methods of assistance which it has been possible as yet to provide. The question has also arisen whether the period for which the registers should be open for women is the same as that which is suitable for men, or whether, for example, exceptional distress among women may not be more likely to appear in July, August, or September, than in the winter.^(d)

^a Eleven of these were offered ordinary employment under Mrs. Vatcher in the manufacture of outfits for emigrants. (See above.)

^b Eight of these were offered a week's training at Mrs. Morton's; six did not accept the offer, in four cases owing to the distance to be traveled. Two were trained, and a satisfactory report having been received, the Association of Trained Charwomen has been asked to register their names with a view to their obtaining regular employment.

^c Husband or son to apply.....	14
Distress committee to assist to obtain work.....	9
Distress committee to refer to guardians.....	5
Distress committee to refer to C. O. S. or other local assistance.....	8
In receipt of regular relief.....	6
Character unsatisfactory.....	4
Supported by son.....	3
Left work.....	2
Refused work.....	2
Too old.....	1

^d On June 1 it was decided by the central body that the register should be opened on and after July 1 next [1906] for the registration of women.

Nothing shows more clearly than this report of the committee how little has been done for unemployed women and how difficult is the problem. A man can, if necessary, be given work away from his home, at least for a time, while a woman, if she has children or other persons dependent upon her, can not be separated from her family. Labor colonies, therefore, have provisions for women only in exceptional ways. As a rule women can not be employed, except occasionally in some clerical way, on public works, and unless special shops or workrooms are opened situations on ordinary work can not be procured for them. The main occupations, therefore, which are open to unemployed men are ordinarily not suitable for women. The above report shows what can be done in this line, but perhaps in regard to women, even more than to men, these conditions and difficulties make it of the utmost importance to have employment bureaus which can find situations for needy women. In this respect the German public employment bureaus have been especially successful.

Labor colonies for the temporarily unemployed who are employable is one of the questions most hotly debated in Europe. It is being demanded by most so-called radicals and progressives that labor colonies be started for both the employable and unemployable. But a considerable number of practical students of the question claim that such colonies, if they do some good, do more harm, and therefore should not be started. It seems wise, therefore, in studying this question, to see what the committees in charge of the English colonies of this nature have to report, and then to discuss their adequacy or inadequacy to meet the needs of the case. The reports are from the preliminary report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London to May 12, 1906, and are as follows:

REPORT OF THE WORKING COLONIES COMMITTEE OF THE CENTRAL
(UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON.

THE COLONY SYSTEM.

The work of this committee, of which Mr. George Lansbury was elected chairman at the first meeting on December 5, consists of the organization and management of works situated so far from London that the men employed do not return to their homes daily, but have to be accommodated on or near the works. These "colonies" may be of two kinds—farm or agricultural training colonies, which, though successive relays of colonists pass through them, are yet permanent institutions; and temporary colonies, or settlements of men housed for a time in a particular place for the purpose of carrying out a particular piece of work. In the permanent colony, however, it may be found desirable to provide accommodation for many more men than it is possible to train, and to use this extra accommodation for the temporary employment in times of exceptional distress of a large number of men upon unskilled preparatory work. Out of this larger number, the most promising will be selected for a more prolonged period of training, while the others will return to London to seek ordinary employment.

The working colonies committee has organized colonies of both these kinds. At Hollesley Bay there is an agricultural training colony with accommodation in times of exceptional distress for 350 men. Temporary colonies have been established at Osea Island, Garden City, and Fambridge, while a small number of men have been employed under colony conditions at the Morley and Bevan convalescent homes in Kent. At Fambridge it is hoped that the work of land reclamation carried out by the temporary colony may prepare the way for some form of more permanent settlement.

On all these colonies, except in the case of families actually resident at Hollesley Bay for agricultural training, the same conditions of employment are observed. The men are employed continuously for successive periods of a month, returning to London at the end of each month for two days to visit their homes and look for work. They receive board and lodging on the colony and an allowance of 6d. [12 cents] per week, while allowances, based on the size of the family, but in no case exceeding 17s. 6d. [\$4.26], are paid to their families in London.^(a) The central body has endeavored in all cases to have these allowances paid in the homes by friendly visitors, who might use their influence during their regular visits for the assistance of the families and the improvement of the home conditions.

HOLLESLEY BAY.

The colony.

The agricultural training colony is not only the scheme of employment which of all those put in hand by the central body offers most prospect of permanent usefulness, but it is also the one upon which the first parties of men assisted by the central body were employed. The colony was established by the Central Committee of the London Unemployed Fund in February, 1905, the estate and buildings being leased to that committee by Mr. Joseph Fels at a peppercorn rent for three years, with option of purchase, at the original cost price, at any time within that period.^(b) Under the terms of the agreement the estate was to be transferred on the same conditions to any metropolitan authority established to deal with the unemployed, and the offer of the transfer of the colony, which had at the time 170 men working upon it, followed automatically upon the constitution of the central body. The London Unemployed Fund Committee ceased to meet upon the appointment of the central body, and its funds, moreover, were all but exhausted. As a matter of urgency, therefore, the central body immediately undertook the management of the colony, reserving, until its own constitution was completed and the matter could be properly considered upon full information, the question of applying for the sanction of the Local Government Board to the acceptance of the offer.

Operations during the season.

On December 12, therefore, the committee took over the responsibility for the men already on the colony, and arranged for the dispatch of fresh men up to a total of 350. Of the men already there, 40 had been there all the summer and had been "selected," on the recommendation of the superintendent, Mr. Bolton Smart, out of some 200 sent down for three months in the preceding spring, for further training with a view to ultimate settlement in rural industry in some form either at home or in the colonies. The rest had gone down in the autumn. A few cottages were in course of erection, by means partly of unemployed labor and partly of funds supplied by Mr. Fels, for the purpose of transferring from London the homes of some of the selected men for a further period of united family training in rural life. Part of the scheme of work for the larger number of men during the winter was the reclamation of portions of heath land near these cottages for the purpose of providing small holdings for the use of the cottagers. Plans had also been prepared for the transforma-

^a Scale of weekly allowance: Wife 10s. [\$2.43]; first child 2s. [49 cents]; second child 1s. 6d. [37 cents]; other children (under 14 years of age) 1s. [24 cents] each; the total allowance not to exceed 17s. 6d. [\$4.26].

^b See report of the London Unemployed Fund for a full description of the colony and account of its foundation and the operations of the first season.

tion of further portions of the farm land into market garden, for cleaning out dykes, repairing barns, fences, and other woodwork, and making cement bricks for the new cottages. The current work of the farm and the market garden was also carried on.

The colony has not at any time been full. The time taken in selecting applicants, the constant occurrence of vacancies through men leaving for ordinary employment or other reasons, and the weeding out of the incompetent or ill conducted combined to produce this result. In the early part of the season, shortly after the Christmas furlough, dissatisfaction with certain temporary inconveniences incidental to the enlargement of the colony, fomented by a few restless spirits, led to the departure from the colony of 77 men out of a total of 242.^(a) As a rule, however, the conduct of the colonists has been good; their physique has been fair,^(b) and marked improvement has resulted from the fresh air, good food and continuous employment.

The average daily number of men employed has been 237, divided as follows: Inclosing meadows for market garden, 36; reclaiming heath, 25; greenhouses, 6; cleaning dikes and trimming hedgerows and fencing, 19; repairs and additions to buildings, 14; smiths, carpenters, etc., 10; brickmaking, 24; cottage building, 30; ordinary market gardening and farm work, 44; stablemen and carters, 4; shoemakers' and harness makers' shops, 3.^(c) Between December 12, 1905, and May 12, 1906, some 9½ acres of meadow land have been added to the market gardens and 1¼ to the orchard. The ground has been cleared, leveled, drained, double dug, and fenced. In the market garden the system practiced, e. g., in the Vale of Evesham, of planting lines of apple trees and bush fruit with rows of strawberries, onions, carrots, etc., between, has been adopted, while part has been planted with nursery forest trees.

In the existing garden 18 acres have been sown or planted with peas, beans, or other produce, and about 1,000 forest trees planted in permanent positions on the estate. Four greenhouses have been erected out of funds specially subscribed to the London Unemployed Fund, and produce has been regularly prepared for market by the colonists and delivered at Ipswich, Woodbridge, and Felixstowe.

Considerable alterations, improvements and repairs have been carried out in various parts of the buildings; nearly a mile of water main to the cottage sites (provided for in the London Unemployed Fund estimates) has been laid, and 75,000 cement bricks have been made, the sand for the purpose having been dug and carted on the estate. Training in farm work, including milking, plowing, etc., has been given to some 70 candidates for emigration.

Training for settlement.

Of the cottages in course of erection by Mr. Fels, two have been completed and four others are nearly ready. One family is already installed, a second is on the point of migration, and the settlers in the other four are now being selected.

Recently a scheme has been adopted by which each man is to be allowed to rent a small garden plot three-fourths of a chain in area at the equivalent of 2s. 6d. [61 cents] per annum, with the option of selling his produce to the colony at market price or of sending it home. This will, it is hoped, increase the interest taken by the colonists in their work and develop enterprise and initiative. It is not to be expected, however, that more than a fraction of the whole number will prove desirous of settling on the land or suitable for it. A considerable number of those sent down by the distress committees were obviously selected only with a view to tiding over a period of exceptional distress. At one time, for instance, there were on the colony 42 men over 45 years of age, of whom 10 were over 50. Those who for this or other reasons are recognized as temporary colonists return to London at the expiration of not later than the period of sixteen weeks allowed by the Local Government Board regulations, while in the

^a Many of the 77 were misled into taking this action and expressed sincere regret. Some of these were subsequently employed at other colonies and proved satisfactory.

^b Every man sent to a colony is previously certified as free from infection or dangerous weakness.

^c Sum of items does not equal total shown; the figures are as given in original official report.

case of those who appear suitable for further training with a view to settlement, application is made to the board for their sanction to an extension of the period.

What form that settlement will ultimately take is still uncertain. For many it will be emigration to Canada. For the rest there will be, as far as accommodation permits, a period of family life on the colony in a cottage with a small holding attached. During this period every effort will be made to train the men and families in the spirit and methods of cooperation, both in agricultural operations and in the collection and marketing of produce. As the limits of the estate will soon be reached for the settlers thus trained, it is contemplated that Hollesley Bay itself should remain the training college through which to pass the men and their families on to cooperative small holdings. The central body has decided, subject to the sanction of the Local Government Board, to purchase an estate near Wickford, in Essex, with the object of developing it in this way.

OSEA ISLAND.

The scheme.

One of the first openings for employment offered to the central body was a scheme of work submitted by Mr. F. N. Charrington, the proprietor of Osea Island, near Maldon, Essex. Similar schemes had been carried out in 1903-4 by the Mansion House committee, and in 1904-5 by the Daily Telegraph fund, and accommodation for 80 men existed on the island. In neither case had recoupment been paid. On this occasion Mr. Charrington agreed to place the buildings and resources of the island at the disposal of the committee and to cater for the men at a weekly charge of 10s. [\$2.43]; to provide materials and plant for the work; and to pay a recoupment equal to 50 per cent of the value of the work done, according to a valuation agreed upon by representatives of the two parties. The central body, in order to make an immediate start with the employment of as many men as possible, agreed to accept these terms, subject to the consent of the Local Government Board. This consent being given, the work began on January 23. A foreman appointed by the central body was placed in charge of the work, while a representative of Mr. Charrington supervised the domestic arrangements.

The work.

The work consisted of sea-wall repairing, road making, and trenching. The first parties of men, though not equal in physique to the ordinary navvies, proved to be willing workers. The exceptionally high tides of March washed away a considerable part of the work done. As a consequence the amount planned out was not completed as soon as had been expected, and on May 12 there was still a fortnight's work left to do. On April 21 the amount accomplished by 60 men, working on the average fourteen weeks, was reported to be as follows:

Sea walling:	Yards.
Original amount to be executed-----	349
Amount of work finished (besides that washed away)-----	138
Amount still to be done April 21 (^a)-----	211

This includes unloading 1,200 tons of stone and using the same in pitching the wall.

Road making.—Three hundred and thirty-three yards of road has been formed. One hundred and eighty yards of road has to be hard cored (including spreading, rolling, etc.).^(a)

Sewer work.—One hundred and eighty-three feet sewer track, 7 feet 6 inches deep, has been opened and a 12-inch pipe laid the whole length and the cutting filled in. (This work has been very difficult owing to the looseness of the soil, which necessitated the use of close timbering.)

^a This work has since been completed.

GARDEN CITY.

The scheme.

In the spring of 1905 the London Unemployed Fund had carried out a scheme of road making on the estate of the Garden City Company, Letchworth, Herts. Huts had been built by the fund and leased to the company after the completion of the work, under an agreement which provided for their purchase by the company for £600 [\$2,920], if not again required for the unemployed. The Garden City Company had been in communication with the London Unemployed Fund on the subject during the autumn, but it was not until the opening of the Queen's fund had afforded a certain prospect of funds that anything definite could be proposed. The Garden City Company now offered the central body the contract for carrying out some leveling work for railway sidings, which would not otherwise be done for some years, but for which if done now the Great Northern Railway, or failing them the Garden City Company themselves, would be prepared to pay at the rate of 1s. [24 cents] per cubic yard within six months of completion. The amount proposed was 30,000 cubic yards, and it was estimated that it would take 150 men for three months. After a survey and report kindly made by Mr. Sumner, the city engineer, the central body decided to accept this offer. The smallness of the area made it difficult, however, to keep so many men at work, and subsequently the number was reduced to 120, while in order to employ them in the most efficient and economical way a further 10,000 cubic yards—for which the Garden City Company offered to pay on the completion of the work at 1s. [24 cents] per cubic yard, less 10 per cent—was undertaken by the central body. The Garden City Company undertook to supply a set of tip wagons free of charge, to indemnify the central body against damage done by the men by trespass, and to purchase the huts at the end of the period for the sum of £400 [\$1,947]. These terms having been agreed upon, the first parties of men began work on February 21. Mr. Harley Heckford, borough surveyor of Poplar, kindly undertook the preliminary measurements of the work on behalf of the central body. Mr. Stephens, who managed a colony of West Ham unemployed in the same neighborhood last year, was appointed superintendent.

The work.

The work proved simple and straightforward. The ability of the men has been only fair, the average output, after they have had time to benefit by practice and by the healthy colony conditions, being estimated by the superintendent at about three-fifths of that of an ordinary navy. This represents for unemployed labor a fairly high average. The amount excavated up to May 12, when 111 men had been employed an average of eight weeks, was 7,311 cubic yards, while lately the average weekly output for 100 men has been between 1,300 and 1,400 cubic yards. The work will be completed about the middle of August and is estimated to cost £3,600 [\$17,519], and the ultimate recoupment on the above figures may be estimated at about £1,950 [\$9,490].

Local assistance in the colony.

The residents of Garden City have shown the same interest in the welfare of the men which helped so much to make the previous colony a success. Entertainments or lectures have been provided three times a week, and the day rooms kept well supplied with periodicals.

An attempt made to arouse interest in the prospect of obtaining permanent work in the Garden City itself has been less successful this year than last. Two cottages were again offered by Mr. Christie Miller on condition that would-be tenants should have worked for a local employer successfully for a month. Only a few, however, responded to the suggestion, and for one reason or another none proved suitable.

FAMBRIDGE.

The scheme.

Among the schemes brought to the notice of the London Unemployed Fund in the early part of 1905, but deferred by the committee of that fund on account of the lateness of the season and the exhaustion of their resources, was one for the repair of some serious breaches in the north wall of the River

Crouch, near Farnbridge, in Essex. Through these breaches some 200 acres of land were flooded every high tide, and local resources had proved inadequate to the repair of the damage. It was hoped that a combined scheme might be arranged, by which a large number of London unemployed could be engaged upon the work, and the feasibility of utilizing unemployed labor for this kind of land reclamation could be tested by experiment.

In the autumn the negotiations were reopened by the London Unemployed Fund, through the medium of the Rev. F. Macleod, rector of Farnbridge, and steps were taken to collect information as to the extent of the damage—which had increased during the interval—the names of the parties directly or indirectly interested, and the prospect of securing local cooperation in the cost of the work.

As soon as the central body had met, with the prospect of sufficient funds for the scheme, the negotiations were renewed by the working colonies committee. A conference of all those interested in the matter was arranged for, and after some delay, incurred in the hope of securing the cooperation of the board of trade or the Local Government Board, this conference was duly held at the offices of the central body on January 25. It was ascertained at the conference that there were two distinct sets of breaches, one on the east of the ferry and one on the west, the flooded areas being separated by the embankments protecting the Ferry road. The land flooded through the eastern breaches was the property of Lord Rayleigh, while that flooded through the western was owned by several small proprietors who had been so impoverished by the damage to their land that they could not offer any substantial contribution toward the repair of the walls. Lord Rayleigh, however, announced through his agent that he was prepared, if the central body would carry out the repair of the eastern breaches, to offer them the gift of the 200 acres at present flooded, or as an alternative, a contribution of £1,000 [\$4,867] toward the cost. The committee at once obtained a survey and estimates from Mr. A. E. Carey, M. Inst. C. E., engineer to the Dengie level commission, and upon his report that the work would be practicable with the class of labor available, the central body decided to put it in hand at once, and to apply for the sanction of the Local Government Board to the acceptance of Lord Rayleigh's offer of the land.

The consideration of the question of the western breaches was deferred, pending the results of the work on the eastern side.

The colony.

It so happened that on the south side of the river, opposite the site of the work, there stood a disused factory and a number of iron and brick cottages in which the former employees had lived. It was found that these could be rented at a low cost, and as the extent of flooded land would have rendered it impossible, apart from the time lost and the expense, to create a colony close to the work, it was decided to hire these cottages. The difficulty of getting across the river was overcome by means of a ferry, consisting of a barge capable of holding 120 men, and worked by a winch upon a fixed chain. The river can thus be crossed in ten minutes.

The cottages provide accommodation for 160 men. Each man has a small bedroom, and there is a large hall, part of which serves as a mess room and part as a day room and concert hall. There are also small gardens attached to the cottages and these have been made the means of introducing a new element into the temporary colony. Each man has the use of a small allotment; and prizes will be offered for the best results of their gardening, while the produce will be purchased by the colony. The provision of entertainment has offered some difficulty, owing to the loneliness of the spot. A miniature billiard game has, however, been presented, and occasional concerts have been very kindly given, at the cost of considerable trouble, by residents in the neighborhood.

The first party of men, who went down on February 27, were occupied for the most part in making preparations for the accommodation of the full number, and in so far as any work was done on the north side of the river, they had to be ferried across in boats. The men were consequently not fully employed, and the unsettlement inevitable at the opening of a colony was increased by the inclusion in the first parties of some irreconcilable malcontents. The trouble culminated on March 19, when 24 men out of 27 left the colony. One

of them brought an action for assault against the superintendent which was dismissed by the local magistrates.

On April 5 work on the north side of the river was in full operation, and on April 28 the ferry was in working order and the colony ready for the reception of 160 men.

The work.

The site of the work is about 12 miles from the sea, the river being tidal and running between embankments for some distance above this point. There are two breaches in the main river wall about 600 yards from each other, one being 150 yards in length, the other about 200 yards. Previous attempts had been made in each case to keep out the water by building a semicircular inset wall of clay behind the breach, in the hope that the new walls, thus removed from immediate contact with the scour of the open river, would be able to resist the tide. Both these inset walls had however been subsequently breached in several places, and by the beginning of this year the whole of the 200 acres behind the insets was flooded at high tide to a depth of 4 to 10 feet, while channels 20 feet deep had been scoured in the main breaches themselves. Through these breaches the water draining off so large an area rushed twice a day with the force of a torrent. It was obviously impossible to stop these great breaches without piling, and it was at first proposed to repair the eastern quadrant of the eastern inset and the western quadrant of the western, and to join the two by a new wall across the flat in the rear of the old wall fronting the river. Besides this, the whole of the existing river wall east and west of the breaches required raising by about 2 feet. This seemed to be a scheme which the unemployed could be expected to carry out, in spite of serious difficulties from the rush of water and from the sodden condition of the land on which the new wall was to be built.

The exceptionally high tide of March 10, however, increased the damage to such an extent that this plan had to be abandoned. It was finally decided to have the western or smaller breach stopped by piling, reinforced by an earth embankment, and in the case of the larger breach to repair and considerably strengthen the whole of the inset wall, while a sluice, consisting of three 18-inch cast-iron pipes with tide flaps, has been carried through the base of the river wall and is now in operation. This work, and also the piling, had of course to be done by contractors with proper appliances and with skilled men, while in the meantime the unemployed were engaged upon the work of topping the existing wall. As soon as the rush of water is stopped the whole work will come well within the powers of the unskilled workmen, supervised as they are by a few practiced wallers, under the control of Mr. Scotland, who is accustomed to waterwork, and the general superintendence of Mr. Carey.

From recent reports received from Mr. Carey, it appears that the eastern inset wall, which is about half a mile in length, is now topped to such an extent that it serves as a protection against flooding. He also regards the closing of the main breach on the river wall as within measurable distance of accomplishment.

His last report concludes as follows:

"Speaking generally, I think I may say that the works are progressing rapidly, and that the 'unemployed' labor is proving adaptable to this class of work. On the occasion of my visits, which have been frequent, I have noted a progressive improvement in the way in which the work is taken in hand."

MORLEY AND BEVAN HOMES.

A small number of men have been engaged in painting work at the working-men's convalescent homes at Sandgate and St. Margarets Bay. The central body pays the allowances to the families, the railway fares and the cost of materials. The committee of the homes provides board and lodging. The work is estimated to occupy six men for about nine weeks, at a cost to the central body of about £60 [\$292]. The work and conduct of the men have, so far, been very satisfactory.

Many who are familiar with the work of the colonies urge that they do no good, or that if they do good to a few they harm many more,

and therefore are in the main disastrous. That, in themselves and considered by themselves, they do little for the colonists must probably be admitted. Even for the German labor colonies, considered later in this report, it is not claimed that there is much redemption of character, and in England, where the stay of the colonists is usually for the most part of shorter duration than in Germany, still less is probably accomplished in this direction. That they do harm, too, by removing the unemployed from the ordinary channels of labor into celibate communities, apart from the world, without keeping them there long enough to teach them new habits of work or new industries makes it more difficult for them to find work when they leave the colonies.

Observations made by the writer in November, 1907, especially at Hollesley Bay, somewhat corroborate this view. The Hollesley Bay colony is in some ways most fortunate in its location. The buildings occupied by the colony were formerly used as an agricultural school for gentlemen's sons, and are therefore more attractive than those usually occupied by labor colonists. More room is needed for the present members of the colony, but in the main no one can complain as to the provision for sleeping, eating, or living rooms, while vegetable gardens, flower beds, trees, etc., make the place unusually attractive. Every effort seems to be made for the comfort and enjoyment of the colonists without passing the limits of making the place too attractive. The men, as seen together in the dining hall or scattered for work, seemed fairly intelligent and willing and able to work, and the published reports in the main bear this out.

And yet while all this is favorable the question arises whether the effort produces permanent good. The men are there for a strictly limited time. In almost all cases it is found that they arrive too weak, through lack of sufficient food, to be able for the first few weeks to do much work; after that in most cases they work well. But just as soon as they become able to do good work their time of stay is at an end, and in most cases they return to London to their former condition, little better off in pocket, in training, or in prospects. It is true that places are found for a limited number, that some of the most promising are helped to emigrate to Canada, and that a very few are placed permanently on the land; but for the large majority no permanent good is done.

Nevertheless, from all this it does not follow that in connection with other instrumentalities such colonies have no place. What is done for the few shows what might be done for the many. In connection with other efforts and plans the colony can be made most use-

ful and successful. This is the belief of many of the committee in charge, and especially of Mr. Fels, the giver of the land. Mr. Fels is an American who has been largely interested in the development of the successful vacant-lot gardens in Philadelphia. He knows what men can do with a little land. He therefore has aided this Hollesley Bay colony, not as a thing in itself and by itself of great value, but simply to show what can be done, and as a feeder to a general scheme to getting the unemployed on the land. Hence, Mr. Fels has aided in the erection of a few cottages, where men can be placed on the land with their families and given a chance to show what they can do. And herein lies the real meaning and value of such colonies as Hollesley Bay. Mr. Fels's attitude in the matter was thus expressed to a reporter in July, 1907, when he said:

I put this farm at the disposal of the Central (Unemployed) Body for three reasons. First, my own reason, to try to create land hunger. Secondly, to convince the country at large that the London unemployed could make their own living out of the land if properly organized and humanely handled. The third reason is that I hoped that out of Hollesley Bay would come the establishing of trained men cooperating in small holdings and financed by the community until they were self-supporting and the money advanced returned.

"How far has Hollesley Bay answered your expectations?"

Mr. FELS. "The property is a magnificent one for the purpose of a training college for the common people in the cultivation of the land. As such it has proved itself to be quite successful, so far as it has been allowed to go by the powers that be. The only thing missing has been the proper appreciation of the question by the Local Government Board. That body has signally failed to appreciate the underlying principles for which the colony was provided, in having refused to grant the necessary permission for intensive cultivation, and in having also stopped the experiment short at the crucial point—viz, the shutting out of the training of men on the cooperative holdings."

"What is now necessary, then, to complete the scheme?"

Mr. FELS. "The building of at least 100 cottages and the acquisition of another estate. I have in my mind, of course, the utilization of the unemployed in the building of these cottages, which in itself would have given hope to the whole enterprise. What has already been accomplished there is a convincing proof that a thousand times greater results can be achieved in that single county of Suffolk."

"In view of the action of the Local Government Board, have you any other schemes on hand?"

Mr. Fels answered: "Getting desperate at the slowness of public authorities, I took an abandoned farm $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Althorne, in Essex. About eighteen months' working shows a position something like this: The farm of 400 acres is devoted to dairy farming, the raising of pigs and poultry, and market gardening. It is intended

to be an object lesson to the country as to the way in which derelict farms can be made fruitful. A large nursery has been prepared for growing plants, fruit trees, and bush fruits to supply the small holdings. A French garden has been laid out on exactly the same lines as the thousands of gardens around Paris. This garden is being worked by two competent and experienced Frenchmen, brought over for the purpose. The object of this French garden is to demonstrate how prolific land can be made, even in this cold quarter of Essex, under the French system. The garden is now in extent about 1 acre and employs four men all their time.

“There is also a large range of hothouses.

“The balance of the land has been cut up into small holdings of 5 acres each. Two acres are planted with fruit trees, and on each plot a good London stock brick house has been built, with convenient stable and outbuildings for cow or pony, and pigs and poultry.

“There are 21 of these small holdings completed and tenanted by people drawn from all parts of the country. I believe 3 of them have had previous experience on the land. Of the remainder, 2 are men (with their families) who were trained on the Hollesley Bay colony, and they are quite up to the average of the other 19. The holders of these 21 small holdings represent various trades, including machinists, engineers, bootmakers, harness makers, etc.”

“And what is the measure of success?”

Mr. FELS. “You will have to ask me that question two years from now; but as the average men of their class, they will have average success. At any rate, everything points to their being successful.”

Replying to a question as to whether any further advantages were apparent in the direction of the larger issue referred to in the beginning of the interview, Mr. Fels said: “Already an agricultural village has sprung up. Not only are the things growing on the farm, but the population is growing also. There are flourishing in this hitherto derelict farm some seventy children, and the parents are already commencing to approach the county council educational authority for the provision of a school, which it is proposed shall be erected on the 7 acres of the farm which have been set apart for public buildings and building purposes. These 21 families have created their own industrial market for the supply of the commodities of life. The formation of the small holdings on the model farm, together with the nursery, glasshouses, and the French garden, etc., have brought together a community of people which has necessitated the calling into being of another community for the purpose of supplying their ordinary needs, thus proving what I said at the beginning—that if you set people to work on the land it will also employ hundreds of other people to supply their needs. A cooperative small holdings society has already sprung into existence, and a considerable business is being done to supply articles which under other circumstances the people would have had to have gone without because of the lack of opportunity and means to purchase them.”

The Hollesley Bay colony therefore is not to be judged wholly in and by itself. This is the view, too, of Mr. Percy Alden, M. P., author

of "The Unemployed, a National Question," who writes concerning Hollesley Bay as follows: (^a)

Three special objects are kept in view by the committee for the conduct of the colony:

(1) The provisions of special work for periods of exceptional distress.

(2) The provision of more continuous work for men who are not only in exceptional need of employment, but who have either already lived upon the land or show a marked aptitude for country life.

(3) The establishment of suitable men and families in agricultural or other rural industries.

In the case of No. 1, as is quite natural, the work of the selected men who are out of employment during a period of exceptional distress will not be so much agricultural as road making, reclaiming heath land, strengthening the sea wall, brickmaking, and the general repair work of the colony. All this can be done without interfering with ordinary industry.

In the case of Nos. 2 and 3, Hollesley Bay will more closely approximate to the type of colony with which we are dealing at present.

Taking class No. 2, it is suggested that there should be two stages—

(*a*) a probationary period of three months, during which the men might live in the colony buildings, their wives and children being supported in London; and (*b*) a second stage, providing that the period of probation proves the men to have the necessary strength and ability for agricultural work. In this case it is proposed that the wives and children of the men shall be brought down from London, and that cottages be allotted to these families for a period of from six to nine months. Some cottages have already been built and are in occupation.

Following on this second stage in the treatment of class 2 is the definite establishment of selected men and families in agricultural or other rural industries, and it is hoped that not only may ordinary farm or market gardening situations be found for good men, but that finally some of these men may be established on small holdings in the neighborhood of the colony, and this hope would be held out to all who distinguish themselves by industry and capability. Hollesley Bay will be seen thus, supposing that these plans can be carried out to offer the most constructive attempt yet made, either in England or on the Continent, to deal with the question of unemployed labor; and providing that the small-holdings idea can be carried into effect and gradually developed upon cooperative lines the experiment ought to result not only in the absorption of a certain class of genuine unemployed men, but also in the quickening up of rural industries.

Another point here must not be overlooked. It is that the consideration of the labor colony has been only for the temporary unemployed who are employable. For this class the labor colony presents admittedly only a small usefulness, and none at all, unless, as indicated, it leads to something.

^aNew Encyclopedia of Social Reform, p. 684.

But for the unemployed who are really unemployable, the situation is wholly different, and for such a labor colony may have large use. These, on the premises of being unemployable, can not get work in ordinary industry on any terms. Yet they can not be left to perish. The question therefore arises whether for members of this class, at least for those without family ties, the labor colony may not be the best provision. It gives them a somewhat adequate and sorely needed shelter at the lowest cost to the community, makes them contribute at least to their own support, saving them therefore from absolute pauperization, redeems into self-support and usefulness perhaps a few, and removes the others from their demoralizing effect upon the community at large. Such is in brief the argument for labor colonies.

Many think that those who criticise the labor colonies as a measure for the relief of the employable unemployed have overlooked or failed to see their usefulness for the unemployable. Before considering other themes such figures are given as are available to bring this portion of the subject down to 1907.

The returns of the distress committees in England and Wales and the Central (Unemployed) Body for London for the year ending March, 1907, says in brief:

The following table shows the number of applications received by the 29 distress committees in London and by such committees outside London as registered applications at any time during the year, and the number of such applications which were investigated and found suitable cases for assistance under the act:

APPLICATIONS RECEIVED AND ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

	Committees taking proceedings under the act.	Estimated population (middle of 1906).	Applications received up to March 31, 1907.	Applications entertained.		Per cent of applicants and dependents considered of estimated population.
				Applicants.	Dependents.	
Distress committees in London.....	29	4,721,217	28,181	13,070	37,656	1.1
Provincial distress committees.....	76	10,528,850	58,820	47,346	115,145	1.5
Total.....	105	15,250,067	87,001	60,416	152,801	1.4

* The total (estimated) population of all areas for which distress committees were appointed was, in 1906, 16,341,533.

The total number of applicants registered represented 1 in 175, or 5.7 per 1,000, of the aggregate population of the above districts.

Of the total number of applicants (87,001) 4,188 were women. The census returns show that the aggregate male population (including young persons) en-

gaged in occupations of all kinds in the districts of the 105 committees who took proceedings in 1906-7, numbered 4,362,545. Calculated on this basis, and disregarding any increase between 1901 and 1906, the total number of men who applied to distress committees in the year 1906-7 represented 1.9 per cent of the working male population as compared with a proportion of 2.4 per cent in 1905-6.

The total number of applicants (87,001) to distress committees during the year was more than 20 per cent lower than the number recorded in the preceding winter, 110,835 applications having been received in the six months ended March 31, 1906. The proportion per 1,000 of the population had been 6.9 in the earlier period as compared with a rate of 5.7 in 1906-7.

Further, it appears that many of the applications received during the year were repetitions of applications made in the winter of 1905-6. Information on this point obtained in the returns showed that in as many as 25,104 cases, or more than a fourth of the whole number of applications received, the applicants had also applied in the period preceding the 31st of March, 1906.

The decrease in the number of applicants was in great measure due to the improved conditions of industry and employment, especially noticeable in Lancashire and the Midlands.

Of the 87,001 applications, 14,832 were rejected by the committee on various grounds.

More than five-sixths of the applicants were between the ages of 20 and 50 years, the group of persons aged 30 to 40 actually being slightly the largest.

The occupations of the applicants whose cases were entertained are, so far as they were ascertained, shown in the following table:

PERSONS WHOSE APPLICATIONS WERE ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND IN LONDON AND THE PROVINCES, BY OCCUPATIONS, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

Occupations.	London.		London and provinces.	
	Number.	Per cent of total of all occupations.	Number.	Per cent of total of all occupations.
General or casual labor.....	6,681	51.1	31,534	52.2
Bulking trade.....	2,575	19.7	10,700	17.7
Engineering, shipbuilding, and metal trades.....	629	4.8	4,107	6.8
Boot and shoe making.....	166	1.3	1,429	2.4
Furnishing and woodworking.....	322	2.5	988	1.6
Food, drink, and tobacco trades.....	316	2.4	941	1.6
Domestic service.....	323	2.5	1,650	2.7
Textile trades.....	83	.3	573	1.0
Tailoring and clothing.....	149	1.1	369	.6
Printing, bookbinding, and other paper trades.....	115	.9	308	.5
Other occupations.....	1,768	13.5	7,799	12.9

The largest section of applicants belonged to the casual labor class, who as in the previous year formed more than half the total number of applicants.

Of the 60,416 persons whose applications were entertained, 36,280 are stated to have been found, or provided with, work.

Twenty-seven distress committees outside London, in all, reported that no work had been provided either directly by themselves or by the local authority through their agency; but in several of these cases work was found for some of the applicants with private employers.

The following table shows the number of persons who were provided with work by the distress committees or in London by the Central (Unemployed) Body, by local authorities through the medium of the distress committees, and with private employers. But as regards the last-mentioned class, it should be understood that in some instances work was obtained through the agency of the labor bureau or labor exchange and is not included in the figures here given. This was no doubt largely the case in London.

PERSONS PROVIDED WITH WORK IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, YEAR
ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

	Through the Central (Unemployed) Body, and by direct employment.	Through local authorities.	Otherwise.	Net total. (e)	Per cent of applicants found qualified.
London.....	3,951	1,215	232	5,389	41.2
Provincial distress committees.....	11,692	14,742	5,224	30,891	65.2
Total.....	15,643	15,957	5,456	36,280	60.1

* Including once only persons employed by more than one of the above methods.

In London men were, as in the previous year, selected by the distress committees from their registers to take up work provided for them from time to time by the Central (Unemployed) Body, on the farm and labor colony and other works, on which the men were employed directly by the central body, and on works carried out by borough councils, under the approval of, and with the aid of contributions from, the central body. In addition a certain number of men were employed by borough councils and other local authorities on various works carried out by them independently of the central body.

In the provinces, 32 distress committees provided work by direct employment for persons on their registers, but a large number of men found employment on works undertaken by the local authorities. In more than half these cases, however, the distress committee contributed toward the cost of the work, either to the extent of making good the estimated additional expenditure incurred owing to the unusual character of the labor employed, or by payment of an agreed proportion.

The work was usually of a rough description, such as making and repairing roads, sewerage work, work on pleasure grounds and open spaces, snow clearing and street cleansing, laying gas mains and tramway tracks, etc. In some cases it was found possible to provide more skilled work, such as painting.

The average time worked by each man varied considerably. As on previous occasions, periodic employment of three days or more was given in some instances. In many cases an average of not more than seven or eight days' work or even less could be provided, but in a fair proportion of districts the men obtained several weeks' employment.

The rate of pay was very commonly 5d. [10 cents] per hour, the rates ranging generally between 4d. and 6½d. [8 and 13 cents], while higher rates were paid in a few instances for more skilled work.

The quality of the work performed was reported fairly generally as satisfactory, regard being had to the fact that the men were in many cases unsuited to the work, and that more supervision was necessary than under ordinary conditions.

Besides the work of the class above referred to, a few distress committees outside London availed themselves of their powers to rent land on which men were employed in works of cultivation. In Southampton the distress committee arranged for the use of 47 acres of land from the corporation, on which men were employed for periods ranging from one to sixteen weeks; the Kingston-on-Hull committee similarly obtained 3 acres of land for cultivation, the Leicester committee 18 acres, and the Oldham committee 4 acres.

The farm colony provided by the distress committee of West Ham continued to be the only instance of an undertaking of this nature carried on by a provincial committee. The total expenditure on the colony for the year was £10,135 [\$49,322]. The aggregate number of men employed during the year was 448.

The work provided on the farm colony at Hollesley Bay by the Central (Unemployed) Body for London was maintained during the year, the total expenditure on the year's operations being £24,115 [\$117,357]. The estate on which the colony is situated was purchased during the year for the sum of £34,213 [\$166,498]. One thousand and sixty-three men were admitted in the course of the year.

Of the other works of a somewhat similar character provided by the central body, those at the Garden City (Letchworth) and at Osea Island were closed

respectively in December and May, 1906; the works at Fambridge continued throughout the year.

The following table shows all the receipts and expenditures of the Central (Unemployed) Body of London for the year ending March 31, 1907:

SUMMARY OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

Receipts.		Expenditures. (d)		
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount paid—	
			Out of Parliamentary grant.	From other sources.
Rates.....	\$325,471.52	Cost of work: (e)		
Parliamentary grants (a).....	6153,976.06	By the establishment and maintenance of farm or other colonies.....	\$95,461.26	\$194,582.13
Queen's unemployed fund.....	90,594.76	Otherwise.....	61,935.95	35,793.10
Voluntary contributions.....	472.05	Contributions by the central body toward the cost of work (f).....	5,056.29	42,650.00
Transfer from Central Unemployed Committee.....	54,572.93	Cost of labor exchanges, employment registers, and the collection of information.....		28,361.96
Recoupment from London County Council (c).....	18,453.77	In aid of emigration or removal of persons to other areas.....		113,963.69
Proceeds of work done at Hollesley Bay.....	20,629.09	Other expenditures of—		
Sales of women's work.....	3,280.02	Central body.....		34,386.68
Miscellaneous, including bank interest.....	4,715.63	Distress committees defrayed by the central body.....		38,372.35
Total.....	672,165.85	Total.....	162,453.50	488,109.95
		Grand total.....	£ 650,563.45	

^a Distributed by the Local Government Board.

^b A further sum of £17,225 (\$83,826) was paid by the Local Government Board before the end of the fiscal year, but was not brought into account till after March 31, 1907.

^c For work done in the parks and elsewhere.

^d Expenditures not defrayed, or intended to be defrayed, out of loans.

^e Provided directly by the central board.

^f Provided by the local authorities or other bodies.

^g Not including expenditure in respect of the purchase of Hollesley Bay estate. A loan of \$173,714.58 was sanctioned for this purpose in December, 1906.

The following table shows the total receipts and expenditures of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London and the distress committees in London and the Provinces:

SUMMARY OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON AND THE DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND THE PROVINCES, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

Receipts.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
Rates.....	\$438,413.25	Cost of work provided:	
Parliamentary grant (a).....	427,254.37	On farm labor colonies.....	\$339,365.37
Queen's unemployed fund.....	120,051.69	Otherwise.....	438,252.65
Voluntary contributions or collections.....	56,125.34	Cost of labor exchanges, employment registers, and the collection of information.....	67,435.09
Other receipts, including repayments for work done.....	149,688.67	In aid of emigration or removal of persons to other areas.....	153,202.28
Total.....	1,191,533.32	Other expenditure.....	^b 110,015.63
		Total.....	1,108,321.04

^a Distributed by the Local Government Board.

^b Not including £34,214 (\$166,502) expenditure on the purchase of Hollesley Bay estate, and £2,039 (\$9,923) expenditure out of loan by the Bradford (York) distress committee.

The following table shows the number of persons employed, rates of pay, average time worked, and expenditures for four colonies in 1906-7:

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED, RATES OF PAY, AVERAGE TIME WORKED, EXPENDITURES, ETC., FOR FOUR SPECIFIED COLONIES IN THE YEAR 1906-7.

Items.	Hollesley Bay.	Fambridge.	Osea Island.	Garden City.
Number of persons--				
Employed at beginning of year.....	281	18	69	108
Admitted during year.....	1,068	915	90	392
Employed Mar. 31, 1907.....	294	165	(^a)	(^a)
Average--				
Number daily employed in--				
July, 1906.....	150	150	(^a)	105
January, 1907.....	306	189	(^a)	(^a)
Period of employment for each person (weeks)...	11.3	8.4	4.5	9.0
Rates of pay, allowances, etc., to unemployed persons on the works, per week.....	\$5.84	\$5.84	\$5.84	\$5.60
Expenditure during the year for--				
Wages of men.....	\$87,423.04	\$51,247.08	\$3,540.78	\$21,537.16
Materials.....	\$24,644.52	\$43,410.82	\$2.43	\$268.91
All other items.....	\$5,237.31	\$9,938.99	\$288.38	\$3,810.46
Total.....	\$117,354.87	\$104,596.90	\$3,831.59	\$25,616.54

^a Colony closed.

The following table shows the work provided by the Central (Unemployed) Body for London on other than farm and labor colony works:

WORK PROVIDED BY THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON ON OTHER THAN FARM AND LABOR COLONY WORKS, 1906-7.

Work provided by--	Number employed.		Average period of employment, weeks.	Rates of pay.	Total amount of wages earned during year.
	Total during year. ^(a)	Average on one day.			
The central body directly (^b).....	4,328	815	3.3	12 to 14 cents per hour	\$77,878.60
Arrangement with--					
His Majesty's office of works (^c).....	496	128	3.2	97 cents per day (^d).....	8,628.36
Borough councils--(^e)					
Wandsworth Bathing Lake.....	859	347	{ 9.6 6.09	} 12 to 15 cents per hour	37,447.72
Other schemes.....					

^a The numbers shown in this column are the gross totals of the number of persons employed on the several works.

^b Laying out playing fields, trenching, digging, trimming flower beds, cleaning lakes, etc.

^c Excavating gravel, removing railings, trenching, widening roads, and turning on various open spaces.

^d For five days a week.

^e Laying out recreation grounds, drainage work, excavating, and constructing bathing lake.

For Scotland the following particulars are taken from the report by the Local Government Board for Scotland as to the proceedings of distress committees in Scotland for the year ending May 15, 1907:

APPLICATIONS RECEIVED AND ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN SCOTLAND UP TO MAY 15, 1907.

Date.	Persons from whom applications were received.			Persons whose applications were entertained as qualified for assistance under the act and the regulations, and of their dependents.					
	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Wives.	Children.	Other dependents.
For the period ended May 15, 1906.....	8,695	172	8,867	6,650	121	6,771	4,720	11,208	559
For the year ended May 15, 1907.....	8,576	284	8,860	6,670	227	6,897	3,931	9,853	687

Of the male applicants 57.23 per cent were married men. Of the applicants the majority were between the ages of 40 and 60.

Work was provided for only 45.31 per cent of those who were considered worthy of assistance in terms of the act, compared with 57.9 per cent for the period ending May 15, 1906, while only 21.63 per cent of the number provided with work were similarly assisted during the period ending May 15, 1906. Of the 12 distress committees that provided work, either directly or indirectly, 6 paid the standard rate of wages and 6 paid less than the standard rate.

Only 6 distress committees provided work directly, and some of these to a very limited extent; in most cases the distress committees looked to local authorities, chiefly the town council, to provide relief works rather than initiate such works themselves.

The relief work consisted for the most part of stone-breaking, construction of new streets and sewers, and other miscellaneous jobs involving rough, unskilled work.

It was a common practice to allow the men to work in relays of a week or fortnight at a time where the number of applicants was in excess of the number required to undertake the work that the distress committee were in a position to offer. Married men with dependents were given a preference over single men and widowers with no dependents.

The period of employment varied from six days to eight weeks, the average being thirty-one days in respect of work provided directly by the distress committee, and about twenty-three days for work provided indirectly. The rates of pay varied according to the nature of the work and the skill of the persons employed. Laborers appear to have been paid a wage varying from 3d. to 6d. (6 to 12 cents) per hour.

Mr. Alden, reviewing England's general experience, says that in relief works the main conditions of success are as follows:

1. The work should be really useful in character.

2. It should be of such a nature that any willing and industrious man who is accustomed to manual labor can be employed on it.

3. Such work should not be regarded merely as a test of character, but every attempt should be made, by means of inquiry and classification, by proper supervision and superintendence, to insure that a fair return is obtained for the wage paid.^(a)

He quotes an English committee as recommending that—

(1) Men should only be admitted to them after inquiry or on satisfactory recommendation.

(2) The wages and hours should be as nearly as possible according to contract rates.

(3) Care should be taken to supply sufficient overlookers and to group the men according to character and ability.

(4) If a meal is wanted, or clothing, it is better that this should be supplied separately from a relief fund. The employment should be given, as far as possible, in accordance with ordinary business contracts, and not as "charity work," which tends to be as ill done as it is ill paid and to degrade men instead of improving them.

(5) Public and other relief works should be of a local character, planned according to the estimates drawn by the local authorities, and conducted under local superintendence. This will be some guaranty against waste and irresponsibility. Such works only should be undertaken as are likely to create the least disturbance in the labor market.^(b)

It is frequently urged in England that many much-needed national and local improvements could be produced by employing the unemployed. This is the view of all members of the Labor Party, of most British trades-unionists, and of many students of the question.

To further this end a bill was introduced into Parliament in 1907 by Mr. J. R. Macdonald, M. P., and backed by the leading labor Members of Parliament, "to provide work through public authorities for unemployed persons."

What the unemployed bill demands is as follows:

1. County and borough councils and urban districts of over 20,000 are to be local unemployed authorities with power to act together. They are to register their unemployed, as also are the councils of every borough, urban district, and parish, and overseers when there is no parish council. These registers are to be paid for by the rates.

Provision of work to be compulsory.—Section 3 of the bill provides that where a workman has registered himself as unemployed it shall be the duty of the local unemployment authority to provide work for him in connection with one or other of the schemes hereinafter provided, or otherwise, or failing the provision of work, to provide maintenance should necessity exist for that person and for those depending on that person for the necessaries of life: *Provided*, That a refusal on the part of the unemployed workman to accept reasonable work upon one of these schemes, or employment upon conditions not lower than those that are standard to the work in the locality, shall release the local unemployment authority of its duties under this section.

^a The Unemployed, p. 92.

^b The Unemployed, p. 103.

Central unemployment committee.—Section 4 provides for the establishment of a central unemployment committee consisting of not less than two persons nominated by a national body or bodies representative of trade unions, and of persons representative of the Board of Agriculture, the Board of Trade, the Board of Education, and the Local Government Board, with a secretary appointed by the Local Government Board, for the purpose of:

(a) Framing schemes for the provision of work for unemployed persons; (b) advising the Local Government Board and any of the authorities created by this act on any matter referred to the committee by that board; (c) coordinating the work of the unemployment committees, and otherwise acting under the provisions of this act.

Appointment of commissioners.—(1) With a view to carrying out the provisions of this act the Local Government Board shall appoint unemployment commissioners to make inquiries necessary for the working of this act, to inspect and examine work being done under this act, and otherwise to report to and advise the Central Unemployment Committee. These commissioners to be paid by Parliament.

Constitution of the unemployment committees.—Every unemployment authority is to appoint an unemployment committee, of whom a majority shall be members of the appointing council. Other persons may be appointed who have experience in industry or agriculture. One-fifth shall be selected from trade unions and councils.

The unemployment committees shall draw up a scheme for providing work for the registered unemployed persons of their area, and such scheme shall, so far as possible, provide for the classification of applicants for work, so that they may be set to work which is suitable to the individual applicant, and so that in all cases of physical and industrial unfitness special regard shall be given to the ultimate improvement of the applicants.

When the local unemployment authority are of opinion that unemployment in any case is owing to deliberate and habitual disinclination to work, they may report the case to a court of summary jurisdiction, and the court may issue an order which shall permit the local unemployment authority to enforce control over the person named in the order for a period not exceeding six months, which period must be passed in the performance of reasonable work under the supervision or control of the local unemployment authority.

The local unemployment authority may assist an unemployed person by aiding the emigration or removal to another area of that person and any of his dependents. The local unemployment authority shall not supply workmen to firms or employers or their agents, servants, or representatives during times of trade disputes in which these firms or employers are involved.

The Local Government Board is to consider all schemes and decide who shall pay for them. When the unemployed exceed 4 per cent of the employees reported upon, or when exceptional distress is shown, the Local Government Board shall draw up such schemes as shall admit of the employment of unemployed persons in works of national utility.

GERMANY.

In Germany public relief works are conducted every winter by almost all the cities. Not a few of Germany's many recent public im-

provements have been, in part at least, produced in this way. The best source of information on this point is a report published in 1905 by the German Statistical Office as a result of inquiries sent out by it to 57 cities, January 15, 1903.^(a)

More recent information exists for certain cities, as shown in the table below, but for a comparatively few cities. As tabulated in the Statistical Yearbook of German Cities for 1907, the facts as to relief works in those cities for the winter of 1904-5 were as follows:

STATISTICS OF RELIEF WORKS IN VARIOUS GERMAN CITIES, 1904-5.

City.	Period of employment.	Number of persons employed.				Hours worked per day besides rest periods.	Wages per day.		
		Minimum.		Maximum.			Low-est.	High-est.	Aver-age.
		Num-ber.	Month.	Num-ber.	Month.				
Aachen.....	Dec. 1, 1904, to Mar. 31, 1905.....	150	Dec.....	175	Mar.....	6 to 10	\$0.48	\$0.71	\$0.60
Cologne.....	Dec. 2, 1904, to Mar. 28, 1905.....	3	Dec.....	93	Jan.....	8 to 9	.24	.83	.83
Freiburg.....	Jan. 21, 1905, to Mar. 27, 1905.....	13	(b)	30	(b)	9	.68	d.60	-----
Hanover.....	Nov. 1, 1904, to Aug. 31, 1905.....	160	(b)	150	(b)	8 to 10	.43	.71	.67
Leipzig (e).....	Oct. 17, 1904, to Aug. 15, 1905.....	11	Oct.....	52	May.....	8 to 10	.69	.90	.83
Leipzig (f).....	Jan. 16, 1905, to June 22, 1905.....	30	Jan.....	175	Apr.....	8	.67	.72	.69
Mannheim.....	Jan. 26, 1905, to Mar. 30, 1905.....	4	Jan.....	64	Feb.....	8	.60	.83	.71
Mülhausen.....	Oct. 1, 1904, to Mar. 31, 1905.....	16	Jan.....	20	Mar.....	9	.48	.63	.63
Strassburg.....	Jan. 9, 1905, to Feb. 9, 1905.....	(b)	(b)	519	Jan.....	(b)	.98	.57	-----
Stuttgart.....	Jan. 2, 1905, to Mar. 1, 1905.....	28	Jan(e)	66	Jan(h)	(i)	.57	.71	.64
Wiesbaden.....	Nov., 1904, to Feb., 1905.....	40	(b)	50	(b)	8 to 10	.52	.60	.57
Würzburg.....	Oct. 15, 1904, to Apr. 15, 1905.....	16	(b)	38	(b)	9	.55	.60	.57

City.	Nature of work.	Piece or day work.	Work con- fined to—		Wages paid unemployed.	Wages of super-intend-ence.	Cost of tools and materials.	Total expendi-ture.	Esti-mated excess over ordinary cost of work.
			Citi-zens.	Mar-ried per-sons or per-sons with de-pend-ents.					
Aachen....	Wood chopping and road making.	Day.	Yes.	Yes.	\$8,032.50	\$178.50	\$119.00	\$8,330.00	\$2,856.00
Cologne....	Wood chopping.....	Piece	Yes.	No ^f	2,132.99	241.11	-----	2,374.10	1,037.63
Freiburg....	Stone breaking and road making.	Piece	No ^g	Yes.	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)
Hanover....	Removal of earth.....	Day.	No.	No.	(b)	(b)	(b)	17,850.00	(b)
Leipzig (e).....	Removal of earth.....	Day.	Yes.	(i)	6,977.96	307.85	238.60	7,523.81	None.
Leipzig (f).....	Earthwork and street making.	Day.	Yes.	(i)	4,444.37	-----	-----	4,444.37	(b)
Mannheim.....	Earthwork and street making. ^(m)	Day.	Yes.	Yes.	1,628.79	280.65	55.04	1,964.48	279.65
Mulhausen.....	Sand work.....	(b)	Yes.	(b)	2,274.33	128.52	119.00	2,521.85	904.40
Strassburg.....	Earthwork and stone breaking.	Both	No ⁿ	(o)	10,710.00	952.00	476.00	12,138.00	1,213.80
Stuttgart....	Earthwork and stone breaking.	Piece	Yes.	Yes.	1,190.00	142.80	95.20	1,428.00	238.00
Wiesbaden.....	Road making and stone breaking.	(b)	Yes.	Yes.	714.00	-----	-----	714.00	(b)
Würzburg.....	Stone breaking and street making.	Both	Yes.	Yes.	1,380.40	-----	-----	1,380.40	(b)

^a Die Regelung der Notstandsarbeiten in deutschen Städten.

^b Not reported.

^c Single men.

^d Married men.

^e Water sedimentation plant.

^f Sewer excavation work.

^g First of month.

^h Last of month.

ⁱ From daylight to dark, with 2 rest periods amounting to 1½ hours.

^j But first considered.

^k One month's residence.

^l Married only.

^m By contractors and by city.

ⁿ One year's residence.

^o In order of need.

Taking this table, the German report of 1905, and a few minor sources of information, the following statements may be made:

Special relief works for the unemployed are undertaken now almost every winter by all the more important German cities. Work is not given, or at least not intended to be given, to those whose idleness is caused by strikes or lockouts or who for any cause have refused to work elsewhere. It is not intended to institute such works to relieve distress caused by the overcrowding of certain industries or occupations, nor to help persons who are idle every season because of their belonging to seasonal occupations, such as the building trades. Relief works are intended rather, even though they have now become the general rule, for unemployment of unusual character, unusual either in the number out of work, the length of time of their being unemployed, or the general character of the unemployment. The tendency, however, is to make the institution of such work a regular feature of the winter season. Nine out of the 57 cities investigated by the report of 1905 reported general regulations directing that relief work shall be instituted whenever certain conditions exist and specifying the methods to be followed in the administration of the work. As will be seen by the table, in most of the cities the work is given only to residents, and in many of them only to those who are married or who have persons dependent on them. The work is almost always limited to the winter months, beginning on or about December 1 and continuing from eight to twenty-six weeks, the longer periods being only in a very few cases.

In almost all cases the work is administered by city authorities. Only two cities reported the giving out of the work to contractors. In many of the cities the work is carried on by the municipal charity departments, and in virtually all other cases by those in close touch with the charity department. In some cities persons who have received aid from the charity department are not entitled to relief work.

The nature of the work given will be seen by the table to be largely "earth work" of one kind or another, work in almost all cases which is unskilled and which can be done, though often with difficulty, in the winter. Considerable effort is said to be made to avoid assigning work to any which might be prejudicial to health or diminish technical skill.

The average wages paid vary from 2.40 marks (57 cents) to 3.60 marks (86 cents) per day, the endeavor being to pay wages sufficient to prevent the worker from needing charity and yet not high enough to prevent his accepting ordinary work as soon as it can be found. Piece rates seem to prevail only in breaking stone. Some of the cities in addition to the wages provide tools, a hot midday meal or hot coffee, and insurance in the imperial industrial insurance fund. The working time averages eight and one-half hours.

The cost of the work in almost all the cities is said to be higher than for similar work done under ordinary conditions, but this is partly due to the fact that the work is done largely in winter under unfavorable conditions, and partly to the fact that the men are usually inexperienced. The table gives the reports upon this point made by several of the cities.

Such is a brief statement of the German experience upon relief works. The report of 1905 recommends the planning of municipal improvements so that they will be undertaken at periods of unusual industrial depression and make exceptional relief works unnecessary, and there is evidence that this policy is being adopted, though the recent large development of municipal improvements in German cities seems to make it possible to do some relief work nearly every winter.

July 31, 1904, the Prussian Government addressed to all the royal presidents of districts and to all the royal presidents of Provinces a circular concerning the organization of the provision of employment, signed by the Minister of Commerce and the Home Minister.

We further request you to have the goodness to direct your attention to those measures which are calculated to prevent the occurrence of want of work on a wide scale or to mitigate its effect when it is unavoidable. Not only the State, but also the Provinces, districts, and communes, in their capacity as employers, are bound to do their utmost to counteract the evil in question by paying general and methodical attention to the suitable distribution and regulation of the works to be carried out for their account. In almost every industrial establishment of importance there are tasks which do not absolutely need to be performed at a fixed time; just so in every State and communal administration there are works for the allotment of which the time may, within certain limits, be freely chosen according to circumstances. If all public administrations, in making their arrangements, would take timely care to choose for such works times in which want of employment is to be expected, if especially works in which unemployed people of all kinds, including in particular unskilled laborers, can be made use of, were reserved for such times of threatening want of employment as have almost regularly recurred of late in winter in the larger towns and industrial centers, the real occurrence of widespread want of employment could certainly be prevented in many cases and serious distress warded off. A mitigation of the distress will often prove possible if, when the need of hands begins to diminish at times when other work is wont to be hard to find, the public industrial establishments do not at once dismiss their hands, but render it possible to keep them all on by shortening the daily hours of work or by putting in rest shifts, as is usual in the mining industry.

Increased provision and opportunities of work will not be admissible, indeed, without simultaneous measures being taken to prevent the measures from increasing the already excessive flocking of the unemployed to the great towns, and thereby endangering their suc-

cess. For this purpose care will have to be taken that only such unemployed persons are admitted to the "relief works" as have their domicile for purposes of relief, or have, at least, been regularly at work for a definite period in the commune in which such works are undertaken.

As the experience of the last few years has repeatedly shown that even large communes have been wanting in the desirable foresight, and have not set relief works on foot till the want of work had assumed very serious dimensions and distress had already set in, you will have the goodness to draw the attention of the administrations of the districts and communes under your authority to the above-mentioned measures which are incumbent on you and them as employers of labor.

So far as you yourself or the official bodies and functionaries subordinate to you have to determine, or are called upon to cooperate in determining the allotment of services or works, you will also take care that due attention be paid to the above-mentioned considerations.

Finally, you will have the goodness to take care that you are informed, as soon as possible, of all occurrences and circumstances which afford ground for inferences as to the probable development of the labor market in your district, especially of approaching considerable diminutions and increases of industrial activity, in order that you may be able, when occasion offers, to direct the attention of the superintendents of public works and administrative undertakings and of the existing labor bureaus to the state of things, and, when necessary, to use your official influence in favor of the timely introduction of extraordinary measures.

FRANCE.

France also does much in this line of relief works. The Bulletin de l'Office du Travail (December, 1907) gives a list of works carried on in 1906 in 66 departments. There were only 21 departments in France in which such works were not carried on in that year. There were 60 departments reporting expenditures in 1906. The following table shows the expenditures for each department, the number of persons employed, and the number of days employed:

EXPENDITURES OF FRENCH PUBLIC RELIEF WORKS, PERSONS EMPLOYED, AND DAYS EMPLOYED, BY DEPARTMENTS, 1906.

Department.	Number of communes.	Expenditures.	Number employed.	Days employed.
Ain.....	2	\$1,929.34	(a)	(a)
Aisne.....	1	677.94	60	2,306
Allier.....	22	18,146.40	794	(a)
Alpes (Hautes).....	2	1,592.18	705	3,526
Ardeche.....	1	9,649.63	2,660	18,054
Ardennes.....	4	702.38	95	(a)
Aube.....	1	685.31	280	(a)
Aude.....	96	28,370.61	4,793	193,798
Aveyron.....	2	2,459.59	457	5,304
Bouches-du-Rhone.....	4	147.84	88	497
Calvados (b).....	8	2,170.18	162	13,091

^a Not reported.

^b La Societe de Solidarite Sociale, at Caen, organized as in previous years a workshop for men and home for women. It paid 3,569 francs (\$688.82) to men and 1,504 francs (\$290.27) to women.

EXPENDITURES OF FRENCH PUBLIC RELIEF WORKS, PERSONS EMPLOYED, AND DAYS EMPLOYED, BY DEPARTMENTS, 1906—Concluded.

Department.	Number of communes.	Expenditures.	Number employed.	Days employed.
Charente.....	5	\$12,216.37	257	50,655
Charente-Inférieure.....	2	289.50	47	794
Cher.....	1	276.96	79	570
Côte-d'Or.....	1	5,889.30	(a)	(a)
Côtes-du-Nord.....	3	5,024.71	422	18,727
Drôme.....	9	693.84	210	1,583
Eure (b).....				
Eure-et-Loire.....	51	11,847.43	714	(a)
Finistère.....	13	14,489.86	242	(a)
Gard.....	11	12,812.31	1,797	18,275
Garonne (Haute).....	1	(a)	1,920	(a)
Gers.....	1	965.00	(a)	(a)
Gironde.....	11	2,536.79	151	7,477
Herauld.....	88	60,735.99	(a)	(a)
Ille-et-Vilaine.....	4	8,041.56	1,170	(a)
Indre.....	2	2,398.04	527	5,874
Indre-et-Loire.....	1	10,639.31	321	13,479
Isère.....	2	805.58	330	1,688
Jura.....	1	1,302.75	60	1,890
Landes.....	78	17,702.93	2,836	42,946
Loire.....	2	21,148.54	7,508	40,876
Loire-Inférieure.....	1	622.28	85	1,612
Loiret.....	10	3,284.57	223	(a)
Lot-et-Garonne.....	1	579.00	1,200	(a)
Maine-et-Loire.....	42	9,678.63	(a)	(a)
Manche.....	10	7,309.04	(a)	20,501
Marne.....	3	7,200.44	394	(a)
Mayenne.....	4	5,905.72	567	17,670
Meurthe-et-Moselle.....	3	7,650.23	382	15,252
Meuse.....	1	764.85	(a)	(a)
Morbihan.....	6	4,584.62	662	(a)
Nièvre.....	39	3,970.28	1,090	9,195
Nord.....	12	1,203.55	155	2,798
Oise.....	4	5,505.94	123	(a)
Orne.....	3	3,654.74	(a)	(a)
Puy-de-Dôme.....	1	1,621.20	160	2,800
Pyrénées (Basses).....	1	3,020.84	(a)	(a)
Pyrénées (Hautes).....	3	1,496.48	190	(a)
Pyrénées Orientales.....	10	4,966.22	1,054	7,826
Saône (Haute).....	13	2,256.75	123	3,337
Sarthe.....	4	5,337.76	387	24,798
Seine-Inférieure.....	9	2,132.65	(a)	(a)
Seine-et-Oise.....	29	4,272.18	325	5,508
Deux-Sèvres.....	174	14,757.57	(a)	(a)
Tarn.....	17	3,282.91	672	10,761
Tarn-et-Garonne.....	4	(a)	35	388
Var.....	1	675.50	25	688
Vaucluse.....	2	719.12	468	2,203
Vendée.....	8	6,976.49	335	17,200
Vienne.....	4	2,995.50	736	6,065
Vienne (Haute).....	2	3,582.39	(a)	(a)
Yonne.....	44	9,176.29	1,117	17,173

^a Not reported.^b The public workshops employ 30 to 40 of the unemployed all the year.

RELIEF SHELTERS.

It is not the intention to consider here all the various workingmen's homes, hotels, barracks, lodging houses, or shelters which are open to vagrants and the homeless of the poorer classes in the different cities and countries. Some of these institutions are of great value, many of very small value, and not a few extremely hurtful and debasing.

Consideration is given only to those relief shelters which are especially for unemployed workingmen, and more particularly to those shelters which have as an important part of their work the aiding of workmen to find employment.

Foremost in this respect stand the relief shelters organized in Germany, and which have spread thence to Austria, Switzerland, and to a small extent elsewhere. These are, however, of various kinds, and to be understood must be somewhat sharply discriminated between.

GERMANY.

The first to be taken into consideration are the so-called hospices, which are not strictly relief shelters, but rather workmen's hotels or boarding houses. They are intended for those workmen who are able to pay a fair price for board and lodging, and are not primarily for transients. These hospices are in most cases maintained by benevolent societies or agencies, usually religious—Protestant or Catholic. There are Protestant hospices in most of the larger German cities, but in this particular class of relief shelters the Roman Catholics have, in numbers at least, probably done the most. According to the report of the Roman Catholic trade associations or unions (Cologne, 1907), there were in Germany 1,161 such Catholic associations, and 357 of these had their own hospices, while almost all of them had at least rooms suitable for such purposes. In 1906 they entertained 85,000 workmen guests. The Protestant hospices are not essentially different.

Next to these come the Herbergen, and especially the so-called Herbergen zur Heimat, which latter are distinctly Protestant institutions somewhat similar to the hospices, but intended for those not able to pay so much—usually workmen of the lower ranks—and entertaining many not able to pay at all, mainly transients. They are much more simply appointed than the hospices and do not resemble ordinary hotels.

In Germany the Herbergen require those unable to pay to do some work the next morning. The system by which this is done will be taken into account in treating of the still more temporary shelters called *Verpflegungsstationen*. The Herbergen are very numerous—some 460 in Germany—and play no small part in the life of the lower grades of workmen. They are of several kinds. Perhaps the best known are the Herbergen zur Heimat. These are all religious and connected with the so-called Inner Mission. The Herbergen zur Heimat is intended to be, as far as possible, a home for the time being to all workmen who come under its shelter. It must be kept clean and orderly; furnish cheap but wholesome food; provide religious influences by means of daily services, and banish all harmful practices from its premises, e. g., gambling. In order to have this programme carried out every home is under the supervision of a

responsible committee, whose members must be reputable persons, and, if possible, include the local clergy.

The home is usually supplied with a good map of the circuit and country, showing the country roads in every direction, so that the superintendent may advise those who depart as to the quickest way of reaching a certain point.

A man may stay in a home for a whole week, provided he pays the moderate charges. Ordinary prices are: Bed, 25 to 40 pfennigs (6 to 10 cents); full meal, 55 pfennigs (13 cents); coffee, 5 pfennigs (1 cent); bread, 5 pfennigs (1 cent); potatoes and sauce, 20 pfennigs (5 cents); soup, 10 and 20 pfennigs (2 and 5 cents); hominy, 10 pfennigs (2 cents); cigar, 5 pfennigs (1 cent). A young pastor or candidate looks after the inmates spiritually both week days and Sundays.

The increase of the homes has been phenomenal. Professor Clemens Theodor Perthes, of the University of Bonn, established the first one in 1854; in 1863 there were 19; in 1873, 101; 1886, 252; 1890, 370; 1900, 457; 1904, 462; 1906, 461. In recent years their number, however, has not grown, the reason being said to be lack of funds. Many of the existing homes have contracted debts under which they labor with great difficulty.

The various homes have formed an organization, *Deutscher Herberge Verein*, with *Der Wanderer* as its organ. The whole German Empire is subdivided into district unions or subdivisions for the sake of better control and greater efficiency, with central offices at Bethel (Bielefeld), Doctor von Bodelschwingh being the leading spirit in the movement for them.

Not all the Herbergen of Germany are religious. In almost all the larger Germanic cities, notably at Berlin and Hamburg, and also at Vienna, the trade unionists maintain large and attractive Herbergen, or so-called labor homes (*Arbeiter Heim*), which as a part of their work give entertainment at low cost to traveling workmen. These homes are not usually called Herbergen, but they largely answer the same need. Most of the socialist workmen will not go to the evangelical Herbergen zur Heimat. The "*Arbeiter Heim*" at Berlin and the "*Favorite*" at Vienna are very large and in some ways magnificently appointed labor centers, each with a large audience room for mass meetings, concerts, etc., as well as smoking rooms, reading rooms, committee rooms, rooms for officers of trade unions, restaurant, etc. In smaller cities there are not such large labor homes, but in most cities there is something of this nature. In some cities, like Munich, where there is no labor home provision is made by the trade unions for their traveling members in connection with some ordinary room-

ing house or restaurant. There are still other kinds of Herbergen, but only those directly for the unemployed are considered.

Thirdly are taken into consideration the *Verpflegungsstationen*, relief stations provided, or at least sustained, by the public authorities, which give food and shelter for twenty-four hours, or forty-eight including Sundays. They are intended chiefly to assist destitute and unemployed men with temporary shelter, for which they must work in the morning. The stations are placed within walking distance of each other, and are in communication by telephone or in other ways, so that they can hear of chances for work and men may be told in which way to look for work. Very strict discipline is maintained in all the stations.

When a man arrives at a station, he must show a passport and a "labor book" (*Arbeitsbuch*), in order to legitimize himself both as to his character in regard to the authorities and to his industrious habits. These books are stamped and retained by the superintendent. A simple meal, consisting of soup or potatoes and herring and costing about 20 pfennigs (5 cents), is served at night, and the men are supposed to be in bed by 10. In the morning they must be ready for the simple breakfast by 7, since work begins at 8. The latter consists usually of stone breaking, wood chopping, or other duties requiring physical exertion, but not exhaustion, and lasts for four hours. The man is then given a plate of food, his book is signed and stamped, and he is sent on his way. If the next station should be too far to be reached during the afternoon, he receives, if penniless, a ticket to a by-station (*Nebenstation*), where he receives food and shelter. By-stations may be had in any number, since they are not special buildings, but approved lodging houses or inns. A clergyman or other person of good reputation sees to it that they are properly conducted. The cost of feeding and housing a man per day at these stations, including all expenses of management, is about 65 to 75 pfennigs (15 to 18 cents), and is usually charged to the rates.

The motto of these stations is that a man must work for what he gets; work in the morning, walk in the afternoon. If he refuses to do that he is turned over to the police as a vagrant, or left to shift for himself. The latter course brings him into touch with the police, since in most towns and villages maintaining stations private almsgiving is forbidden and punished by law. The man must, consequently, either work or go hungry. This system, comprising at present about 1,000 stations, has put a stop to mendicity and vagrancy in all provinces of Germany where the stations are sufficiently near together. The only complaint which people interested in this problem make, is that their number is too small; under the leadership of Pastor von Bodelschwingh they are seeking for legislation to the

effect that relief stations should be planted everywhere in the German Empire, so as to help every poor and destitute laborer, and still allow him to move on in search of work.

An idea of the strictness of the regulations in force at these stations may be obtained from the rules governing the Westphalian relief stations, which are as follows:

I.—Every itinerant not possessing more than 1 mark [23.8 cents] in cash, and who is unable to obtain work in the locality, will be considered as "without means." Any person who has in his possession a sum of money exceeding 1 mark [23.8 cents], and who conceals or denies this fact, may not only be required to pay for the relief which he receives, but may also be prosecuted for fraudulent pretenses.

II.—Any person who, by reason of old age, sickness, or infirmity, is unfit for work will be referred to the local authorities with a view to his receiving poor-law relief.

III.—Every itinerant without means who wishes to receive relief in a relief station is required to produce his traveling pass. The itinerant is required, provided he is still in possession of any money, to procure such pass. A pass may be obtained by the payment of 50 pfennigs [11.9 cents] or by the performance of at least four hours' work in the relief station. Relief is not given in the station issuing the pass. (This provision applies only to itinerants in possession of money.) A pass may be issued only to persons of 16 years of age or upward, such persons being in a position—by producing a leaving certificate [issued by the police] or other similar evidence—to establish their identity, and by showing the official receipt for contributions under the insurance laws, certificate of employment, etc., to prove that they have recently been engaged in labor.

Applicants for relief at a relief station who are not in possession of a pass will be immediately referred to the police as being "homeless persons." (a) In every such case before the applicant can ob-

^a The English Report on the Unemployed, by D. F. Schloss, says of this: "According to the law, it is the duty of the police in Germany to provide every destitute wayfarer with temporary relief; but that the German workman traveling in search of work always does receive such relief can not be stated. (See *Zeitschrift des Königlich Preussischen Statistischen Bureaus*, 1899, I. Vierteljahrsheft, p. 81.) As a rule, any relief given is granted without exacting from the applicant the performance of work. In some instances (as ascertained by inquiries made in Germany by the writer of this memorandum) the police simply hand the 'homeless' applicant a few pence in cash and direct him to go on to the next town. Recently (since October, 1902) in Westphalia the practice of making the casual do two days' stone-breaking has been introduced. (*Der Wanderer*, January, 1903, pp. 21, 22.) In cases in which the police decline to put the itinerant to work and certify his performance of his task, the authorities of the relief station are requested to carry out these provisions themselves and to grant or refuse a pass as they think fit. In every such case the itinerant whose papers are not in order must, in order to obtain a pass, and in addition to money or work to be paid or performed in exchange for relief at the station issuing the pass, perform at the relief station one day's extra work and also either pay 6d. [12 cents] or perform four hours' further work. (*Der Wanderer*, February, 1904, pp. 60, 61.) It should be noted that an itinerant unable to obtain his pass because he is not provided with the evidence of identity and recent employment required by the rules set forth in the text will have to spend any money which he possesses before he can be set at work by the police (as destitute) as a preliminary to obtaining a pass under the rules."

tain a pass and receive the regular relief provided at a relief station he must produce a certificate from the local police authorities stating that the applicant has performed with due industry a task of work set him by such authorities and of at least one entire day's duration, and that no other objection exists to his having a pass issued to him. (Persons relieved as "homeless" are received in the relief station on the first or second day, according as the police require them to work for one or for two days, after completion of their work, and on the following morning are put to work for such a period as is prescribed by the rules of the station in return for the relief received by them and are then handed their pass.)

The pass and all other documents must be given up to the proper authorities of the relief station, by whom the same will be returned only after the required amount of work has been performed.

When a pass is issued a note of this fact will be stamped on the other documents belonging to the holder. The stamp will show the place at which and the date on which such pass was issued. A man's receipt for contributions under the insurance laws is not allowed to be stamped.

IV.—At each relief station the itinerant's pass will be stamped with the date of his departure, which shall be due evidence that the holder has completed the last section of his journey according to regulations, that he has not refused any work offered to him, and that he has duly performed the work that he was required to perform at the relief station in compliance with the regulations in force at the station.

The hour of departure and the name of the next station to which the holder proposes to travel must on every occasion be entered on his pass.

V.—The holder of a pass is not allowed to make, or permit to be made, any entry in the same. Any such falsification, as also the use of the pass by any person other than the actual person to whom such pass was issued, will make the offender liable to punishment under the criminal law. (Penal code, sec. 363.)

VI.—The managers of travelers' homes and relief stations are authorized to confiscate any pass of which an improper use shall have been made.

The cardinal principle to be observed is "work in the morning, travel in the afternoon." Relief at a relief station will be given only in those cases in which the man's pass contains the stamp of the station of departure dated on the same day upon which he applies for admission at the station of destination specified in his pass, and only at the station so specified. Moreover, the holder of the pass must arrive within such a time after his departure as is consistent with the distance which separates the station of departure from the station of destination and with the hour of his departure mentioned in the pass.

VII.—In cases of emergency, especially in winter, and if the nearest station (where the night is to be spent) is so far removed from the station of departure that the distance between the two stations can not be covered in five hours or less, an itinerant may be allowed, by way of exception, to depart before noon, in which case a meal will be provided for him before his departure. Whenever long distances

have to be traversed light refreshments or an order for a meal at some intermediate place (substation) will also be supplied to the itinerant.

VIII.—All attempts to obtain employment must be made through the intervention of the employment bureau in connection with the relief station. To go round seeking for work is not permitted.

Anyone refusing to accept a suitable situation will not be allowed to take part in the work provided at or to receive the relief afforded by a relief station.

If it is found impossible to send a man to a situation, then he is required to perform the work allotted to him at the relief station. The nature and duration of this work are determined by the manager of the station. By accepting relief the recipient is deemed to have undertaken the obligation of performing the work allotted to him and of complying with the regulations in force in relation to the station. Any man accepting relief and afterwards refusing or neglecting to work and leaving the station without permission will be prosecuted for fraudulent pretenses.

IX.—Itinerants who, by reason of their having failed to comply with these regulations, have had to be refused relief and who are destitute will be referred to the local authorities. Any man who arrives after the proper time is not to be admitted at the relief station, but will be handed over to the police authorities, from whom alone will he receive any further relief to which he may be entitled. On the morning of the next day he will be required, in exchange for the relief provided for him by the police, to perform a task of work; and at noon he must have his pass stamped at the relief station with the words "relieved by police," and thereupon he will again become subject to the regulations for traveling workmen. Any man whose pass does not show the proper continuous sequence of stamps, and who is unable to give a satisfactory explanation of such want of continuous sequence, will be treated as if he did not possess a pass. Any man who may be found in any locality or on any road other than those mentioned on the map displayed at the relief station is liable to find himself punished as a vagrant wandering without reasonable cause or excuse.

X.—On Sundays and other days recognized by the federation of relief stations as holidays rest will be allowed and relief (including a midday meal) will be provided in the morning for all such persons as shall have entered the institution the day before within the established hours for admission and with their passes in order. It is expected that every man shall attend religious service, each according to the religious denomination to which he belongs. In the afternoon the men will again set forth on their travels.

The regulations are so strict that complaint is often made, and with many of the workmen Pastor von Bodelschwingh, the inspirer of the system, is by no means a popular character. As has been said, the *Verpflegungsstationen* are usually maintained by the public authorities, while the *Herbergen* are private, but, as is characteristic of Germany, the two systems work together, and Pastor von Bodelschwingh is working for the development of both. It was to accomplish this mainly that he got himself elected to the present Reichstag, and though in somewhat advanced years, is working hard for legis-

lation to support these relief stations. They exist much more in northern than in southern Germany. German officials believe that the large estates which are characteristic of Prussia, as compared with the smaller holdings of southern Germany, make the northern German workmen more dependent upon industrial employment and more in need of a connected system of relief stations.

Another reason, perhaps, is that the fuller development of the system of employment bureaus in Bavaria makes relief stations less necessary. In any case the stations are more developed in the north. Doctor von Bodelschwingh has not obtained by any means all the legislation for them he would like, but on June 29, 1907, a bill was passed by the Prussian Diet looking to the establishment of a system of relief stations throughout Prussia. It is only permissive, and yet its text shows the scope of the plan.

The text of the law follows:

ARTICLE 1. In Provinces where workmen's relief stations are already established, either county or city councils may, with the cooperation of the provincial diet, become responsible for their management and support. To do this, however, there must be a majority of at least two-thirds of the votes actually cast.

ART. 2. The work of the relief stations is to secure work for employable needy men seeking work away from their own homes, and to temporarily give them shelter and food in exchange for work they perform.

ART. 3. The provincial diet must determine the regulations for the furnishing, support, and management of these relief stations.

ART. 4. The districts in which no such stations are provided, yet which avail themselves of the privileges of the relief stations in the districts maintaining them, may be compelled by the decree of the provincial diet to contribute to the expense of such relief station, the amount of the subscription to be determined by the provincial diet.

ART. 5. The Province must contribute two-thirds of the running expenses of the relief station.

To such expenses also belong the costs incurred for lodging, feeding, and caring for inmates during their stay at the relief stations within said Provinces. The amounts to be paid by such districts are to be determined by the decree of the provincial diet.

Of the expense connected with these relief stations and their connected employment bureaus the State, in cooperation with the Provinces, pays a certain proportion.

ART. 6. Against the adjudication (decree) of the provincial diet in the case of articles 4 and 5, the district concerned has a limited time of two weeks in which to enter protest.

The provincial diet has the ruling over this protest and final decision. Against this decision (resolution) the complaint may be lodged within from one to two weeks in the judicial court in which the dispute arose in the first instance. A final settlement is determined by the district committee.

ART. 7. With the consent of the provincial diet, the districts may also accept the aid and cooperation of third parties in the furnishing and management of the traveling-workmen relief stations.

The cooperation and consent may only then be refused or revoked in case the third party introduced desires to frustrate the real execution of the purposes and work of the station.

In case of dispute the provincial judge shall decide.

ART. 8. Communes or towns in which such relief stations are already established must cooperate with the committee of the district, at the request of the latter, in allowing the district the use of their stations, the district to give a certain indemnity for this to the commune or town. In case of dispute the amount thereof is to be determined by the council of the district.

It is evident from the above that the intention is to make possible throughout Prussia the development of an organized system of relief stations, either to be provided by the public authorities or, if by private parties, to be sustained partly at public expense, and to be controlled wholly by the public authorities, so as to secure united systematic operation. The effect of such a system of relief stations through every part of the Kingdom, each within walking distance of the next, and all connected by telephones and reporting to each other all opportunities for employment, can readily be seen. The Herbergen zur Heimat are not, it is said, to be confounded with the relief stations (*Verpflegungsstationen*), but in the cities the latter are usually connected with the Herbergen, and the two therefore are closely associated. Doctor von Bodelschwing works for the extension of both, and Der Wanderer, published at Doctor von Bodelschwing's colony at Bethel, gives the statistics for both. These show the growth, extent, and usefulness of the system.

STATISTICS OF GERMAN HERBERGEN (WORKINGMEN'S SHELTERS), 1890 TO 1906.

Year.	Herbergen.	Beds.	Applicants given employment.		Nights lodgings furnished to transient guests—			Nights lodgings furnished to boarders.	Total nights lodgings furnished with and without pay.
			Number.	Per cent.	Paying.	Aided.	Total.		
1890.....	362	(a)	(a)	(a)	1,790,475	443,248	2,233,723	512,957	2,746,680
1891.....	379	13,870	43,572	2.09	2,057,623	731,795	2,789,418	490,229	3,279,647
1893.....	426	(a)	(a)	(a)	2,222,756	853,661	3,081,417	464,658	3,545,975
1895.....	439	(a)	54,398	2.32	2,470,453	709,969	3,180,422	500,886	3,681,308
1896.....	453	18,070	98,078	4.32	2,411,975	573,506	2,985,481	619,212	3,604,693
1897.....	455	(a)	112,920	5.19	2,446,051	515,348	2,961,399	678,646	3,640,045
1898.....	457	(a)	123,894	5.71	2,475,000	511,037	2,986,037	702,511	3,688,548
1899.....	457	(a)	132,891	6.58	2,424,142	475,068	2,899,210	667,762	3,566,972
1900.....	457	19,159	125,789	5.84	2,538,942	526,017	3,064,959	726,271	3,791,230
1901.....	462	(a)	108,505	4.03	2,866,980	723,274	3,590,254	671,720	4,261,974
1902.....	462	(a)	109,306	3.72	3,073,076	795,564	3,868,640	630,175	4,498,815
1903.....	459	(a)	117,154	4.47	2,935,776	650,320	3,586,096	669,992	4,256,088
1904.....	461	19,444	122,042	5.13	2,858,353	558,779	3,417,132	672,374	4,089,506
1905.....	462	(a)	137,130	6.03	2,628,377	519,367	3,147,744	741,349	4,089,093
1906.....	461	(a)	159,110	7.78	2,752,577	435,083	3,187,660	769,977	3,957,637

* Not reported.

STATISTICS OF GERMAN HERBERGEN, BY DISTRICT UNIONS, 1906.

District unions. (a)	Total Herbergen in 1906.	Herbergen with relief shelters (without pay).							Applicants given employment.			
		Num. ber.	Per-sons using shel-ters.	Aggregate nights used.			Cost of relief given.					
				1905.	1906.	Gain (+) or loss (-).	1905.	1906.		Gain (+) or loss (-).		
East Prussia.....	3	1	349	326	349	+	23	\$67	\$70	+	\$3	1, 199
West Prussia.....	7	2	554	656	541	-	115	102	103	+	1	2, 862
Posen.....	5	2	812	1, 095	812	-	283	124	92	-	32	1, 463
Silesia.....	50	22	22, 790	24, 581	22, 492	-	2, 099	3, 007	1, 914	-	1, 093	5, 654
Brandenburg.....	47	8	12, 135	14, 653	12, 338	-	2, 315	1, 440	1, 581	+	141	17, 265
Pomerania.....	20	11	6, 717	8, 300	6, 679	-	1, 621	940	761	-	179	2, 831
Mecklenburg.....	24	6	8, 865	11, 020	8, 847	-	2, 173	1, 786	1, 606	-	180	1, 566
Nordelbien.....	34	11	10, 223	13, 765	10, 637	-	3, 128	2, 083	1, 803	-	280	17, 228
Lower Saxony.....	41	19	48, 810	59, 298	48, 462	-	10, 836	8, 357	6, 766	-	1, 591	13, 775
Saxony Anhalt.....	44	25	73, 332	92, 228	72, 694	-	19, 534	12, 602	9, 825	-	2, 777	7, 870
Kingdom of Saxony.....	56	25	54, 423	63, 330	50, 310	-	13, 020	6, 162	4, 998	-	1, 164	10, 319
Thuringia.....	13	10	31, 624	37, 521	30, 751	-	6, 770	5, 052	4, 075	-	977	2, 225
Hesse-Nassau.....	21	15	44, 020	53, 023	43, 779	-	9, 244	9, 040	7, 843	-	1, 197	9, 783
Westphalia.....	27	25	62, 932	67, 318	62, 933	-	4, 385	12, 895	12, 028	-	867	28, 069
Rhenish Prussia.....	31	11	18, 958	25, 026	20, 346	-	4, 680	3, 548	2, 771	-	777	18, 337
Southwest Germany.....	23	13	25, 016	28, 309	25, 199	-	3, 110	3, 128	2, 694	-	434	14, 563
Bavaria.....	15	7	20, 397	18, 908	17, 914	-	994	1, 933	2, 193	+	260	4, 101
Total.....	461	213	441, 957	519, 367	435, 083	-	84, 284	72, 266	61, 123	-	11, 143	159, 110

District unions. (a)	Num. ber.	Herbergen with lodgings for pay.						Aggregate nights lodged in 1905.	Gain (+) or loss (-) in nights lodged in 1906.	Total nights lodgings with and without pay in 1906.	
		Paying guests in 1906.									
		Transient.		Board and lodging.		Total.					
		Persons.	Aggregate nights lodged.	Per-sons.	Aggregate nights lodged.	Persons.	Aggregate nights lodged.				
East Prussia.....	1	3, 879	13, 428	197	5, 267	4, 076	13, 695	20, 287	-	1, 592	19, 044
West Prussia.....	5	16, 080	33, 368	1, 136	26, 222	17, 216	59, 590	65, 927	-	6, 337	60, 131
Posen.....	5	15, 261	23, 165	340	6, 469	15, 601	29, 634	28, 063	+	1, 571	30, 446
Silesia.....	38	91, 514	138, 428	5, 090	112, 611	96, 604	251, 039	255, 456	-	4, 417	273, 531
Brandenburg.....	28	129, 012	265, 503	3, 316	79, 616	132, 328	345, 119	312, 987	+	32, 132	357, 457
Pomerania.....	15	31, 587	57, 401	2, 278	35, 989	33, 865	93, 390	102, 319	-	8, 929	100, 069
Mecklenburg.....	13	25, 111	35, 917	1, 578	29, 302	26, 689	65, 219	73, 000	-	7, 781	74, 066
Nordelbien.....	29	107, 975	234, 433	1, 870	33, 761	109, 845	268, 194	270, 599	-	2, 405	278, 831
Lower Saxony.....	27	153, 595	266, 363	1, 960	37, 903	155, 555	304, 266	329, 125	-	24, 859	352, 728
Saxony Anhalt.....	29	119, 061	167, 999	2, 632	59, 874	121, 693	227, 873	237, 133	-	9, 260	300, 567
Kingdom of Saxony.....	42	209, 665	322, 519	3, 020	74, 713	212, 685	397, 232	417, 425	-	20, 193	447, 542
Thuringia.....	7	45, 798	53, 769	523	11, 518	46, 321	65, 287	72, 626	-	7, 339	96, 038
Hesse-Nassau.....	6	104, 223	171, 398	384	10, 431	104, 607	181, 829	187, 356	-	5, 827	225, 608
Westphalia.....	19	131, 211	193, 947	3, 139	64, 487	134, 350	258, 434	253, 424	+	5, 010	321, 367
Rhenish Prussia.....	14	218, 968	320, 313	2, 386	60, 337	221, 354	380, 650	382, 034	-	1, 384	400, 996
Southwest Ger-many.....	18	130, 856	304, 164	4, 096	92, 215	134, 952	396, 379	378, 901	+	17, 478	421, 578
Bavaria.....	11	68, 912	150, 462	1, 177	29, 262	70, 089	179, 724	183, 064	-	3, 340	197, 638
Total.....		3121, 602, 708	2, 752, 577	35, 122	769, 977	1, 637, 830	3, 522, 554	3, 569, 726	-	47, 172	3, 957, 637

* For explanation of district unions see p. 888.

Of the total applicants for employment in the Herbergen 5.84 per cent obtained employment in 1900, 4.03 per cent in 1901, 3.72 per cent in 1902, 4.47 per cent in 1903, 5.13 per cent in 1904, 6.03 per cent in 1905, and 7.78 per cent in 1906.

OTHER COUNTRIES.

Outside of Germany, as already stated, charitable and more rarely municipal shelters and lodging houses of every description, such as those of the Salvation Army, exist in every great city and do, perhaps under present conditions, a very helpful work, but make little or no contribution to the problem of giving any adequate employment to the unemployed. Austria and Switzerland (especially the latter) have in the main followed the example of Germany.

In France, Paris has several so-called "asiles," including three operated by the municipality, for men and also for women. At one of these temporary work is given to the unemployed, with wages which average about 2.27 francs (44 cents) per day.

ALLOTMENTS.

One form of relief for the temporarily unemployed which is developing in Europe to some extent is the provision either of an allotment of land or, in Germany especially, of cottages with little vegetable or fruit gardens, the produce of which may enable the workman to tide over a temporary unemployment.

The allotment idea is especially prominent in England, and in some places, notably Nottingham, has reached large results. English allotments rest on considerable legislative history. In 1819 church wardens and overseers were allowed to set aside 20 acres for the use of the poor. In 1831 this was made 50 acres of garden land and, where possible, 50 acres of waste land. In 1832 the rent for such land was to be that current in the district; allotments were to be not less than one-fourth nor more than 1 acre, and the revenue was to be used to provide fuel for the poor. In 1835 the above powers were transferred to boards of guardians, and the income of the allotments was to be used for the relief of poor rates. In 1845 more land was made thus available. In 1873, little having been done, allotments were to be granted by a board of trustees. In 1882 the trustees were given compulsory power to let any charity land in the parish. In 1887 the sanitary authorities were given power to provide allotments. There were in that year 357,795 allotments. In 1890 county councils were given power to act in the matter. The allotments had grown to 455,005. Four years later county councils were given compulsory powers to obtain land for this purpose.

In spite of all this legislation, comparatively little has resulted; yet some most beneficent results can be mentioned. In Nottingham, centuries ago, numerous patches of land were allotted to citizens in the so-called "Burgess Parts." About 1800 this was discontinued, but lots were rented at low rates to workingmen, and they have made

large use of them. At present a large number of Nottingham workmen have small allotments outside the city and use them well, obtaining from them large results. As high as £50 (\$243) has been paid by an incoming workman to his predecessor for the improvements placed upon these allotments. Flower exhibits are made, and the Nottingham workmen take great interest in them. It has been shown in the small gardens connected with the cottage homes at Bournville that one-sixth of an acre allotments are best, and can be made to earn as much as £31 (\$150.66) per acre per year, or 1s. 11½d. (48 cents) per cottage per week.

THE UNEMPLOYABLE.

The second great class of the unemployed, the unemployable, is next considered.

By the unemployable are meant those who, though more or less willing to work, are, by reason of deficiency, mental or physical, through their own fault or other circumstances, unable to do, at least permanently, work of appreciable economic value. This definition does not, as will be seen, exclude those who may be able to do occasional jobs or work of some economic value. But if they are really unemployable, it will mean that this work is only of very occasional and of somewhat indifferent value. The representatives of this class, when given work, show in a day or two, or at most in a few days and not seldom in a few hours, that for some reason or other they are not able to do the work or are unable to do it continuously. They are constantly having opportunities and losing them, or taking jobs and losing the jobs, in almost all cases with periods of absolute unemployment; they should therefore be included among the unemployable.

In all civilized countries attempts are either being made or are being discussed as to what provision should be made for this needy and unfortunate class.

Among these means first and foremost stands the German "labor colony."

LABOR COLONIES.

GERMANY.

The name "labor colony" for the institutions about to be described is a misnomer. In reality these colonies are almost the exact opposite of labor colonies. They are colonies rather of those temporarily or permanently unable to labor. Yet they are called "labor colonies," and it seems almost impossible to change the name.

To fail to understand this point is to thoroughly misconceive the labor colonies from the start. Bona fide workmen, as a rule are

not to be found in these colonies, and the colonies are not to be considered as any solution of the problem of unemployment of the employable. They are simply shelters or places for the unemployable. In this sense they have had no little success and fill a large and important place. It is significant that the valuable and copious report to Parliament (1906) of the English vagrancy committee, based upon abundant evidence for and against labor colonies, ends with recommendations—not indeed for all classes of the unemployed, but for vagrants—for a scheme of which, it says, “the main feature is the establishment of labor colonies.”^a

Practically these colonies may be said to have commenced in Germany, where they are of comparatively modern development. They owe their start and also their development largely to Pastor von Bodelschwingh, in connection with his colony of “Bethel” at Bielefeld, in Westphalia.

THE WILHELMSDORF COLONY.

The first colony was established in 1882 at Wilhelmsdorf, a few miles from the colony of Bethel. Germany at this time was infested with tramps, of whom there were said to be 100,000. This was probably an exaggeration, but they cost Germany, publicly and privately, a vast sum of money. They burdened the institutions and instrumentalities of relief; they darkened the doors of the charitable. Complaints and questions as to what could be done were heard on every hand. Not a few of them came to the colony at Bethel, and at once became a problem.

Finally the tramps were received into the colony, a piece of land considered too poor for cultivation was obtained, and the labor colony of Wilhelmsdorf was created.

It proved to be the beginning of a large movement. The first effort naturally was to obtain buildings for the colony and to improve the land. After a brief shelter had been provided the tramps were set to work improving the land, under competent guidance, and it was found that the land could be made quite capable of cultivation. The tramps were not driven to work nor compelled to stay, but while they stayed they had to comply with strict rules, among which the necessity to labor was first and foremost. A competent house father was placed in charge of the colony, and under his direction the colony gradually developed into a distinct success. Religion and attendance upon the simple services of the colony were not made compulsory, but the religious features are prominent at Wilhelmsdorf and all the German colonies.

^a Report of Vagrancy Committee. Summary of Recommendations, p. 120.

To-day the colony at Wilhelmsdorf occupies about 500 acres, a large portion of which has been converted into valuable agricultural land. The land formed part of the so-called Teutoburger Wald (or forest), which was considered of no value. From 2 to 4 feet of the surface seems to have consisted of friable limestone, making vegetable growth almost impossible; but it was found that by breaking up this rocky deposit it could be converted into valuable and productive soil, and this has been done by the colonists. The initial expenses of operation were large, even though the original cost of the soil was small. When the colony was started, March 22, 1882, there was only one road through the forest. To-day over 4 miles of public and over 2 miles of private roads have been constructed. Thirteen different buildings have been erected, covering 10 acres of ground.

Near the gateway of the colony, which is never closed day or night, is the principal building, in which the largest number of colonists are domiciled; a little beyond this is the residence of the "Hausvater" (house father); then the kitchen, the dining room, and the offices of the colony. Around these are extensive sheds and stables for the horses, cattle, and pigs, and henneries for fowls and pigeons. The number of the colonists varies from 80 to over 200, according to the season of the year. The colonists, perfectly free to come and go, to a large extent work elsewhere in the summer months and come to the colony in the winter months when other work fails them. This means that the work of the colony is done under great difficulties. For example, in a recent year at harvest time there were only five men in the colony who could do the reaping. Thus one of the main economic difficulties of the colony is that its numbers are smallest when there is most to be done, and largest in the seasons when comparatively little agricultural work can be done. Therefore the colony does not pay financially, nor is it expected to pay; it is simply a shelter for men who can find no work. They live here under conditions favorable to good morals, industry, and temperance, are able partly to support themselves, and a few of them are rescued and developed into men for whom permanent situations and work can be found.

Every reasonable effort is made to make the colony comfortable and homelike, although not so attractive as to draw the inmates from work which they are capable of doing outside. The food is simple and yet healthful and abundant. Efforts are made to supply the colonists with good reading and every influence for the development of better character.

The early breakfast, served from 5.20 to 5.50 in the winter and at 4.20 in the summer, consists usually of coffee, black bread, and beet jelly; at 9 o'clock in winter and at 8.30 in summer a second breakfast is served of black bread with lard, butter, or cheese. The noon dinner

consists of vegetables with potatoes and meat of some kind, usually pork fat, three times a week. The vegetables are often served up in the form of a stew or soup with pigs' fat. In the afternoon coffee and bread are carried to the fields at 3.30. A supper at 5.50 in the winter and 8 in the summer consists usually of soup with rice or pease, served with potatoes and milk and occasionally with herring or other dishes.

The newly arrived colonist is usually set to work at ditching or some simple field work. If he is in need of clothes he is supplied with these on credit. After the first fortnight he is credited with small wages in addition to board and lodging. For nine months in the year, when it is possible to work out of doors, the average payment besides board and lodging is about 6 cents per day. From November 15 to February 15, the rate is only about 5 cents per day; a bonus is also often given on leaving as a recognition of good conduct; all rates and arrangements, however, are at the discretion of the Hausvater. Not a few of the colonists receive no wages beyond board and clothing. No money is actually paid except for special reasons until the colonist leaves the colony, and not infrequently it happens that he is in debt to the colony when he leaves, his clothes and tobacco having more than swallowed up his earnings.

It is difficult to ascertain the results of the colony. Results in morals can not be expressed by statistics; as shown in the tables of general statistics for the German colonies, a large number of the colonists are "reservists" who come repeatedly to the colony winter by winter. This indicates that for the large majority no permanent position has resulted, but a number of instances of improvement of character are recorded in the history of the colony and not a few permanent situations for members have been found. Wilhelmsdorf, like most of the German colonies, has been fortunate in the character and efficiency of its Hausvaters. Many of the Hausvaters of the German colonies have been trained for service at "Bethel," or in the evangelical Rauhehaus at Hamburg. Indeed, this religious atmosphere of the colonies, so far as effect upon character goes, is their main characteristic. The colonies, however, are by no means denominational and welcome is given to Catholics or Freethinkers as freely as to the Protestant.

The details of the Wilhelmsdorf colony have been dwelt upon because it is the oldest and best known, although not the largest. Several of the younger colonies have adopted more advanced methods and have been able to branch out in new directions.

The success at Wilhelmsdorf was at once so marked that the next year six new colonies were established, with four more in 1884.

One or two more typical ones are here considered in detail:

THE LUHLERHEIM COLONY.

This colony is given especial notice because it is considered in many ways to be among the most attractive and successful of the German labor colonies.

The colony is situated some 10 miles from Wesel, almost on the border between Germany and Holland, and near the western boundary of Westphalia, one of the most important industrial manufacturing and mining districts of Germany. A little north of the colony lies the Roman Catholic colony Maria-Veen. Many men come to the colony who have sought employment in Westphalia and have found themselves incapable of doing the work, or who for one reason or another are temporarily thrown out of work. The colonists at Luhlerheim have therefore been rather more changeable than in most of the colonies.

Luhlerheim is attractively laid out and its buildings are among the best and most modern of the German colonies. The country at Luhlerheim is flat and makes no pretense to beauty, although the farms around are more or less successful and well-kept woods make the surroundings pleasing. A broad pathway through the woods has been built by the colonists direct to the railway station, about 4 miles distant. The number of colonists, as in all the colonies, varies with the seasons. April 1, 1907, there were 197; at various times during the year 531 had been inmates of the colony. From the opening of the colony February 15, 1886, to March 31, 1907, there had been 7,304 persons admitted. The following table of the number present, by months, shows the fluctuation by seasons:

ARRIVALS AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF INMATES OF LUHLERHEIM LABOR COLONY FOR EACH MONTH, APRIL, 1906, TO MARCH, 1907.

	New arrivals.	Average number of inmates.		New arrivals.	Average number of inmates.
April, 1906.....	21	138	November, 1906.....	32	175
May, 1906.....	38	119	December, 1906.....	36	190
June, 1906.....	37	128	January, 1907.....	32	208
July, 1906.....	44	143	February, 1907.....	27	200
August, 1906.....	28	141	March, 1907.....	9	193
September, 1906.....	32	131			
October, 1906.....	39	145	Total.....	375	159

The report for 1907 gives the following statistics as to the nature of the colonists:

The total number of days spent in the colony by the 531 men who were there during a portion of the year was 58,915, so that the aver-

age number of days spent in the colony was 111 days, or slightly over three months and a half.

Of the 375 arrivals during the year 361 recorded themselves as Protestant and 14 as Catholic; 9 of them were between the ages of 15 and 20; 53 were from 21 to 30; 220 from 31 to 50 (showing that the large majority of them were in the prime of life, although probably most of them were nearer 50 than 31); 67 were from 51 to 60 years old; 25 from 61 to 70, and 1 was over 70. Of the total 287 were single, 20 were married, 10 separated, 45 widowed, and 13 divorced; 14 were illegitimate. Concerning their residence, 192 came from Rhenish Prussia, 53 from Westphalia, 85 from other Prussian provinces, 43 from other portions of Germany, and 2 from foreign lands.

Of the total number 242 had suffered conviction of some kind or other: 122 for begging (vagrancy), 46 for various light offenses, 51 for short-time offenses, 23 for graver charges. There were 347 who had cards in the old-age and insurance funds; only 28 were without such cards.

Of the whole number 110 were admitted to the colony for the first time, 68 for the second time, 51 for the third, 37 for the fourth, 29 for the fifth, 9 for the sixth, 18 for the seventh, and no less than 53 for the eighth time. This indicates that the large majority of the colonists have been there before, having gone out from the colony when they could get work and returning to it when work failed them.

Of the 334 who left or who were dismissed from the colony 22 went to positions where they could earn, 4 returned to their families, 213 (the large majority) left to travel in search of other work, 71 were discharged for misbehavior and 3 for incompetency, 19 were dismissed, 2 died. None during the year were sought by the police.

During the year 271 were refused admission, of whom 261 were refused on account of lack of room in the colony, 6 on account of inability to work, and 4 for being on the black list. There were 136 applicants who failed to enter.

THE BERLIN COLONY.

Not all the colonies are alike. The majority are established in country districts. The largest in the towns is that at Hamburg, established in 1891 and having places for 170 inmates. The next largest of the town colonies is at Berlin, founded in 1883, and having accommodations for 142 inmates. Many applicants have to be turned away for want of room. As representing a city colony, some details of the Berlin colony are given, and especially details as to the work done. The first industry undertaken was the silkworm culture, but this, together with other attempts at flower cultivation, was not successful. It was found that the men who came to the colony did not

stay long enough to learn a new trade properly. The next step was to employ the colonists in making straw wrappers for packing bottles. This work has not been profitable, as it competed with a machine for making straw ropes. This was added to the colony in 1903. The work continued. The making of door mats and similar articles also failed because of the competition of machine-made goods. The next trade taken up was brush and broom making. This experiment was continued for a considerable time, but had to meet great competition on the part of the manufacturers and the profits have gradually declined. Somewhat more successful has been the making of boxes and kitchen furniture. Joinery work has now become the principal occupation of the colony, although other work is done. Clerks and artisans, however, have from time to time been employed at their regular occupations. Some casual outside work has been done at certain seasons, such as snow sweeping, unloading barges, carting sand, etc. A certain number of the colonists have been engaged at agricultural work and forestry.

In respect to wages paid, the Berlin colony differs in some respects from the others. In most of the other colonies there is no charge for board and lodging, but a member is credited with wages until after he has been in the colony a certain number of weeks, and then receives wages rising from about 3 cents to about 10 cents per day, rarely above the latter amount. The practice of the Berlin colony has been to give a man about \$1.50 per week at the beginning and to increase this up to about \$2.50 or even \$3 a week, but to charge him about \$1.30 per week for board and lodging. From his wages there has also been deducted an amount for insurance under the old age and sickness insurance laws. The wages that he has earned are, however, paid to him in the German colonies only when he leaves the colony, and if he leaves it for reasons creditable to himself. If he is expelled for drunkenness or misbehavior or if he quits before the expiration of the period for which he has agreed to remain, no payments are made to him. Though this is the general rule, small earnings are sometimes given to him for special purposes. As a rule, after a stay of six months the colonists have received usually only from about \$10 to \$15, but occasionally as high as \$37. It is stated that generally poor use has been made of these savings. From 1883-1907, altogether 12,500 unemployed men have been sheltered in the colony.

THE HOME COLONIES.

To obviate the evils of so many going and coming, some of the colonies called the "Heim-kolonien" make a specialty of long-term inmates. The first of these, Friedrichwilhelmsdorf, about 3 miles from Bremerhaven, opened in 1886, with 12 colonists. Schäferhof has already been considered.

GENERAL STATISTICS OF GERMAN LABOR COLONIES.

To-day there are 33 German labor colonies of all kinds and one at Libury Hall, in England, for Germans in England. The following tables from the Wanderer for November, 1907, give the list of these colonies and their most recent general statistics:

DATE OF OPENING OF GERMAN LABOR COLONIES, TOTAL ARRIVALS SINCE OPENING, NUMBER OF ARRIVALS, BY CONJUGAL CONDITION, IN AUGUST, 1907, AND AVERAGE NUMBER PRESENT IN THE COLONIES IN AUGUST, 1907.

Name of colony.	Date of opening.	Total arrivals since opening.	Colonists of each conjugal condition arriving in August, 1907.					Total arrivals in August 1907.	Average number present in August 1907.
			Single.	Married.	Separated.	Widowed.	Divorced.		
Wilhelmsdorf, Bethel, Westphalia.....	Mar. 22, 1882	12,402	42	4	4	7	1	58	185
Berlin.....	May 1, 1883	12,514	22	2	7	2	2	35	108
Kästorf, Hanover.....	June 24, 1883	9,501	17	8	4	5	1	35	137
Rickling, Sleswick-Holstein.....	Oct. 10, 1883	8,517	11	1	2	1	15	67
Friedrichswille, Brandenburg.....	Nov. 13, 1883	10,687	31	3	4	5	43	101
Dornahof, Württemberg.....	Nov. 15, 1883	6,528	9	9	28
Seyda, Province of Saxony.....	Dec. 14, 1883	7,762	7	3	10	39
Dauelsberg, Oldenburg.....	Feb. 8, 1884	4,097	20	2	3	25	38
Munscha, Silesia.....	July 14, 1884	5,298	11	2	1	1	15	84
Meierel, Pomerania.....	July 25, 1884	6,539	7	2	2	11	61
Carlshof, East Prussia.....	Oct. 15, 1884	10,209	6	1	3	10	21
Ankenbuck, Baden.....	Feb. 26, 1885	4,435	4	1	5	22
New Ulrichstein, Hesse.....	July 1, 1885	6,142	24	1	1	26	49
Lühlerheim, Rhenish Prussia.....	Feb. 15, 1886	7,691	25	1	2	4	1	33	141
Schneckengrün, Kingdom of Saxony.....	Feb. 22, 1886	5,543	11	1	1	2	15	48
Friedrichwilhelmsdorf.....	Sept. 22, 1886	1,521	5	1	2	8	26
Eikenroth, Rhenish Prussia.....	Oct. 20, 1886	3,954	11	2	2	2	17	44
Simonshof, Bavaria.....	May 1, 1888	5,615	3	2	1	6	40
Maria-Veen, Westphalia.....	Oct. 1, 1888	9,017	39	5	2	46	96
Alt-Latzig, Posen.....	Oct. 26, 1888	3,127	10	1	4	15	59
Magdeburg, Province of Saxony.....	Nov. 23, 1888	7,201	26	2	7	7	3	45	99
Gellisdorf, Thuringia.....	July 28, 1889	2,537	2	2	4	24
Erlach, Württemberg.....	Apr. 1, 1891	4,389	12	12	36
Hamburg.....	Dec. 1, 1891	6,077	16	1	3	1	21	83
Hohenhof, Sleswick.....	Jan. 2, 1892	2,192	9	1	1	11	77
Hilmarshof, West Prussia.....	Jan. 17, 1892	4,064	17	3	4	24	41
Herzogsmühle, Bavaria.....	Aug. 1, 1894	3,204	6	1	7	21
Lieske, Kingdom of Saxony.....	Oct. 17, 1897	2,221	5	1	1	1	1	9	34
Schäferhof.....	Dec. 2, 1898	1,671	6	1	1	8	98
Schernau, Palatinate.....	Aug. 23, 1899	1,392	9	3	2	14	38
Eriestadt.....	Nov. 24, 1899	2,955	11	4	3	18	88
Weeze, Rhenish Prussia.....	Apr. 11, 1902	1,558	35	1	5	1	42	91
Hoffnungstal, near Bernau.....	Nov. 12, 1905	1,378	49	4	6	8	10	77	312
Libury Hall, England.....	Sept. 29, 1900	3,184	42	4	3	49	88
Total.....		185,152	560	48	53	84	33	778	2,524

NUMBER OF COLONISTS ARRIVING IN THE GERMAN LABOR COLONIES IN AUGUST, 1907, BY AGE.

Name of colony.	Colonists of each age arriving in August, 1907.						Total arrivals in August, 1907.
	15 to 16 years.	17 to 20 years.	21 to 30 years.	31 to 50 years.	51 to 60 years.	61 to 70 years.	
Wilhelmsdorf, Bethel, Westphalia.....		2	7	32	15	2	58
Berlin.....	1	4	6	13	11	35
Kästorf, Hanover.....		2	2	18	7	35
Rickling, Sleswick-Holstein.....		1	7	6	15
Friedrichswille, Brandenburg.....		8	22	12	1	43
Dornahof, Württemberg.....		1	6	2	9
Seyda, Province of Saxony.....		2	6	2	10
Dauelsberg, Oldenburg.....		1	2	17	3	25
Munscha, Silesia.....		10	4	1	15
Meierel, Pomerania.....		1	6	4	11
Carlshof, East Prussia.....		6	3	1	10

NUMBER OF COLONISTS ARRIVING IN THE GERMAN LABOR COLONIES IN AUGUST, 1907, BY AGE—Concluded.

Name of colony.	Colonists of each age arriving in August, 1907.							Total arrivals in August, 1907.
	15 to 16 years.	17 to 20 years.	21 to 30 years.	31 to 50 years.	51 to 60 years.	61 to 70 years.	Over 70 years.	
Ankenbuck, Baden.....			2		3			5
New Ulrichstein, Hesse.....		2	3	15	4	1	1	26
Lühlerheim, Rhenish Prussia.....			5	12	13	3		33
Schneckengrün, Kingdom of Saxony.....			2	10	3			15
Friedrichwilhelmsdorf.....			1	4	2	1		8
Eikenroth, Rhenish Prussia.....			4	9	3		1	17
Simonshof, Bavaria.....	1	1	3	3				6
Maria-Veen, Westphalia.....			6	25	15	1		46
Alt-Latzig, Posen.....			1	7	6	1		15
Magdeburg, Province of Saxony.....			11	22	12			45
Geilsdorf, Thuringia.....				1	2	1		4
Erlach, Württemberg.....	1	1	5	3	3	2		12
Hamburg.....			4	13	3	1		21
Hohenhof, Sleswick.....			2	5	4			11
Hilmarshof, West Prussia.....	1	1	13	6	3			24
Herzogsägmühle, Bavaria.....			3	3	1			7
Lieske, Kingdom of Saxony.....			2	4	1	2		9
Schäferhof.....			2	3	2	1		8
Schernau, Palatinate.....			3	6	3	2		14
Freistadt.....			2	9	5	2		18
Weeze, Rhenish Prussia.....			4	24	14			42
Hoffnungstal, near Bernau.....	1	14	47	12	3			77
Libury Hall, England.....	7	25	10		6	1		49
Total.....	1	22	135	390	190	37	3	778

NUMBER OF DEPARTURES FROM THE GERMAN LABOR COLONIES SINCE OPENING AND NUMBER OF COLONISTS LEAVING IN AUGUST, 1907, BY CAUSES.

Name of colony.	Total departures since opening.	Colonists leaving in August, 1907, for each cause.							
		Illness.	Incapacity.	Required by police.	Time expired.	Voluntary.	Through the colony.	By request.	Returned to family.
Wilhelmsdorf, Bethel, Westphalia.....	12,217	4				1	9	25	1
Berlin.....	12,406		1			13	1	3	
Kästorf, Hanover.....	9,364					11	5	1	
Rickling, Sleswick-Holstein.....	8,450				9	3			
Friedrichswille, Brandenburg.....	10,586	1				18	1	3	
Dornahof, Württemberg.....	6,500	1				5		2	
Seyda, Province of Saxony.....	7,723	1				2		1	1
Dauelsberg, Oldenburg.....	4,059					9	2	3	
Munzcha, Silesia.....	5,214	2				8		2	
Meierei, Pomerania.....	6,478	2	1			6			
Carlshof, East Prussia.....	10,188					3			
Ankenbuck, Baden.....	4,413			1		4		2	1
New Ulrichstein, Hesse.....	6,093	1				15		3	
Lühlerheim, Rhenish Prussia.....	7,550					17			
Schneckengrün, Kingdom of Saxony.....	5,495		1			15			1
Friedrichwilhelmsdorf.....	1,495					4			
Eikenroth, Rhenish Prussia.....	3,910					21			
Simonshof, Bavaria.....	5,575					8	1	2	
Maria-Veen, Westphalia.....	8,921	1				16	8	6	
Alt-Latzig, Posen.....	3,068					18		1	
Magdeburg, Province of Saxony.....	7,102	2				13	5	1	
Geilsdorf, Thuringia.....	2,513								
Erlach, Württemberg.....	4,353	1	1			11			
Hamburg.....	5,994					10			1
Hohenhof, Sleswick.....	2,115				1	2	1		
Hilmarshof, West Prussia.....	4,023					7		1	
Herzogsägmühle, Bavaria.....	3,183					9			
Lieske, Kingdom of Saxony.....	2,187					12			
Schäferhof.....	1,573	1							
Schernau, Palatinate.....	1,354					5			
Freistadt.....	2,867					10			
Weeze, Rhenish Prussia.....	1,497	2				40	1	4	
Hoffnungstal, near Bernau.....	1,066	1				30	9	15	
Libury Hall, England.....	3,096	3				14	10	2	4
Total.....	182,628	23	4	1	10	360	54	77	10

NUMBER OF DEPARTURES FROM THE GERMAN LABOR COLONIES SINCE
OPENING AND NUMBER OF COLONISTS LEAVING IN AUGUST, 1907, BY
CAUSES—Concluded.

Name of colony.	Colonists leaving in August, 1907, for each cause.						Total leaving in August, 1907.	Accommodations furnished by colony.
	Found work.	Unwilling to work.	Drunkenness.	Indecent behavior.	Other bad behavior.	Ran away.		
Wilhelmsdorf, Bethel, Westphalia.....					2	7	49	211
Berlin.....	3				1	1	24	142
Kästorf, Hanover.....	4		1		3	1	26	250
Rickling, Sleswick-Holstein.....	10					1	23	120
Friedrichswille, Brandenburg.....		2				5	30	200
Dornahof, Württemberg.....						1	9	100
Seyda, Province of Saxony.....	1						6	100
Dauelsberg, Oldenburg.....		2				3	19	50
Munsha, Silesia.....		3				1	16	100
Melerei, Pomerania.....	9						18	150
Carshof, East Prussia.....							3	250
Ankenbuck, Baden.....	3				1	1	a 12	76
New Ulrichstein, Hesse.....		3			3		25	130
Lühlerheim, Rhenish Prussia.....	5						22	160
Schneckengrün, Kingdom of Saxony.....							17	120
Friedrichwilhelmsdorf.....							4	37
Eikenroth, Rhenish Prussia.....	3						a 25	80
Simonshof, Bavaria.....	2				1		14	100
Maria-Veen, Westphalia.....						1	32	350
Alt-Latzig, Posen.....			2			2	23	60
Magdeburg, Province of Saxony.....	5		1			2	29	120
Geisdorf, Thuringia.....	1						1	45
Eriach, Württemberg.....		1			1		15	110
Hamburg.....	9					1	21	170
Hohenhof, Sleswick.....							4	81
Hilmarshof, West Prussia.....	3	1			1		14	100
Herzogsgrün, Bavaria.....							9	100
Lieske, Kingdom of Saxony.....	1	1				1	15	100
Sehäferhof.....					1	7	9	100
Schernau, Palatinate.....							5	80
Freistadt.....	2			1	1	2	16	250
Weeze, Rhenish Prussia.....			2				49	125
Hoffnungstal, near Bernau.....	6	1	5		2	1	70	330
Libury Hall, England.....					1	3	37	90
Total.....	67	14	11	1	18	41	691	a 4,572

a This total does not agree with the sum of the items; the figures given are as shown in the original.

PERSONS RECEIVED INTO LABOR COLONIES OF GERMANY FROM 1901 TO 1904,
BY OCCUPATIONS.

Occupations.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
Farmers, gardeners, foresters.....	790	1,059	1,292	1,160
Fishers.....	13	12	16	14
Miners.....	72	98	69	85
Potters and stoneworkers.....	217	209	182	181
Chemist, dyers.....	82	64	75	95
Building trades.....	768	834	918	799
Wood carvers, varnishers, gilders.....	399	413	359	386
Firemen, lamp-lighters, etc.....	20	26	27	36
Machinists, tool makers.....	241	253	251	254
Clock and watch makers, instrument makers (musical and scientific).....	39	22	41	44
Metal workers.....	654	795	705	620
Textile industries.....	280	211	219	247
Clothiers and cleaners.....	471	504	504	504
Grocers, dairymen, waiters.....	449	519	517	520
Hotel clerks, runners, porters.....	83	90	152	181
Cabmen, conductors, motormen.....	58	69	56	65
Sailors.....	91	89	98	74
Commercial travelers, clerks, salesmen.....	448	545	600	593
Leather and paper industries.....	178	229	193	204
Printers and lithographers, etc.....	88	90	95	69
Literature and newspapers.....	14	9	20	12
Craftsmen.....	42	31	35	38
Artists and scientists.....	29	21	32	32
Musicians, acrobats, actors.....	11	23	15	24
Officials, civil engineers, etc.....	150	161	118	125
Orderlies, barbers, hairdressers.....	92	94	116	103
Valets and servants.....	66	97	108	56
Unskilled labor.....	2,740	3,138	2,911	2,826
All other occupations.....	218	341	564	472
Total.....	8,803	10,046	10,288	9,819

Unskilled labor has much the largest representation. Skilled artisans are not very numerous. The men are not compelled to stay, and come and go, many of them, to return. The following table makes this clear:

PERSONS ADMITTED TO LABOR COLONIES OF GERMANY, BY NUMBER OF TIMES PREVIOUSLY ADMITTED TO A COLONY, 1896 TO 1904.

Previous admissions to a colony.	Number of persons admitted to colonies who had been previously admitted each specified number of times.								
	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
Never previously admitted..	2,353	2,156	2,829	2,688	2,890	3,774	4,293	4,351	4,074
Previously admitted:									
On 1 occasion.....	1,118	1,561	1,670	1,577	1,569	1,693	2,039	2,211	2,062
On 2 occasions.....	552	754	994	1,006	998	1,033	1,136	1,236	1,213
On 3 occasions.....	359	443	617	628	661	689	747	792	742
On 4 occasions.....	192	270	381	412	438	460	454	473	498
On 5 occasions.....	138	154	228	282	264	330	364	312	345
On 6 occasions.....	69	120	173	209	189	250	280	255	217
On more than 6 occasions	136	203	441	442	485	574	733	658	668
Not reported.....	2,729	1,530				20		19	
Total.....	7,646	7,191	7,333	7,244	7,494	8,823	10,046	10,307	9,819

It will be seen that the number of cases in which the men admitted have already made a stay in the same or in another labor colony, on one or even two previous occasions, is very large, and that a great number had taken refuge in a colony even oftener than that.

The numbers do not vary materially from year to year. Some go away because they have found work, as is seen by the following table giving figures from 1885 to 1893:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF COLONISTS IN GERMAN LABOR COLONIES OBTAINING WORK AND LEAVING VOLUNTARILY, 1885 TO 1893.

Year.	Number of colonies.	Colonists obtaining work.		Colonists leaving voluntarily.	
		Number.	Per cent of total.	Number.	Per cent of total.
1885-86.....	15	1,391	27.4	2,755	54.1
1886-87.....	16	1,470	24.7	3,427	57.8
1887-1889.....	20	2,465	20.8	7,153	60.4
1889-1891.....	21	2,623	19.7	8,564	64.5
1891-1893.....	26	2,651	16.5	10,715	67.1

Here is a somewhat steadily diminishing proportion of those who leave to take positions of work. It seems to indicate a lowering average of ability. This is thought to be the case with the colonists and is usually explained in Germany by the statement that the best colonists were attracted first, and many of them getting positions, only those came again and again who were for one reason or another the least efficient.

It is evident from these details that the men sent to the German colonies are the ne'er-do-wells or wrecks of society. A very large proportion of them is said to have suffered imprisonment at one time or another, the proportion being estimated at from 66 to 76 per cent.

With respect to the moral improvement in the colonies it is difficult to supply precise information, but on the whole it is not reported favorable.

The general opinion of those who have studied the German labor colonies is not favorable to them, measuring them by the standard of the redemption of character. This is the opinion of the report of the departmental committee on vagrancy in England and Wales, based on careful studies of the colonies. It says: "It appears that three-fourths of the colonists have been previously imprisoned, and there is no evidence that any substantial improvement results from the time spent in the colonies." (^a) The report quotes Mr. W. H. Dawson, a student of German social problems, as saying: "Speaking generally, I do not think you can regard them as being reformatory institutions. The inmates do not stay long enough, and the discipline is not severe enough." But this view, though in itself probably correct, is probably only a partial view. The effect on the reformation of the individual character is not the only thing to be remembered. The interests of society must be also taken into consideration. It must be remembered that these ne'er-do-wells exist in all civilized countries, and that in all countries in one form or another they cost the country vast sums. The question then arises not only what results have such colonies on the tramp, but how do such colonies affect this vast question, and it can not be denied that although not accomplishing the seemingly impossible—the redemption of a vagrant character—they do remove from society large numbers of the vagrant class and provide for them a favorable shelter at the least possible cost. The statistics show that the colonists in the main leave the colonies only when they can get work, and that they return to them when they can not. That large numbers at least do this shows perhaps little permanent regeneration, but it also shows that these men do not prey upon society or generally violate laws. If colonists of vagrants, three-fourths of whom had been previously imprisoned, are rescued to the extent of neither committing crime nor begging, and rescued, too, in the cheapest way to society, certainly not a little has been accomplished. The original statement of Pastor Bodelschwingh, on which this colony movement is founded, has been made good. He said: "Let me have the tramps and I will save some of them, and they will cost you less." The results seem to verify that statement. The evil the tramp does if not sheltered in colonies must especially be realized. Mr. Edmund Kelly in *The Unemployables*, page 8, says:

But whether a victim or not, he is certainly a danger to the community; the few pence he begs, borrows, or steals is spent in the

^a Report, vol. 1, p. 65.

public house side by side with the element of our society most subject to the contagion of vagabondage; there he relates his adventures, brags of his independence, tempts his listeners to drink and seduces the young into sharing his fortunes; he spreads disease, physical and moral, leaves a legacy of lice to every lodging where he rests; and diligently undoes what little our compulsory education contributes to good citizenship.

SWITZERLAND.

That the German labor colonies can be improved upon, at least in one line, is found in a consideration of the Swiss labor colonies.

The characteristic of the Swiss labor colonies most deserving of notice is that there are various kinds of colonies for various classes of the unemployed. Some of these colonies are "free," maintained by the philanthropically inclined, while others belong to the State (Cantons), and are really penal colonies. Both classes of colonies work together, are in some cases geographically side by side, and in all cases supplement each other. The penal colonies are considered in the next section, but their existence must not be forgotten in studying the free colonies.

There are now three free colonies in Switzerland, with the beginnings of a fourth, and probabilities of still more being soon started. The oldest is the colony of Tannenhof, in the county of Bern; the largest is that of Herdern, in the Canton of Thurgau, near Frauenfeld; the third is the colony of Dietisberg, near Basel, with the beginnings of one for French Switzerland, near Geneva. Each of these colonies is supported by philanthropic societies, individual friends for the most part in the counties nearest to the colonies, principally Bern, Zurich, and Basel for the three respective colonies.

TANNENHOF LABOR COLONY.

Tannenhof, the oldest of the colonies, was established in 1889, with the especial object of providing a temporary home or halfway house for discharged convicts or persons discharged from the penal colonies, and particularly from the neighboring penal colony of Witzwyl. It has not, however, been confined to these, but receives any sent to it, mainly aged or otherwise incapacitated members of the unemployed class. It has not reached large proportions, having at the most from 40 to 50 men and most of the time a smaller number. It has suffered from lack of proper support. Its buildings are very simple and unattractive, though the management does what it can to make its inmates at home.

All are given work of some kind, even the oldest doing something around the buildings, picking vegetables, driving carts, or drawing, cutting, and binding kindlings from the adjacent woods. It there-

fore shelters a very needy and somewhat helpless class of men, but can not be said to accomplish a large work; nor, with such material, aged men for the most part, can it show much in the way of returning men into the ranks of the efficient. It is not self-sustaining. Its expenses, however, are small. The estimated cost of maintaining an individual in the colony is only from 0.90 to 1 franc (17 to 19 cents) per day. The land was originally bought at a low price, and the expenses of management are low. At the close of 1889 the total value of the property was estimated at 3,255.03 francs (\$628.22) less than its indebtedness; on January 1, 1905, the property was valued at 14,442.62 francs (\$2,787.43) more than its indebtedness. The indebtedness had increased, but the value of the property had been still more increased. Recently the colony has been more closely connected with Witzwyl, the neighboring penal colony, the director of that colony having become chairman of the committee in charge of Tannenhof.

HERDERN LABOR COLONY.

The colony of Herdern is larger and more attractive, though perhaps in other ways not really more successful. Founded in 1895, it occupies the interesting buildings of an old castle, once used also as the monastery of St. Urban, on the slopes of vine-clad hills near Lake Constance. It had in the winter of 1907-8 87 colonists, and compared with Tannenhof is a much more active place. It carries on a large and successful trade in cheese and butter and raises considerable amounts of farm produce of various kinds, besides having various hand industries, though in the main only for its own supplies and repairs. Like Tannenhof, Herdern is a free colony, though its inmates must agree to stay at least four weeks after the first fortnight. The colonist is credited with a small wage of about 6 to 12 cents per day, paid on his leaving the colony, less the amount for any new clothes supplied him. He is also given board, lodging, washing, and tobacco. The farm consists of some 300 acres, mainly devoted to dairy work, but with a large vineyard. The colonists coming, as they mainly do, from the cities, however, are artisans more than agriculturists. The living is simple—coffee and bread or porridge at 7, tea at 9, soup and vegetables (meat twice a week) at 12, and soup with bread in the evening. The results in character are hard to estimate. The English report of the departmental committee on vagrancy, quoted above, reports the president of the society which supports Herdern as saying of the colonists: "We can not make any attempt to reform them; we create some more employment for men who say they can not get any, but that is all; we do not profess to do them any good, but we try to preach to them a little,

and exercise a good influence over them."^(a) This is perhaps an unduly modest statement.

In 1902 of the 222 who left the colony in the course of the year, 31 went to situations secured for them by the colony, 55 secured positions for themselves, 93 left professedly to seek work, 10 left without notice, 16 were dismissed for incapacity, and 17 for bad conduct (less than 8 per cent). The average number of inmates in 1902 was 62. The expense (including salaries, allowances to colonists, etc.), after subtracting the amount of sales from the total expenditures, amounted to 2.29 francs (44 cents) per day for each of the 62 inmates. A report by Doctor Hoffmann to the Swiss Federal department of industry in May, 1906, gives the following table, showing the receipts and expenditures of the Herdern free colony from 1895-96 to 1905:

VALUE OF PROPERTY, EXPENDITURES, AND RECEIPTS OF THE HERDERN FREE LABOR COLONY, SWITZERLAND, 1896 TO 1905.

Year.	Value of property.	Expenditures.	Receipts.				Deficits.	
			Sales of produce.		Donations.		Amount.	Per cent of expenditures.
			Amount.	Per cent of expenditures.	Amount.	Per cent of expenditures.		
1895-96.....	\$13,791.69	\$6,904.66	\$2,296.45	33.3	\$874.29	12.6	\$3,733.29	54.1
1896-97.....	12,831.53	8,832.63	2,347.45	26.6	1,151.44	13.0	5,333.74	60.4
1897-98.....	17,814.75	11,424.30	7,957.89	69.6	1,209.15	10.6	2,257.26	19.8
1898 (Dec. 31)....	18,041.47	7,840.74	2,240.88	28.6	2,055.84	26.2	3,544.02	45.2
1899.....	18,108.98	11,898.95	6,161.48	51.8	2,231.56	18.7	3,505.90	29.5
1900.....	22,059.45	13,144.35	4,400.02	33.5	3,279.40	24.9	5,464.93	41.6
1901.....	22,842.53	12,956.24	3,822.89	29.5	3,311.24	25.6	5,316.11	44.9
1902.....	20,349.86	14,932.64	4,914.13	32.9	3,876.67	26.0	6,141.84	41.1
1903.....	22,567.28	11,243.64	5,502.21	48.9	4,261.25	37.9	1,479.58	13.2
1904.....	21,262.83	12,764.39	5,582.16	43.7	3,927.94	30.8	3,254.29	25.5
1905.....	24,067.07	11,499.40	5,697.56	49.6	4,198.52	36.5	1,603.32	13.9
Average.....	11,221.34	4,629.38	41.3	2,761.57	24.6	3,330.39	34.1

DIETISBERG LABOR COLONY.

The colony of Dietisberg, the youngest of the three free colonies, was begun by two private persons in 1904 for 25 colonists. It is hardly old enough yet to show results, but is not particularly different from the colonies already considered. The expense per head per day at Dietisberg is estimated at about 1 franc (19 cents).

The Swiss penal colonies are probably more interesting and successful than the free colonies, but the general opinion in Switzerland seems to be favorable to the free colonies as doing well, so far as their means allow, and as doing important work, and needing only funds or State help to do more. The colony at Herdern has received Federal grants of 20,000 francs (\$3,860) in 1897-98, and 10,000 francs (\$1,930)

^a Report, p. 68.

in 1901. For lack of room all the colonies have to refuse many applicants. Nor must their work be undervalued. Tannenhof, down to 1905 (that is, in sixteen years) had received 1,903 inmates, with a total of 158,728 days' residence; Herdern to the end of 1904 (nine years), 1,663 colonists, with 182,221 days' residence, and Dietsberg in the two years of its existence, 141 colonists, with 14,840 days' residence.

The tenth annual report of the Tannenhof colony says:

If we have simply succeeded in giving a home to a relatively small number of men who, after long privations, for at least a few weeks or months have affectionately been offered nurture for soul and body, and so have been strengthened physically and morally to return to ordinary work, it appears to us worth the sacrifices and efforts we have made and worth their continuance in the future.

It is probable, however, that more could be done.

Sir C. Green, in his report on the Swiss labor colonies, makes this interesting remark:

Moreover, the fact that these colonies admit the criminal element, even with the laudable intention of reforming them and refitting them morally and materially, seems to constitute the most serious obstacle to the adoption of the system as a relief for bona fide workmen, whose only fault, or their worst, consists in their inability to find the means to earn their daily bread.

FRANCE.

Labor colonies have not been developed to any extent in France, nor has success attended the efforts which have been made in this direction. The one colony of La Chalmelle, in the Forêt de Traconne, about 50 miles east from Paris, which did attain some strength, was discontinued in 1907. Of what it accomplished Mr. Percy Alden writes as follows:^(a)

The colony was founded in January, 1892, at the instance of M. Georges Berry, and consists of about 370 acres of rather poor quality land. Since 1900 it has been possible to accommodate about 55 men at a time, admission being granted to those who are recommended by the directors of the night refuges in Paris. Roughly speaking, the colony, which is a municipal institution run by the council of Paris, costs the city council on the average about £1,800 [\$8,760] a year, about £1,000 [\$4,867] being received as a result of the sale of produce and in other ways. A special effort is made by the directors of the refuges, through the agency of the colony, to return persons connected with agriculture once more to the soil. Some 74 per cent of those who enter the colony are connected with agriculture, chiefly country laborers, who flock to Paris at the end of the harvest and vintage and in the course of the winter find themselves stranded. The majority are between 20 and 40, so that, both in respect of occupation and of age, La Chalmelle is a much more hopeful experiment.

^a New Encyclopedia of Social Reform, 1908, p. 682.

The length of stay in the colony is not long. Out of 820 men 436 left in less than two months and an additional 249 in less than four months, while of those who left 59.9 per cent obtained situations. During the year about 250 workmen come and go, and half of these seem to derive very material benefit from their stay at La Chalmelle. Even with the rest much more good might be done if criminals, drunken vagabonds, and the habitués of the night refuges could be excluded or sent to another institution.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The colony of Hollesley Bay has already been considered as a part of the work of the relief works of the Central (Unemployed) Body of London. There remains only to consider the Salvation Army colony at Hadleigh and one or two smaller colonies in England, with one in Scotland.

HADLEIGH LABOR COLONY.

Hadleigh, in Essex, the colony of the Salvation Army, has some 3,000 acres and is the largest labor colony in England. About 400 acres are leased to a farmer. The land is of clay, rather stiff and poor, but is said to be improving in value. About 100 acres are planted with fruit trees and the land is also used for pastures, market gardens, chicken farms, and brick works. Most of the men sent to the colony from London are degenerates of the city and as a rule not adapted to farm life. Among them, however, are a few capable and willing workers, and the best of these at Hadleigh seem to have been easily restored to a permanent occupation. Or, if occupation has not been found, they have emigrated. The majority, however, require a longer period of treatment than the colony for financial reasons has been able to give them. The result is that much of the labor is thrown away. The number of men on the farm a portion of the time has been from 500 to 600, with an average of perhaps 250.

Among the employees of the colony are 15 ex-colonists retained for special ability. The work is chiefly agricultural and brick making. The buildings are simple one-story buildings, largely of wood, but are considered adequate. The diet is generous—too generous the English vagrancy report considers. The cost per head is about £48 (\$233.59) a year or 64 cents per day. The capital invested in the colony is stated by Mr. Lamb of the Salvation Army to be £140,000 (\$681,310) (land, buildings, and stock) for 500 inmates or some £300 (\$1,460) per head, though he states that a new colony could be provided at £250 (\$1,217) per head. He reported to the English vagrancy committee, for 1904:

Value of the agricultural produce.....	\$45, 521
Industrial (mainly bricks).....	18, 746
Estimated value of labor in dining room, laundry, bakery, etc.....	20, 770
Total.....	85, 037

The produce from the market garden in 1904 included strawberries, 13,500 pounds; gooseberries, 46,480 pounds; apples, 76,640 pounds; plums, 33,000 pounds; celery, 4,500 heads; lettuce, 111,740 heads; rhubarb, 28,000 bundles; onions, 130 tons. The hours of work in the summer are from 6 a. m. to 6 p. m., and in the winter from 7 a. m. to 6 p. m., when possible. Wages can be earned up to 2 shillings (49 cents) per week. Of the results in character it is hard to form an estimate. The Salvation Army admits that it can not follow up those who leave the colony. For the two years ended September, 1904, of the 523 received by the colony 142 were paupers sent by boards of guardians, who paid a fixed sum for their maintenance; 137 were from the Salvation Army in London; 236 were private cases, who came on their own account or were sent by friends. Of the 484 who left the colony during these years 89 went to situations found by themselves; 54 to situations found by the colony; 84 were dismissed for bad behavior; 16 left through ill-health; 239 left of their own accord; 2 for other reasons. The number leaving in one month was 209, and only 158 remained longer than six months.

OTHER ENGLISH LABOR COLONIES.

Other English labor colonies may be more briefly mentioned. At Newdigate Farm House, Holmwood, near Dorking, Surrey, the Church Army has established a small colony on about 50 acres, mainly as a test place for those whom it is considering sending as emigrants. During 1905, after testing and training, 60 men and youths were emigrated. The Church Army is, however, largely extending the colony, and a valuable estate has been offered for this purpose.

At Laindon, Essex, the Poplar guardians established in 1904 a small colony of 100 acres as a branch workhouse for able-bodied unskilled paupers. In February, 1906, the colony had about 150 men. The work consists in excavating a reservoir, and is regarded mainly as a labor test. The land was owned by Mr. Joseph Fels, but loaned to Poplar for three years.

The Christian Social Service Union, which maintains the colony at Lingfield, has also started a much smaller one on Browhead Farm at Starnthwaite, Westmoreland, for some 25 broken-down men.

Libury Hall, at Great Munden, Herts, is a German colony for Germans in England finding themselves out of work. The scheme is to some extent one of repatriation, and many men have been sent back to their fatherland through its instrumentality. It employs some 110 men in farm work, gardening, and a few small workshops.

Mr. E. D. Court, a Local Government Board inspector, has given an account of this work, from which the following is extracted:

The mission of the colony being not to give alms nor money, but to help by affording opportunity to work, the freehold of 300 acres of suitable land in Hertfordshire was purchased. About 35 acres of

this is occupied by buildings, poultry runs, and duck ponds, willow bed, gravel pit, fruit and vegetable garden, and wood; 30 acres by meadow, and the remainder is sown or planted with wheat, rye, barley, oats, potatoes, beans, swedes, turnips, artichokes, clover, rape, mustard, vetches, and sainfoin. A basket-weaving shop on a large scale was erected, with a carpenter's shop and smithy, and large well-ventilated stables, cow sheds, and piggeries, also small shops for tailor and shoemaker, a bakehouse, laundry (now being greatly enlarged), dairy, kitchen, etc. In all these departments, as well as in cleaning the house, work is found, but the great majority of men are employed out of doors, the stronger men in digging gravel, breaking flints, making roads, and so on; the weaker in the garden or looking after the poultry. There are 16 cart horses and about the same number of milch cows, and useful experience has been gained by intending emigrants looking after them. Beds were at first provided for 90 men, 64 of them in 1 large dormitory, divided into 16 cubicles. Later, to meet the winter pressure, room for 20 more beds was found by cutting off a part of the basket-weaving department, and it is proposed shortly to build for 150 more men. About 869, or more than two-thirds of those received, have been distinctly benefited. As to financial position, the colony is not self-supporting so far, and probably never will be. The buildings have involved large expenditure and the expenses are heavy. For ten weeks' work a man receives not only board and lodging, but, if necessary, clothing, and a sovereign (\$4.87) is spent on his return journey to Germany, while he is given tokens to the value of 1½ pence (3 cents) a night during his stay at the colony, unless he misbehaves. On the other hand, the average stay is a little under eight weeks, and for the first three weeks, owing to poor condition and so on, not very much work is done. Also there is difficulty in finding a market for some articles.

Mid Locharwoods is a Scotch colony of 440 acres, 8 miles south of Dumfries, started partly as a result of General Booth's "Darkest England." In 1897 the Scottish Labor Colony Association was formed to carry out the objects of the original labor centers board.

Mid Locharwoods was purchased, 150 acres being good arable land, and the rest reclaimed or unreclaimed moss land. The peat is used as fuel, and the land reclaimed by liming and claying is capable of growing good crops of turnips, cabbages, carrots, and potatoes. The colonists are chiefly from a shelter in Glasgow. The colony receives nothing from the poor-law authorities in Scotland, who have no power to make grants for the able-bodied. It is thus wholly dependent on voluntary aid. In 1904 it received 67 men, and it is stated that 40 men left with every prospect of doing well.

EPILEPTIC AND INEBRIATE COLONIES FOR SPECIAL CLASSES OF THE UNEMPLOYED.

Special classes of the unemployed need special treatment. This is particularly true of the physically defective, inebriates, and epileptics. These classes, however, can not be treated here at any

length, as they involve problems which are other than the problems of unemployment. Only two such colonies, which are most intimately connected with the unemployed, are considered.

BETHEL COLONY AT BIELEFELD, GERMANY.

The "Colony of Mercy" at Bielefeld, Westphalia, Germany, is the best known epileptic colony in the world. "Bethel," as the colony is usually called, began as an epileptic colony. In 1867, through the efforts of a few Westphalian pastors and laymen, a farmhouse near Bielefeld was bought and a few epileptics came. Two years later a home for deaconesses was planted close by to train workers. Three years later Pastor von Bodelschwingh and his wife were placed in charge. There are now over 150 buildings, and Bethel receives every class of unfortunates. The main branches of the colony, however, are five in number: (1) The home for epileptics, or Bethel proper; (2) Sarepta, the home for training nurses, in which about 1,100 nurses have been trained; (3) Nazareth, the brotherhood for training deacons, where about 370 deacons have been trained; (4) Wilhelmsdorf, the colony for vagrants and the unemployed which has already been considered, and (5) the Workmen's Home Association, an organization for providing homes for the working classes of Germany.

Among Bethel's 150 buildings there is place for any who are ill. It has a large colony for idiots, nearly one-third of the inmates of Bethel being of this class. It has two orphanages, called "The Good Shepherd" and Kinderheim, the children's home. For inebriates there is the Friedrichshütte (Frederick's cot), named for the late German Emperor, and opened just after his demise. One remarkable spot on the colony grounds is the Eickhof, where wealthy voluntary patients, who have made shipwreck of life, through drink or fast living, may come, and, among equals of their own class and surrounded by physical comforts, be compelled nevertheless to labor with their own hands. There is also a house which welcomes those who can find no opening elsewhere because they have been convicted of dishonesty of some kind. Such are some of the wide charities of this unique colony.

The whole atmosphere of the place is religious. Work which each colonist can do is provided. Almost all that Bethel uses is made by the colonists—houses, furniture, clothing, food, etc. There are book-binding, book printing, and bookselling establishments, and books made at Bethel are sold throughout Germany; there are saddlers, basket makers, and men in other trades; there is a farmhouse, and a brickyard where bricks are made to the number of 4,000,000 per year.

The Workmen's Home Association makes loans to workingmen on security of land and house, and so enables them to own their homes

and a little land. Skilled epileptics are the architects and builders of these houses. The work of the association is spreading to different parts of the Empire.

Bethel largely supports itself by the work done by its members. Little or no pay is given, even to those who do the skilled work of overseeing or directing. They are assured a home and livelihood, and in case of sickness or need they are provided for. From the training homes come men and women who, with no thought of pay, guide the multitudinous activities of the colony, or are sent to carry on similar efforts in Africa and elsewhere. Yet money is earned in many ways. Cast-off clothing or articles of any nature, collected from all over Germany, are renewed and made fit to be used by persons in the colony or are sold at low price to the peasants in the vicinity. A woman in Germany collected a garret full of old corks and sent them to Bielefeld, and from this small beginning the traffic in "cast-off" articles has grown until it now occupies several houses at the colony, employs 40 people, and brings in about \$10,000 per year. In more ordinary lines of trade, Bethel puts up and sells over the world pure bromide, for which epileptics have continual need and which it is difficult to get pure. In ten years over 10,000 epileptics have been thus supplied in Germany alone.

Bethel is not self-supporting. The royal house of Prussia takes great interest in it and gives many favors and donations; but the colony relies more particularly upon the interest and gifts of the Westphalian farmers who live in the district. At present about \$7,500 per year comes from the school children of Germany. Some \$50,000 per year is collected for the colony by 60 regular collectors. The neighboring Provinces appropriate to its use about \$15,000 per year. Altogether Bethel receives and spends, apart from the labor colony, about \$300,000 per year. It has property valued at 6,562,057 marks (\$1,561,770) net.

THE LINGFIELD COLONY, ENGLAND.

This colony, like that of Bethel, is established on a religious basis, it being a colony of the Christian Social Service Union, established at Lingfield, Surrey, in 1895, as a home for epileptic children, and a farm colony of about 250 acres for the incapable. The following account of it is abridged from reports secured during a visit to the colony in October, 1907. Concerning the men sent there considered apart from the epileptic children, the report says:

During the five years commencing April, 1902, 324 men have been dealt with. Of these, 105 were private cases and 219 were sent by boards of guardians. Of the private cases, 37 were inebriates and 68 were sent to the colony for various other reasons: Out of work, 28; chronic laziness, 6; mental defect, 13; dishonesty, 9; nervous dis-

orders, 7; weak will, 1; epilepsy, 1; consumption, 1; indecency, 1; religious persecution (a Christian Jew), 1. Taking the total number of all cases (324), 116 were under 20 years of age, 174 were between 20 and 45, and 34 were over 45. There were 155 successes and 131 failures, and 38 cases are still on the colony. Of those under 20 there were 62 successes and 30 failures, and 24 are still at Lingfield. Between 20 and 45 the numbers were: Successes, 77; failures, 84; 13 are still at Lingfield. Over 45: Successes, 16; failures, 17; one is still at Lingfield; or a percentage of 67.3, 47.8, and 48.4 [successes in each age group], respectively. Of the successes, 96 went to Canada; 45 to situations in this country; 9 were given appointments on the colony staff; 2 became brothers; 2 entered the army; and 1 (a colored man) was returned to his friends in America. The failures are accounted for as follows: Physically unfit, 6; mentally unfit, 30; drink, 16; nerves, 4; left to seek work, 4; dead, 3; suicide abroad, 1; dismissed, 28; absconded, 39. Of the 16 failures through drink 11 were private cases. Eight of the drink failures were over 45 and 8 were between 20 and 45. In the first instance, 5s. [\$1.22] per week was asked with each man for a period of three months. This has been gradually increased, until now we ask 10s. 6d. [\$2.56] per week with each man for the whole of his term of residence at Lingfield. Of the 10s. 6d. [\$2.56] per week charged for each man, 4s. 9d. [\$1.16] goes in food and the remainder in wear and tear, cost of supervision, and ordinary institutional charges. With a larger number of men this figure might be reduced. Sixty is too small a number to constitute an economical unit.

Colonists are taught general farm work, including milking and driving, and market gardening, according to their aptitude and capacity. The method of training is to place every five or six men under the charge of a brother, who is responsible for their well-being, both indoors and out.

The Rev. J. L. Brooks, for many years director of the colony, and who is also a practical farmer, says that in nine years the colony never had one healthy, sober, young, and industrious man sent to it. Nevertheless Mr. Brooks claims to have been successful in rehabilitating about 36 per cent of the cases put under his hands. Considering that it has resulted in helpless lives made useful, wasted lives reclaimed, drunkards restored, and mischief prevented, the cost is probably not heavy and is less than under the poor law. The expense is 9s. (\$2.19) per week per man (31 cents per day), exclusive of clothing, the chief items being 4s. 10d. (\$1.18) for food, 2s. 2d. (53 cents) for lodging and laundry, 1s. 6d. (36 cents) for superintendence, and 6d. (12 cents) waste and medical care.

The children's home on the colony accommodates 30 epileptic children, who otherwise would be shut up in the imbecile wards of the workhouses and asylums. Here they have a bright and happy life. In the condition of children there is seen great amelioration; in many, prospect of much greater improvement; in some there is definite cure.

The buildings and rooms are made unusually attractive, and careful, trained attendance and teaching does all that can be done.

THE INCORRIGIBLE OR VICIOUS.

Consideration is now given to that class among the unemployed who will not work, even though given the chance—the vagrant proper. This class is probably not so large as is popularly believed, particularly in America; but if those are included in it—as they should be—who, though they accept work when hard put to it or in occasional spasms of industry, prefer idleness, the class so considered is not small. The experience of the German labor colonies is that there are many such. In 1898, out of 7,333 men admitted to the German colonies, only 2,829 had not been in a colony before; 61 per cent of the whole number had been in a colony before. In 1904, out of 9,819 admitted, only 4,074 had not been in a colony before; 59 per cent had been in a colony before. Such facts, of course, can be interpreted in more ways than one. It does not follow that about 60 per cent of the unemployed will not work. How many left the colonies to find work and could not get it or who got a position and, through no fault of theirs, could not hold it is not known. The causes of their return to the colonies are not shown. It may be in part the fault of the colonies in not perfectly training the men for work, or, perhaps, in proving to be too attractive to weak men. A hundred causes and combinations of causes may be assigned. Nevertheless, the fact is suggestive of incorrigible avoidance or, at least, of a very weak seeking after work. There are many of the unemployed of whom this is true. It is the one cry of those who have not studied the subject that men are unemployed through their own fault or because they will not work, and this is the belief of some who have had experience in the matter. But it is the usual statement of Salvation Army workers and of most labor colony managers and the like that the more one studies the unemployed the more one believes that if rightly handled and wisely aided and taught, the large majority, even of the inefficient unemployed, can be made to prefer work to idleness.

But few or many, the question arises, What shall be done with the residuum who will not work for reasons of viciousness or incorrigible idleness? The question of handling the actually criminal unemployed does not come within the limits of this inquiry.

For the vicious and the incorrigible unemployed two main measures are proposed, (1) reform schools, shops, or farms, and (2) penal colonies.

ESPECIAL REFORM SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTIONS.

The experience of the best reform institutions on both sides of the Atlantic indicates that especial reform schools and institutions are the best places for the vicious and incorrigible, although they should, if possible, be especially adapted to the needs of the particular classes of the vicious and incorrigible. It is stated that the vicious and the

incorrigible vagrant should not be put in any form of juvenile reformatory or school, neither should he be permitted to associate with the vicious and incorrigible who have done worse things than be idle; that thorough differentiation and grading in reform schools and institutions are at least as necessary as in public schools, and that to some sort of reform school or institution the vagrant should, if possible, be sent, in view of the fact that large numbers of those who are vicious and incorrigible can be reformed and because large numbers are reformed. If institutions like the Elmira Reformatory in New York and measures like the Borstal system in England can reform very large percentages of those more vicious than the vicious and incorrigible idler, at least equal results may be looked for with the idlers. The new penology places no limits upon the reformatory possibilities of men. It is pointed out that many of those who not only seem to be, but are vicious and incorrigible, need only a persistent, wise, and friendly (though not weak) teaching to be made very different; that they should doubtless be committed to these institutions by due process of law, but that the basis of the sentence should be "the indeterminate sentence," and the length of their stay and their treatment in the institution should depend wholly upon their conduct; that they should be taught trades and not allowed to go out until situations are found for them; finally, that they should be made to work and should not be too indulgently treated.

PENAL COLONIES.

Penal colonies may be considered as an especial class of reform institutions more particularly belonging to the present subject. They are generally for those who prove themselves to be vicious and incorrigible idlers. Yet even such must not be wholly despaired of, and penal colonies, it is stated, should be conducted on the general principles for reform institutions indicated above, with modifications, however, because of the fact that persistent vice and incorrigible idleness are usually accompanied by, or productive of, such dulling or degeneration of mental and sometimes physical powers as makes many persons of this class either half-witted or in some way abnormal and degenerate. When this becomes more marked than their viciousness and willful idleness, they must be passed into another class.

The main European examples of penal colonies are in Belgium, Holland, and Switzerland.

BELGIUM.

Under the Belgian poor-law system Belgium has five penal colonies, of which three are for men and two for women. Besides the penal colonies there are workhouses and schools of charity, the work-

houses being subsidiary to the penal colonies. Private charity provides for at least one-half of the indigents, but the disbursement is controlled by the State. The schools of charity are compulsory training schools for youths up to 18 who have become vagrants or who have committed misdemeanors. The expense for these institutions is divided equally among the State, Province, and commune.

The colonies for men are maintained by the Government at Merxplas, Wortel, and Hoogstraeten, situated a few miles from Turnhout, east from Antwerp, and are called Colonies Agricoles de Bienfaisance. They are practically penal institutions, though occasionally men go to them voluntarily; but this is rare.

When Belgium became an independent Kingdom, in 1830, she possessed six so-called "dépôts de mendicité" (colonies for beggars) situated in different Provinces, and, besides these, two so-called colonies of mercy, one at Merxplas and one at Wortel, established by the Dutch Society of Beneficence when the land on which they were located belonged to Holland. Merxplas was a penal colony for vagrants adapted for agricultural labor, and Wortel a free colony somewhat similar to the present Dutch free colonies already considered.

The colonies at Merxplas and Wortel, however, were suppressed in 1841, on the conclusion of the contract between the Society of Beneficence and the Dutch Government.

Later three of the colonies for beggars were suppressed. The one at Bruges was made a colony for women over 18 years of age, and that at Reckheim was made a reform school for boys between 15 and 18 years of age. Only the depot of Hoogstraeten was retained in its original character, but it was enlarged. The suppressed colonies of Merxplas and Wortel (the territory on which they stood having been acquired by Belgium in 1870) were added to it, and all three, being on adjoining lands, were converted into penal colonies called, since 1894, "Colonies de Bienfaisance de l'Etat."

The three colonies are conducted under one general directorship and yet are distinct. Hoogstraeten and Wortel are called maisons de refuge, and Merxplas, much the largest of the three, a dépôt de mendicité. Hoogstraeten, where the general director of the three colonies resides, is intended especially for the old or the infirm, unable to work or able only to do very little. A few, however, of the able-bodied are kept here also, to carry on the needed labor.

Wortel is intended for those able to work and driven to begging or vagrancy only through lack of work, or for those who come of their own accord, armed, however, with a communal (or municipal)

authorization. In neither of these colonies may a man be detained against his will more than one year.

Merxplas is intended for those who are able to work but will not do so, who through choice, drunkenness, or vagrancy have become professional beggars or vagrants, or who have been "souteneurs" (sustainers or runners for public women), or for beggars and vagrants condemned by the public tribunals for at least one year, and who, at the expiration of this term, must be kept on at the disposition of the Government not less than one or more than seven years longer. The inmates of Merxplas are divided into six classes:

1. The dangerous, the incorrigible, the immoral, the "souteneurs."
2. Those under police surveillance, those who have escaped and been returned to the colonies under discipline, and those condemned for more than a three-year term.
3. Those condemned for two or three years.
4. Those between the ages of 18 and 21.
5. The invalids and the infirm.
6. Individuals committed for the first time and who have not been in a house of refuge before.

The three colonies taken together seem like a great military park, cared for with strict military discipline. The roads are like the carriage drives of a great estate, the hedges carefully trimmed, the trees numbered and watched; the grounds are worked by squads of colonists, under armed surveillance; a detachment of 150 soldiers guards the whole place. This is perhaps necessary, as in December, 1906, there were 6,309 colonists, 1,197 in Hoogstraeten and Wortel, and 5,112 in Merxplas. Hoogstraeten occupies the buildings of an old circular castle, and is still surrounded by a canal or large moat. Merxplas is a large industrial prison. One can wander from room to room for days and find each day new industries. Almost every trade is represented, and that by large workshops. All is in military order. And all has been developed by the colonists. They have erected the buildings; architects among them have created the designs, and draftsmen among them have drawn the plans. They have built the gas house and made the machines; they have made the furniture very largely, even the carving in the chapel. Printing is done here; every kind of weaving, furniture making, making of pearl buttons, etc. The machinery is mainly of antiquated designs. The object is not to teach trades and create workmen, but to occupy men and remove them from a world where they are not wanted, maintaining them at the lowest cost, and yet humanely, although under strict supervision. Reading matter, opportunity for smoking, and religious and medical attendance are provided. The cost of maintenance is con-

sidered to be about 13 cents per head per day for the able-bodied and 14 cents per day for the invalid and infirm. A daily grant of 66 centimes (13 cents) per head is made by the State, the Province, and the commune (municipalities and towns). Small wages are paid, averaging from 12 to 30 centimes (2 to 6 cents) per day, during good behavior. Good work is also rewarded with colony money, enabling one to buy tobacco or other things at the canteen at cost price. Good behavior can also reduce the minimum term from two years to thirteen months. Some of the work of the colonists is sold to dealers, or jobs are taken, as in the manufacture of buttons of all kinds. The large numbers with military discipline make possible very economic and effective organization, but also render nearly impossible much personal influence on the men. It is probable that with such numbers this is the only possible system. The mere herding of so many men of this character together, even though classified into sections and the worst removed from contact with the rest, must have a deteriorating effect on many. The English Vagrancy Report quotes the director as saying that as soon as one period of detention is over the colonist is generally returned to the colony for another term, and that it is only exceptionally that a rescue can be effected among the social wreckage which forms the basis of the population of the colony. This is borne out by the following tables prepared by the administration of the colonies, showing the recent statistics:

ARRIVALS AT THE PENAL COLONIES OF BELGIUM, 1902 TO 1906.

Year.	Dépôt de Mendicité, Merxplas.						Maisons de Refuge, Hoogstraeten and Wortel.						Total arrivals.
	First time.	Second time.	Third time.	Fourth time.	Fifth time or over.	Total.	First time.	Second time.	Third time.	Fourth time.	Fifth time or over.	Total.	
1902..	674	546	493	446	2,355	4,514	1,483	772	478	329	1,327	4,389	8,903
1903..	668	585	472	470	2,454	4,649	1,281	555	380	257	955	3,428	8,077
1904..	558	552	582	455	2,468	4,615	1,236	596	389	249	1,016	3,546	8,161
1905..	517	595	516	406	2,590	4,624	1,070	524	320	249	894	3,057	7,681
1906..	547	522	488	420	2,449	4,426	903	402	232	174	794	2,505	6,931

DEPARTURES FROM THE PENAL COLONY OF BELGIUM, 1902 TO 1906.

Year.	Dépôt de Mendicité.					Maison de Refuge.					Total departures.	Population Dec. 31.		
	Re-leased.	Trans-ferred.	Es-caped.	Died.	Total.	Re-leased.	Trans-ferred.	Es-caped.	Died.	Total.		Dépôt de Mendicité.	Maison de Refuge.	Total.
1902..	2,847	501	879	125	4,352	4,034	177	85	87	4,383	8,735	4,851	2,003	6,854
1903..	2,922	482	1,004	108	4,486	3,372	138	72	99	3,681	8,167	5,014	1,750	6,764
1904..	2,827	514	1,066	112	4,519	3,413	142	40	99	3,694	8,213	5,110	1,602	6,712
1905..	2,666	439	1,243	94	4,442	3,116	135	58	74	3,368	7,825	5,292	1,276	6,568
1906..	2,935	504	1,081	136	4,606	2,318	125	59	82	2,584	7,190	5,112	1,197	6,309

The numbers in the different sections November 20, 1907, were as follows:

Merxplas:

Between ages of 18 and 21.....	17
Infirm, but able to work a little.....	1, 104
Incurable.....	261
First term commitments.....	39
Escaped and returned.....	147
Incendiaries, etc.....	78
"Souteneurs," etc.....	85
Under discipline.....	149
In the general court.....	2, 847
<hr/>	
Total.....	4, 727
In cells.....	65
Hospital.....	84
Hoogstraeten.....	89
Wortel.....	198
Rechheim (boys' colony).....	526
<hr/>	
Grand total.....	5, 689

HOLLAND.

The several penal colonies of Holland do not call for extensive notice. The largest, Veenhuizen, has about 3,000 acres of land and there are 3,600 inmates, divided into three sections of about 1,200 each; Hoorn has about 1,200 inmates, while Leyden (for women) has 1,000. In general the colonies are administered like those of Belgium, though with less military discipline and with more freedom for the inmates. They were started, like the Dutch free colonies, by the "Society of Beneficence," though intended for the compulsory detention of vagrants; but failing financially, they were handed over to the State in 1859. Veenhuizen is for vagrants proper; Hoorn and Leyden also admit habitual drunkards. The work is mainly forestry, agriculture, gardening, and, to a less extent, weaving, carpentry, masonry, smith's work, and the making of boots, clothing, and furniture. Small wages are paid and considerable liberty given within the colony.

SWITZERLAND.

There are many penal colonies in Switzerland. Almost every Canton has one, or at least an arrangement whereby vagrants and others can be sent to a neighboring institution. Some of them, however, are small and little developed. Among those of the better class are one at Liesthal, in the Canton of Basel, one at Gmünden near St. Gallen,

and one in the Canton of Appenzell. But by far the best and most successful, and perhaps the most successful penal colony in the world, is Witzwyl, in the Canton of Bern. It was established in 1895 on 2,000 acres, near the northeast end of the Lake of Neuchatel. All the land in the vicinity was considered useless, water-logged soil, and was subject to repeated inundations. Extensive works of redemption, however, have, after many efforts, redeemed the land, and two-thirds of it is now under cultivation. The colony is under the control of the police committee of the Canton of Bern. It receives persons sentenced by the criminal courts for terms of imprisonment up to three years, and also those convicted of habitual vagrancy or refusal to work. It has accommodations for about 200 men, though it rarely has more than 150. It had, in 1906, an average number of 144, varying from 166, February 22, to 126, September 1. The total number who passed through the colony that year was 236. The management consisted of a staff of 45 persons. This small number of colonists can obviously be handled very differently from the 5,000 at Merxplas, and perhaps the key to Witzwyl's success is in the personal contact of the staff with the men. The surveillants, who are unarmed, work with the men. Mr. Edmond Kelly has given a somewhat enthusiastic, but, it is believed, a correct account of Witzwyl.^(c)

The first thing that strikes the visitor at Witzwyl is the absence of all those features which render Merxplas attractive. The roads are not kept like the carriage drive of a private park, the borders are not machine mown and rolled, nor are the hedges trimmed like those of a suburban villa. The inmates do not work in squads, and the surveillants are not armed, nor is there the atmosphere of military discipline and order which characterizes the Belgian institution. The roads, though inelegant, are good farm roads, the buildings are sound farm buildings; the surveillants are hardly distinguishable from the inmates, and work with them. To this last feature the director attaches great and merited importance. As he says in his report of 1904, by working with the men "it is easier to gain their confidence than by polished discourse in an office kept warm in the winter and fresh in the summer, where the inmate will never be able to rid himself of the impression that his superior has no idea of the difficulties he has to overcome nor of the hardship of the work he is called upon to undergo." Moreover the surveillants, by working with the inmates, not only earn their wages, but serve by their example to give the atmosphere of work indispensable for the success of such an institution.

The nourishment is not only sufficient, but is strengthening. The director states that good nourishment is the best means for curing drunkards and those who have fallen into a condition of physical degeneration.

^c The Unemployables, p. 24.

There are very few escapes; from two to five per annum. There are two surveillants for ten to twelve inmates at Witzwyl. Every inmate has a cell of his own, which is locked upon him at night. These cells are lit by electricity, and the inmates are encouraged to decorate them so as to give them as homelike an appearance as possible. The walls of some of them are covered with pictures cut from newspapers, bits of carved wood, family photographs, evergreens, rushes, and all the other inexpensive methods of decoration which an ingenious person can find in such an environment. Conversation is not forbidden during work time, but the presence of a surveillant keeps it free from the evils which penitentiary conversation is likely to involve. There are punishment cells, which are similar to the other cells, except that a plank is substituted for a bed. Months often pass without using these cells, and then again it is sometimes necessary to use them two or three times in a single month. Inmates who do not yield to the good influence of the place are brought by the director before a magistrate and sent to a penitentiary. Those inmates who are deserving get 5 francs [97 cents] a month for their work.

These are the financial results of the year 1905:

	Francs.	
The proceeds of the workshop amounted to.....	12, 202. 00	[\$2, 354. 99]
Proceeds of agriculture.....	140, 549. 41	[27, 126. 04]

After having paid all their expenses there remained a deficit of 19,957.95 francs [\$3,851.88]. But the inmates during the year built the following:

	Francs.	
A shed at Lindenhof.....	11, 800. 00	[\$2, 277. 40]
A stable for cows.....	40, 200. 00	[7, 758. 60]
Installation of electricity at Eschenhof.....	7, 000. 00	[1, 351. 00]
Installation of water pipe.....	4, 500. 00	[868. 50]
Increase in machinery, tools, etc.....	43, 573. 45	[8, 409. 67]
Total	107, 073. 45	[20, 665. 17]

Deducting from this sum the deficit of 19,957.93 francs [\$3,851.88], which was furnished by the State, the balance shows a profit of 87,115.50 francs [\$16,813.29] represented by new buildings, machines, tools, and improvements.

This excellent financial result is due to the fact that the director is a skilled farmer. Witzwyl, before it was purchased by the Canton of Bern, was exploited by a company at a loss so great that the company failed and it was put up at public auction. Mr. Kellerhals, by the application to this domain of sound agricultural methods, has made it pay. It can not be too often repeated that the colony is agricultural rather than industrial. It will be seen that the proceeds for agriculture for 1905 amounted to 140,549.41 francs [\$27,126.04], whereas those from the workshops amounted only to 12,202 francs [\$2,354.99]. The expenses of surveillance disappear in view of the fact that the surveillants earn their salary by working with the inmates.

But this is not all. This colony not only manages to pay its expenses, but also, by a very simple method, it reforms all those capable

of reformation. The inmates are offered at the expiration of their term the choice of working for a period at the free colony of Tannenhof, or of working in some of the numerous small colonies which the director is engaged in instituting around Witzwyl. This is perhaps the feature of Witzwyl which is most worthy of our consideration. It represents the natural growth of such an institution as Witzwyl and Tannenhof under the direction of a man who is as much concerned with reforming his inmates as with making the institution pay. Tannenhof includes not only vagrants, but also indigent persons of the Canton who are unfitted by age, illness, or accident from earning their bread in the open market. The tariff of wages given at Tannenhof is therefore low, and able-bodied inmates of Witzwyl are unwilling to work at Tannenhof on account of the low rate of wages prevailing there. This naturally suggested to the director the idea of organizing around Witzwyl small colonies to which able-bodied inmates of Witzwyl could be sent after the expiration of their term, and where they could be at once employed at a fair salary removed from the temptation to drink. There has sprung around Witzwyl, therefore, such colonies as Nusshof, Neuerhof, Eschenhof, and Birkenhof, where the inmates of Witzwyl at the expiration of their term can not only save money, but be gradually prepared for restoration to the open-labor market. * * * At these subcolonies the inmates eat with their employers. They are allowed to smoke, they have good nourishment, they are not confined in their cells, and they generally come to such a good understanding with the managers that after departure they often return on a friendly visit. The director has even, in a very small way, begun reconstituting scattered families by furnishing them with a cottage for which they pay 80 francs [\$15.44] rent a year, by employing them on the colony and by furnishing to their wives and children lodging for a cow and ground enough to cultivate vegetables. This part of the experiment is comparatively new, but the director states that already some families are in a position which has made it possible for them not only to support themselves, but also to begin to put away money.

This account is correct; nevertheless, it must not be forgotten that Witzwyl is a prison. In some of its appointments it is more prison-like than the great dormitories at Merxplas. Most of the colonists at Witzwyl eat, sleep, and spend their free time in their cells, which they contrive often to make homelike. Work hours begin at 5.30 a. m. in the summer and at 6 in the winter. Dinner is at 11.30, and each man takes his ration from the kitchen to his cell, where he remains till 12.30 p. m. Only men working at a distance have their dinner taken to them. Much instruction is given in evening classes, and religious exercises are prominent. A chaplain makes weekly visits. The terms of detention may be shortened one-third by good behavior. A small bonus is given for good work, and fare as far as the frontier is paid on dismissal.

Agricultural work is the main occupation, the guiding principle being "to improve the land by men and the men by land." The director believes that most men can be taught to work and saved by work, and that agricultural work is best. The first year only is made mainly punitive. Statistics as to the number of men permanently reformed are not available, but it is probably much higher than at the free colonies. Many believe that the vicious are usually more capable of reform than the morally weak. On discharge from the colony the men are provided for, if it is possible, either as a paid laborer of the colony, by a discharged prisoner's aid society, or by admission into a voluntary farm.

Witzwyl has the somewhat remarkable record of being self-supporting, chiefly through the sale of the dairy product. It receives Government aid, which is mainly used for extensions and improvements, but the reclamation of the land has probably more than doubled its original value, and the property with improvements is worth more than the original sum paid for it, plus the grants which have been given. The following statistics are from the report of the colony for the year 1906:

Colonists, January 1, 1906.....	155
Colonists, December 31, 1906.....	156
Entered during the year.....	236
Passed out during the year—	
By completion of term.....	191
By pardon.....	38
By transference.....	4
By escape.....	1
By death.....	1
Total.....	235
Committed for the first time.....	188
Recommitted.....	48
Protestants.....	187
Roman Catholics.....	48
Jew.....	1
Single.....	156
Married.....	50
Widowed.....	9
Separated.....	21
Good education.....	187
Poor education.....	48
Without education.....	1
Agricultural laborers.....	114
Artisans and skilled laborers.....	96
In commerce.....	14
Without occupation.....	12

AGGREGATE DAYS INMATES OF WITZWYL PENAL COLONY, SWITZERLAND, WERE NOT EMPLOYED AND AGGREGATE DAYS EMPLOYED AT EACH KIND OF EMPLOYMENT, BY MONTHS, 1906.

Month.	Days not employed.					Days employed.				
	New arrivals.	Imprisoned.	Sick.	Holidays.	Total.	Minor duties.	House-work.	Tailoring.	Shoe-making and saddlery.	Wood-work.
January	15	1	122	749	887	156	208	130	77	127
February	20	2	105	607	734	119	192	120	72	129
March	17	117	571	705	132	214	128	81	155
April	24	22	68	793	907	92	178	85	72	122
May	19	25	59	667	770	104	170	73	71	130
June	14	9	54	514	591	107	168	36	36	90
July	19	12	63	630	724	118	188	50	48	63
August	16	13	58	464	571	102	173	36	34	42
September	23	6	51	613	693	102	156	38	38	55
October	23	49	497	509	104	168	45	31	8
November	22	2	64	552	640	131	168	92	64	53
December	24	10	67	866	967	141	180	109	75	127
Total	236	102	877	7,543	8,758	1,408	2,163	942	699	1,101

Month.	Days employed.								Grand total.
	Iron-work.	Basket-work.	Turf digging.	Building.	Day labor.	Improvements.	Agriculture.	Total.	
January	100	430	137	2,751	4,116	5,003
February	97	792	15	202	2,104	3,842	4,576
March	119	9	169	36	500	2,509	4,052	4,757
April	108	35	3	2,658	3,353	4,260
May	83	414	548	12	184	1,869	3,658	4,428
June	78	256	154	1	21	2,579	3,526	4,117
July	90	44	553	1	70	2,265	3,490	4,214
August	62	1	199	138	2,664	3,451	4,022
September	60	15	156	299	5	2,361	3,285	3,978
October	18	120	3,091	3,585	4,154
November	70	8	318	2,877	3,781	4,421
December	99	29	2	168	2,876	3,806	4,773
Total	984	53	725	3,642	502	1,122	30,604	43,945	52,703

The colonies around Witzwyl are mainly small, but the following quotation from Mr. Kelly regarding them is interesting:

RULES AND REGULATIONS OF NUSSHOF COLONY.

1. The Witzwyl colony has a home at Nussdorf for discharged inmates, the object of which is to provide those among the latter who wish to make better use of their liberty with a home, to be considered as an intermediary stage between the forced labor colony and the outer world.

As long as there is room unemployed workmen are free to enter the home and to work there on the same lines as the other colonists.

2. Employment is given and a contract entered into between the foreman and the colonists.

3. Colonists must furnish proof that their late conduct has been satisfactory. Cripples or workmen suffering from infectious diseases are not admitted.

4. Colonists must obey the rules of the establishment.

Drunkenness and unruly behavior are followed by immediate dismissal.

5. Colonists are not allowed to leave Witzwyl without an authorization from the director.

6. Colonists who have shown industry and capacity can attain positions of trust.

7. Colonists receive free board and lodging, and working clothes.

Special agreements are entered into with skilled laborers as regards remuneration.

8. Colonists who enter the establishment in the winter (December 1 to the end of February) receive no wages during that time. Those who enter in the summer or autumn (March 1 to the end of December), and whose work is satisfactory, receive reduced wages during the winter months.

9. Wages vary from 50 centimes to 1.50 francs [10 to 29 cents] per day. The foremen fix the wages in the beginning.

10. During the time of the contract the managers fix the amount of wages. A part of the men's wages is spent on clothes and linen; the rest is placed to their credit unless paid out for the maintenance of the colonist's family.

The following is the contract the colonists sign:

Contract between the colony of Nusschhof, near Witzwyl, of the first part, and —, colonist, of the second part.

1. The undersigned, who enters the colony of his own free will, for the purpose of working there, agrees to obey the rules and regulations of the said colony, to stay at least two months, and to inform the managers of his intention to leave at least a week in advance.

2. Articles of clothing which have not been paid for by the colonist must be left behind on leaving; he is only entitled to such clothes as he brought with him.

3. Every inmate is given lodging, sufficient food, and working clothes, so that he has no expenses whatever. He shall be cared for in the colony in case of temporary sickness (unless brought on through the inmate's own fault).

4. Wages vary from 50 centimes to 1.50 francs [10 to 29 cents] per day, in accordance with articles 8 and 9 of the rules.

If the inmate is expelled during the first two months (article 4 of the rules), he is not entitled to receive any wages.

5. As regards payment of wages, article 10 of the rules applies. Every inmate upon being admitted to the colony is informed of the rules.

In case of disagreement the question shall be brought before and settled by the Witzwyl Institution.

Witzwyl, this — day of —, 190—.

Taken thus in connection with the partly free colonies, it is stated that Witzwyl, in proportion to its size, probably saves more of its inmates than any labor colony in the world, and also comes nearest, if it does not succeed, in meeting all its expenses.

Mr. Kelly gives the following statement of conclusions at which he has arrived in regard to labor colonies:^(a)

1. It is preferable to create several small agricultural colonies rather than a few large ones.

2. It is advisable to specialize industries in the colonies best fitted therefor.

3. A free colony ought to be instituted by the side of every forced colony in order to facilitate the transfer of the inmates from one colony to the other. This plan would permit the magistrate committing every case of vagrancy that came before him to a labor colony. It would relieve him of the necessity of determining whether the case be one to which blame should be attached or not—a thing which, in view of the deficiency of evidence before him, it is impossible for him to do, whereas, on the contrary, it would permit of a proper classification within the colonies after all the information has been secured that would insure such classification being correct and just.

4. A sufficiently large amount of land ought to be secured at once to enable the slow growth round the central colony of subcolonies, which will gradually prepare the inmates for normal social conditions.

^a The Unemployables, p. 33.

5. No permanent building should be constructed in advance. The system ought to come in operation early in the spring, so as to enable the inmates to occupy temporary cabins and build their own buildings.

6. Every colony ought to have at its head a skilled farmer.

7. Surveillants ought to work together with the inmates.

To these general principles it may be well to add one or two supplementary observations.

There does not seem to be at Witzwyl the system of reward which is such an excellent feature of the colony of Merxplas, and there seems no reason why this excellent provision should not be borrowed from the Belgian institution. Moreover, it ought to be possible to give the inmates of every colony a direct interest in its prosperity by creating separate tables to which a different dietary would be applied, the best furnished tables being offered as a reward for the best work. Such a system would give to every inmate a direct interest in the growth of vegetables, fruit, and all such things as give variety to food.

Again, there is no reason why the unfortunate aged should any longer be sequestered as they now are in asylums, when they can just as well form a part of free colonies where they will have the benefit of social life and can still render considerable service.

DENMARK.

While Denmark has no penal colonies, her treatment of the vagrant may be considered here. It must be considered in connection with her whole poor-law system, which is very progressive, especially as regards the aged poor.

Aged-poor relief is not considered poor relief. The recipient must be free from certain criminal convictions, from debt, must be 60 years old, have lived in Denmark the last ten years prior to application, and must not have received poor relief. Aid is given in kind or in cash, or in the provision of institutions (not poorhouses); for such aid the State levies a fund from which the commune may receive one-half its expenditure for the aged. The homes for the aged are made very attractive, and to become a pensioner is no disgrace. There were 30,957 persons in receipt of old-age relief in January, 1893, and 44,118 in January, 1902. The law is almost universally believed in Denmark to have worked well. It has tended to keep people from committing crime and also from applying for poor relief, so as to be entitled to the old-age insurance. Its cost is thus fully saved by reduced poor-relief cost. The cost in 1901 was about \$1,500,000.

There are, however, as in Belgium, workshops of all kinds carefully organized. Expert managers and foremen direct tailoring, shoemaking, carpentering, bookbinding, weaving, glass blowing, and metal working, which is always going on, and in addition there is a good deal of building, painting, etc. Thus a skilled artisan has no need to break stones, and, as in Belgium, he is practically no loss to the community.

These workshops are not penal, but there are penal workshops, the *Tvangsarbejdanstalt*. Regarding these penal workshops the following is quoted from Mr. Percy Alden:^(a)

By the law of 1891 the poor-law authorities, acting in conjunction with the police, may send to the penal workhouse all who have been "guilty of breaches of order or of morals, or of disobedience, insubordination, drunkenness, quarrelsomeness, idleness, leaving the workhouse without permission, damage to property, or other irregularities, public or private." But Denmark is wise enough thoroughly to classify not only the unemployed, but also the unemployable, and the moment a man shows himself willing to work and behaves in a quiet, orderly manner his treatment is improved. He is transferred to one of the upper classes and finally removed from the penal workhouses to the ordinary workhouse, where he is better fed and much more comfortable.

In 1902 the cost of Ladegaard penal workhouse at Copenhagen was only 11d. [22 cents] per head per day, while the net profits amounted to about £3,900 (\$18,979).

WORKHOUSES.

Under this head the German workhouse only is considered, because it alone bears in an important way upon the present subject. The English workhouse or poorhouse does not undertake to any appreciable extent to provide work for the unemployed. The English vagrant may find shelter for a night or two in the casual wards of the workhouse, but he is not as a rule given employment.

Belgium, Holland, Denmark, and Switzerland have, as has been seen, developed penal colonies rather than workhouses. In France and some other countries there are workhouses (in France called "dépôts de mendicité"), but they are poorly developed from the standpoint of giving employment, and their organization generally is defective. The work they give is frequently most elementary—usually not much more than the picking of oakum or the sorting of rags. France is going through a period of transition in this line, and has on this subject comparatively little to teach.

The German workhouse, however, plays a somewhat important part, and is not to be confounded with the English workhouse. The system varies in different portions of the Empire, but workhouses of one sort or another are found in almost every Province, and more than one are found in some Provinces. Prussia has 24 workhouses (*Arbeiterhaus*). Mr. W. H. Dawson, in his evidence before the English vagrancy commission, defined them as institutions for vagrants, loafers, and people of irregular lives. Their occupants are committed to them by a magistrate or court. In 1903-4 there were 10,363 persons sentenced to the Prussian workhouses; in 1884 there were 15,474.

^a The Unemployed, pp. 25, 26.

The Berlin workhouse is most efficiently conducted. In appointments, cleanliness, hygiene, and general attractiveness it far exceeds any of the so-called labor colonies, except so far as that they are in the country and agricultural, while the Berlin workhouse is in a suburb of the city (Rummelsburg) and therefore occupies less space, and is industrial. The following statistics from the report for 1907 show the character of this workhouse:

INMATES OF EACH DEPARTMENT OF THE BERLIN WORKHOUSE FOR YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907, AND AVERAGE FOR EACH YEAR, 1897 TO 1906.

	Department of correction.			Hospital department.			Reinickendorf Hospital.	Grand total.
	Men.	Wom-en.	Total.	Men.	Wom-en.	Total.		
Inmates March 31, 1906.....	1,841	123	1,964	441	125	566	195	2,725
Entered during year.....	1,625	155	1,780	419	207	626	99	2,505
Total.....	3,466	278	3,744	860	332	1,192	294	5,230
Left during year.....	1,922	170	2,092	411	193	604	98	2,794
Died during year.....	17	4	21	85	22	107	128
Total.....	1,939	174	2,113	496	215	711	98	2,922
Inmates March 31, 1907.....	1,527	104	1,631	364	117	481	196	2,308
Average number inmates:								
1897.....	1,080	134	1,214	322	91	413	1,627
1898.....	1,054	115	1,169	357	99	456	1,625
1899.....	1,080	124	1,204	427	108	535	1,739
1900.....	1,107	151	1,258	384	105	489	1,747
1901.....	1,128	150	1,278	435	106	541	1,819
1902.....	1,600	152	1,752	456	112	568	2,320
1903.....	1,660	117	1,777	444	125	569	16	2,362
1904.....	1,694	145	1,839	439	132	571	121	2,531
1905.....	1,849	129	1,978	433	130	563	193	2,734
1906.....	1,685	117	1,802	420	118	538	195	2,535

The following table gives statistics of work done at the Berlin workhouse for the year ending March 31, 1907:

DAYS WORKED BY INMATES OF BERLIN WORKHOUSE, AND AMOUNT PAID FOR WORK, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

	Days worked.			Total amount paid for work.	Average pay per person per day.
	Men.	Women.	Total.		
PAID WORK.					
Outside the institution:					
Out-of-door work, April to October.....	190,190	190,190	\$18,106.09
City departments.....	2,515	2,515	419.00	\$.167
City orphanages and asylums.....	83	83	13.67	.164
Inside the institution, for city departments:					
Sewing.....	2,381	2,381	245.33	.102
Laundry.....	3,812	3,812	6,817.16	\$.289
Woodcutting.....	24,814	24,814	1,618.41	.065
Other interior work.....	4,562	4,562	757.52	.167
Agricultural work.....	1,084	1,084	180.59	.167
Other public institutions—laundry.....	881	881	1,574.54	\$.289
In the work offices.....	5,542	5,542	659.71	.119
Outside parties.....	104	104	1.75	.167
Bookbinding.....	9,434	9,434	140.47	.015
Picking bed feathers.....	4,825½	4,825½	33.19	.007
Total paid work.....	243,060	7,074	250,134	30,567.43	\$.122

* This is not the correct average according to the items shown, but it is the exact equivalent of the average given in the original official report.

DAYS WORKED BY INMATES OF BERLIN WORKHOUSE, AND AMOUNT PAID FOR WORK. YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907—Concluded.

	Days worked.			Total amount paid for work.	Average pay per person per day.
	Men.	Women.	Total.		
WORK WITHOUT PAY.					
Agricultural work outside the city, November to March 31.....	113,576		113,576		
City asylum.....	1,101		1,101		
Total work without pay.....	114,677		114,677		
HAND WORK FOR THE INSTITUTION.					
Tailoring.....	25,829		25,829	(a)	(a)
Shoemaking.....	10,844		10,844	(a)	(a)
Turners and coopers.....	1,145		1,145	(a)	(a)
Joiners, basket makers, painters, etc.....	5,240		5,240	(a)	(a)
Locksmiths, tinsmiths, and paper hangers.....	1,909		1,909	(a)	(a)
Masons, potters, and bricklayers.....	3,541		3,541	(a)	(a)
Gardeners.....	1,693		1,693	(a)	(a)
Cooks and vegetable preparers.....	15,817		15,817	(a)	(a)
Sewing and repairing.....		14,204	14,204	(a)	(a)
Laundry.....		5,771	5,771	(a)	(a)
Waiters, attendants, and helpers.....	39,297	4,945	44,152	(a)	(a)
Workers in branches.....	26,728		26,728	(a)	(a)
Total hand work.....	131,953	24,920	156,873	\$23,148.18	\$0.148

(a) Not separately reported.

The following statistics are reported as to the inmates in 1907:

NUMBER OF INMATES OF EACH SEX IN BERLIN WORKHOUSE, BY OCCUPATIONS, CLASSES OF CONVICTION, LENGTH OF COMMITMENT, AND AGE, 1907.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Occupations:			
Agricultural and similar (including fishing).....	15		15
Artisans.....	493	11	504
Trade and commerce.....	180	8	188
House service at changeable wages.....	519		519
House service, permanent.....	3	111	114
Public service and professions.....	15		15
Without stated occupation.....	1	9	10
Total.....	1,226	139	1,365
Classes of conviction:			
Vagrancy.....		1	1
Begging.....	575	12	587
Idleness.....	1		1
Immorality.....		101	101
Lack of shelter.....	601	25	626
Souteneurs.....	49		49
Total.....	1,226	139	1,365
Length of commitment:			
Under 6 months.....	268	67	335
6 months to 2 years.....	582	62	644
2 years.....	376	10	386
Total.....	1,226	139	1,365
Age:			
Under 19.....	8	11	19
19 or under 21.....	34	9	43
21 or under 30.....	161	47	208
30 or under 50.....	681	49	730
50 or under 70.....	337	23	360
70 or over.....	5		5
Total.....	1,226	139	1,365

RECENT REPORTS OF STATE BUREAUS OF LABOR STATISTICS.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Thirty-seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor.
 January, 1907. Chas. F. Pidgin, Chief. xxx, 664 pp.

This report (following a general review of the work of the bureau, etc.) is made up of six parts, as follows: Part I, The apprenticeship system, 85 pages; Part II, Trained and supplemental employees for domestic service, 37 pages; Part III, The incorporation of trade unions, 119 pages; Part IV, Statistics of manufactures, 1904, 1905, 83 pages; Part V, Labor laws of Massachusetts, 60 pages; Part VI, Labor and industrial chronology for the year ending September 30, 1906, 256 pages.

THE APPRENTICESHIP SYSTEM.—This subject is introduced by a brief consideration of the apprenticeship system in general. In order to ascertain public opinion concerning the apprenticeship system, the bureau issued circular letters of inquiry to employers representing some of the largest industrial establishments in the State and to trade union officials connected with the most influential labor organizations. Replies were received from 58 employers and 104 officers of trade unions. There were 26 specified lines of industry and 1 miscellaneous group represented in the replies. From consolidating the inquiries and the replies to the same the following statement is obtained:

OPINIONS OF EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES RESPECTING APPRENTICESHIP.

Inquiries.	Replies from employers.			Replies from trade union officials.		
	Yes.	No.	Not stated.	Yes.	No.	Not stated.
Is there a system of apprenticeship in your trade...	31	27	55	44	5
Is it under the immediate control of trade unions...	21	37	46	52	6
Do you consider it a good plan to restrict the number of apprentices.....	5	41	12	71	18	15
Would you employ apprentices to the exclusion of journeymen.....	4	39	15	67	20	17

A table is also given showing for 134 named local and international unions the written and unwritten regulations or restrictions in regard to apprentices, embracing the length of the term of apprenticeship as restricted by the unions, the age limitations, and the limitations as regards the number of apprentices that the employer is permitted to employ.

Specimen apprenticeship agreements used by some of the manufacturing establishments of the State and the provision made for the employment of apprentices in the navy-yards of the country are given, together with the opinions of employers and trade-union officials on restriction of apprentices. Supplementing the subject of apprenticeship, descriptions are given of 11 of the trade schools of the State which give instruction in self-supporting trades.

TRAINED AND SUPPLEMENTAL EMPLOYEES FOR DOMESTIC SERVICE.—In January, 1897, the employment committee of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union resolved to make an attempt to get nearer the source of the difficulties recognized as existing in domestic service in this country. For this purpose they organized the Domestic Reform League. The league in 1901-2 sent out 5,000 question blanks, embodying certain inquiries, to the officers of each of the Federated Clubs of Massachusetts, and to all branches of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae throughout the United States, with a letter asking that the blanks be distributed to the best advantage among such members of the organizations in question as would be most apt to be interested. There were only 260 replies received, which are given in whole or in part in the present report. The report is in two divisions, one relating to trained workers and the other to supplemental workers. One of the most complete sections of the report is that relating to living expenses and wages paid, from which was deduced the total cost per family for families employing 1 servant, 2 servants, and so on up to 8. There were 234 families, employing 425 domestics, represented.

The following statement presents the average weekly per capita cost of each domestic employee to the employer :

AVERAGE WEEKLY PER CAPITA COST OF EMPLOYEES TO EMPLOYERS.

Families with—	Families.	Employees.	Average cost per employee for—		Total average cost per employee.
			Living.	Wages.	
One employee.....	114	114	\$3.54	\$3.80	\$7.34
Two employees.....	77	154	4.06	4.35	8.41
Three employees.....	27	81	3.57	4.67	8.24
Four employees.....	9	36	3.94	5.18	9.12
Five employees.....	5	25	4.40	5.46	9.86
Seven employees.....	1	7	3.50	6.43	9.93
Eight employees.....	1	8	6.00	8.04	14.04
Total.....	234	425	3.87	4.50	8.37

The Domestic Reform League has constantly advised the employment of day workers as a means toward the solution of the perplexing domestic problem. While not in a position to establish a training school for day workers, the league is in position to supply demands for that class of help. The growing demand for day workers is

shown in the numbers supplied by the league during the years 1898 to 1905, and is as follows: 580 in 1898, 700 in 1899, 734 in 1900, 836 in 1901, 931 in 1902, 1,289 in 1903, 1,639 in 1904, and 2,418 in 1905.

The results of the investigation indicate that "one of the most striking facts contributing to the present chaotic conditions in domestic service is apathy. * * * When the interest of women is aroused, either by education or through necessity, the domestic problem will be solved."

THE INCORPORATION OF TRADE UNIONS.—The object of this investigation was to obtain the opinions of employers of labor, officials of trade unions, members of the legal profession, and of public individuals, either as employers of labor or as workingmen, on this question. Letters of inquiry were mailed to 963 persons, to which 301 replies were received—96 from employers of labor, 81 from labor leaders, 71 from public individuals (college professors, editors, etc.), and 53 from members of the legal fraternity.

The following six inquiries were submitted to the persons addressed:

First, would the incorporation of trade unions under general law similar to the general corporation law be inimical to their interests?

Second, would the liability of individual members of incorporated trade unions exceed their actual financial interest in such incorporated organizations?

Third, would it be legal (if possible) to have the strike funds placed in the hands of trustees and thus kept from attachment in case of legal process against the organization?

Fourth, if organized labor and organized capital are to settle their disputes by industrial agreement, is it not anomalous to have one party to the contract with its financial responsibility fixed by law, while the other party to such agreement has no financial limitation?

Fifth, if trade unions are incorporated, should not the manufacturers' and dealers' organizations come under the same law? Could not such a law contain provisions as to the enforcement of industrial agreements that would put such controversies as might arise on a legal basis and thus provide for the settlement of such questions as come up between employers and employees within the provision of an equitable law?

Sixth, can you suggest a just and equitable form of corporation for trade unions which, as regards financial responsibility for broken contracts, will be fair to both labor and capital?

The replies received to the inquiries are given in whole or in part, many of them being too long for full reproduction. Among the general conclusions derived from the various replies the following may be cited:

Employers believe that trade unions should incorporate, because the better class of members would be individually active in the management of the union for the purpose of conservative action leading

to continually increased strength in their standing before the community.

Labor leaders, on the other hand, believe that trade unions should not be incorporated, because the individual member would be held responsible for the actions of the organizations, also because the organizations would be held responsible for the action of the individual member, or, in other words, the responsible members would be liable on account of the irresponsible ones. They are further opposed to incorporation for the reasons, as they advance, that their funds would be liable to attachment.

The public view is that incorporation is desirable both from the standpoint of the public and the unions, for, while it might limit to a certain degree the freedom of action of the unions in ways which do not now exist, and at times the unions might be embarrassed by legal proceedings directed against them, these disadvantages would be more than offset by the greater willingness of their employers to deal with the unions when they feel that the unions are legally responsible bodies.

The legal profession, which is perhaps in a better position to judge impartially of the matter than any other, for the reason that it may have as clients both employers and employees, is of the opinion that it would not be inimical to the interests of trade unions to be incorporated. The legal profession declares the difficulty with trade unions at present to be their irresponsible character. * * * Incorporation would mean responsibility, and actions by responsible unions would be accepted as a pledge of good faith by responsible employers.

In addition, the report presents a brief history of the origin, development, and present status of trade unions in England and in America, the corporation laws of the United States, seven States of the Union, and five foreign countries, the Taff-Vale decision, and a bibliography of works relating to the origin, development, and present status of trade unions.

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES, 1904, 1905.—This is the twentieth of a series of annual reports on manufacturing statistics. The statistics presented are compiled from the returns of 5,019 establishments, each of which made a report for the two years under consideration. Comparative tables are given showing, for the years 1904 and 1905, the number of establishments controlled by private firms, by corporations, and by industrial combinations, together with the number of partners and stockholders interested therein; the capital invested (for 1904) and the capital devoted to production (for 1905); the cost value of stock and materials used and the selling value of the goods made; the smallest, greatest, and average number of persons employed, and aggregate employees, by months; the total wages paid during each year, average yearly earnings per employee, and classified weekly wages in selected industries, by sex and age; the days in operation during each year, and the proportion of business done. Seventy-nine classified industries are represented.

The principal facts as to ownership are shown in the following table:

FIRMS, CORPORATIONS, AND INDUSTRIAL COMBINATIONS, AND PARTNERS AND STOCKHOLDERS IN 5,019 IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS, 1904 AND 1905.

Year.	Firms.	Corporations.	Industrial combinations.	Partners.	Stockholders.	Average partners to a firm.	Average stockholders to a corporation.
1904.....	3,178	1,662	22	4,954	56,070	1.56	33.74
1905.....	3,977	1,763	22	4,742	57,864	1.54	32.82

From the above table it will be seen that the tendency continues to be toward an increase of number of establishments controlled by corporations and a decrease of establishments under private control.

The following table presents statistics separately for 9 principal industries, in aggregate for 70 other industries, and totals for the 79 industries reported on for the years 1904 and 1905:

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES, 1904 AND 1905.

Industry.	Number of establishments.	Value of stock used.		Increase (+) or decrease (-).	
		1904.	1905.	Amount.	Per cent.
Boots and shoes.....	642	\$100,959,088	\$116,826,010	+\$15,866,922	+15.72
Carpetings.....	13	7,353,357	7,566,620	+ 213,263	+ 2.90
Cotton goods.....	163	81,577,677	83,097,480	+ 1,519,803	+ 1.86
Leather.....	108	18,941,462	25,709,951	+ 6,759,489	+35.69
Machines and machinery.....	374	18,776,470	21,544,367	+ 2,767,897	+14.74
Metals and metallic goods.....	437	22,478,669	28,483,332	+ 6,004,663	+26.71
Paper.....	81	17,177,040	19,356,489	+ 2,179,449	+12.69
Woolen goods.....	151	32,143,366	34,757,512	+ 2,614,146	+ 8.13
Worsted goods.....	41	29,987,350	37,608,537	+ 7,621,187	+25.41
Other industries (70).....	3,009	240,025,314	257,531,453	+ 17,506,139	+ 7.29
Total.....	5,019	569,419,793	632,472,751	+ 63,052,958	+11.07

Industry.	Value of goods made.			Total wages paid.		
	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Boots and shoes.....	\$160,131,735	\$178,492,136	+11.47	\$82,725,760	\$37,105,890	+13.38
Carpetings.....	10,848,565	11,781,767	+ 8.60	2,298,953	2,415,953	+ 5.09
Cotton goods.....	131,215,110	142,985,223	+ 8.93	31,790,769	34,491,894	+ 8.50
Leather.....	26,860,544	36,033,425	+34.15	3,704,301	3,941,692	+ 6.41
Machines and machinery.....	48,267,340	54,419,727	+12.75	15,433,993	17,701,510	+14.69
Metals and metallic goods.....	46,787,895	55,583,537	+18.80	12,316,718	13,985,673	+13.55
Paper.....	30,955,165	33,178,323	+ 7.18	5,376,093	5,573,075	+ 3.66
Woolen goods.....	53,767,126	60,048,155	+11.68	10,800,738	11,134,282	+ 3.09
Worsted goods.....	45,568,069	58,455,252	+28.23	7,199,557	8,348,876	+15.96
Other industries (70).....	439,511,900	467,824,350	+ 6.44	78,727,112	83,235,499	+ 5.73
Total.....	993,913,449	1,098,751,900	+10.55	200,373,994	217,934,344	+ 8.76

In the above table the 9 specified industries, the aggregate for 70 other industries, and the total for the 79 industries all show an increase in value of materials and products and in wages paid in 1905

over 1904. The greatest increase in wages paid in the 9 specified industries appear in worsted goods, machines, and machinery, metals and metallic goods, and boots and shoes. The greatest increase in value of stock used and in goods made was in the leather industry.

In 1904 the capital invested in the 79 industries amounted to \$801,271,340, and in 1905 the capital devoted to production in the 79 industries amounted to \$603,229,765.

Data relative to employees, earnings, and days in operation are presented in the table following, the establishments considered being the same as in the table preceding:

AVERAGE NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, AVERAGE YEARLY EARNINGS, AND AVERAGE DAYS IN OPERATION IN 9 PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES, IN 70 OTHER INDUSTRIES, AND IN ALL INDUSTRIES, 1904 AND 1905.

Industry.	Average number of employees.			Average yearly earnings.			Average days in operation.		
	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Boots and shoes.....	63,686	69,900	+ 9.76	\$513.86	\$530.84	+3.30	296.12	293.46	- 0.90
Carpetings.....	5,429	5,624	+ 3.59	423.46	429.58	+1.45	290.54	300.91	+3.57
Cotton goods.....	86,636	95,372	+10.08	366.95	361.66	-1.44	280.49	295.96	+5.52
Leather.....	7,488	7,956	+ 6.25	494.70	495.44	+ .15	300.27	299.41	- .29
Machines and machinery.....	27,092	30,933	+14.18	569.69	572.25	+ .45	300.45	296.58	-1.29
Metals and metallic goods.....	22,238	24,986	+12.36	553.86	559.74	+1.06	304.09	296.17	-2.60
Paper.....	11,529	11,780	+ 2.18	466.31	473.10	+1.46	294.01	290.44	-1.21
Woolen goods.....	25,614	25,734	+ .47	421.67	432.67	+2.61	297.36	296.01	- .45
Worsted goods.....	18,044	20,478	+13.49	399.00	407.70	+2.18	302.55	303.47	+ .30
Other industries (70).....	162,393	170,343	+ 4.90	484.79	488.63	+ .79	295.30	293.06	- .76
Total.....	430,149	463,106	+ 7.66	465.82	470.59	+1.02	293.64	294.88	+ .42

All of the principal industries show an increase in the average number of employees, and all but one an increase in average yearly earnings in 1905, as compared with 1904, while but three of the industries show an increase in average days in operation. In all industries an increase is shown in the three items of average employees, average yearly earnings, and average days in operation.

For the total 79 industries the proportion of business done of full or maximum production was 69.14 per cent in 1904 and 70.92 per cent in 1905; the proportion of actual running time of possible working time was 95.96 per cent in 1904 and 96.68 per cent in 1905.

The table following shows the number of employees (wage-earners) earning the indicated weekly wages. The number of employees given is the number reported in each industry for the week in which the largest number was employed, and does not, therefore, agree with the number shown in the table preceding.

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NUMBER OF MALE AND FEMALE ADULTS AND OF YOUNG PERSONS IN 79 INDUSTRIES, BY CLASSIFIED WEEKLY WAGES, 1904 AND 1905.

Classified weekly wages.	1904.				1905.			
	Persons 16 years of age or over.		Young persons (under 16).	Total.	Persons 21 years of age or over.		Young persons (under 21).	Total.
	Males.	Females.			Males.	Females.		
Under \$5.....	15,745	28,870	12,396	57,011	8,120	15,612	25,538	49,270
\$5 or under \$6.....	14,327	24,867	2,432	41,626	8,672	17,051	16,504	42,227
\$6 or under \$7.....	22,600	29,822	969	53,481	17,347	24,355	13,242	54,944
\$7 or under \$8.....	28,930	23,130	294	52,354	27,482	21,931	7,026	56,439
\$8 or under \$9.....	30,079	18,079	129	48,287	28,149	17,906	3,511	49,566
\$9 or under \$10.....	39,209	13,706	41	52,956	40,252	13,949	2,428	50,629
\$10 or under \$12.....	50,404	10,899	21	61,324	50,598	12,000	1,247	64,145
\$12 or under \$15.....	56,936	4,893	8	61,837	60,165	5,630	464	66,259
\$15 or under \$20.....	47,862	1,404	2	49,268	54,572	2,179	128	56,879
\$20 or over.....	15,871	149	16,020	19,224	244	7	19,475
Total.....	322,053	155,819	16,292	494,164	314,881	130,857	70,095	515,833

The figures in the above table are not comparable, except as to the totals in the last column under each year, due to the fact that a broader classification for young persons was used in 1905 from that used in 1904. Comparing the totals for each class it is seen that there was a material falling off in 1905 in the number earning under \$5 per week as compared with 1904, while the number in each of the other wage classes showed an increase in 1905 as compared with 1904.

In order to show the actual result of the productive forces of industry, the element of cost of material must be deducted from the total value of product, and the remainder will show only the industry product, or the new values created. This has been done in the case of the nine leading industries, also the division of industry product between the wage fund and the fund devoted to profit and minor expenses, as insurance, interest, rent, freight, commissions, salaries, etc. The results for the years 1904 and 1905 appear in the table following:

INDUSTRY PRODUCT, WAGES, AND PROFIT AND MINOR EXPENSES IN NINE SELECTED INDUSTRIES, 1904 AND 1905.

1904.

Industry.	Industry product.	Wages.	Profit and minor expenses.	Per cent of industry product.	
				Paid in wages.	Devoted to profit and minor expenses.
Boots and shoes.....	\$59,172,647	\$32,725,760	\$26,446,887	55.31	44.69
Carpetings.....	3,495,208	2,298,953	1,196,255	65.77	34.23
Cotton goods.....	49,637,433	31,790,769	17,846,664	64.05	35.95
Leather.....	7,919,082	3,704,301	4,214,781	46.78	53.22
Machines and machinery.....	29,490,870	15,433,993	14,056,877	52.33	47.67
Metals and metallic goods.....	24,309,226	12,316,718	11,992,508	50.67	49.33
Paper.....	13,778,125	5,376,093	8,402,032	39.02	60.98
Woolen goods.....	21,623,760	10,900,738	10,823,022	49.95	50.05
Worsted goods.....	15,530,719	7,199,557	8,381,162	46.21	53.79

INDUSTRY PRODUCT, WAGES, AND PROFIT AND MINOR EXPENSES IN NINE SELECTED INDUSTRIES, 1904 AND 1905—Concluded.

1905.

Industry.	Industry product.	Wages.	Profit and minor expenses.	Per cent of industry product.	
				Paid in wages.	Devoted to profit and minor expenses.
Boots and shoes.....	\$61,666,126	\$37,105,800	\$24,560,236	60.17	39.83
Carpetings.....	4,215,147	2,415,953	1,700,194	57.32	42.68
Cotton goods.....	59,837,743	34,401,894	25,345,849	57.64	42.36
Leather.....	19,332,474	3,941,692	6,390,782	38.15	61.85
Machines and machinery.....	32,875,360	17,701,510	15,173,850	53.84	46.16
Metals and metallic goods.....	27,109,205	13,985,673	13,114,532	51.61	48.39
Paper.....	13,521,539	5,573,075	8,248,764	40.32	59.68
Woolen goods.....	25,290,643	11,134,282	14,156,361	44.03	55.97
Worsted goods.....	20,846,715	8,348,876	12,497,839	40.05	59.95

In five of the nine industries, in 1904, more than one-half of the industry product was paid out in wages, the largest showing being in carpetings, with 65.77 per cent, followed by cotton goods, with 64.05 per cent, and boots and shoes, with 55.31 per cent. The industry devoting the lowest proportion of the industry product to labor was paper, with 39.02 per cent. In 1905, likewise, five industries paid out more than one-half of the industry product in wages. The boot and shoe industry paid the highest proportion, 60.17 per cent, and the leather industry the lowest, 38.15 per cent.

LABOR LAWS OF MASSACHUSETTS.—This part of the report contains all the statutes in the revised laws of the State relative to labor, together with all laws passed since 1902, with indications of amended laws and an extended index with copious cross references.

LABOR AND INDUSTRIAL CHRONOLOGY.—This chronology presents for each of the cities and towns of the State, for the year ending September 30, 1906, data relative to strikes and lockouts, wages and hours of labor, trade unions, industrial changes, and welfare work.

Under the section relating to strikes and lockouts have been recorded all labor disputes engaged in during the year which seemed to be of sufficient importance to consider. Slight disputations caused on account of employment of nonunion workmen, or other trade-union principles, where only a few were directly involved and their leaving work did not affect others or cause any cessation of work, have been included under the section devoted to trade unions.

In wages and hours of labor the changes showed a still further tendency for a shorter workday, the nine-hour day being substituted for the ten-hour without change in wages, and the eight-hour day for the nine-hour schedule. The weekly half holiday during the summer months has become almost general in the various industries and trades. The early-closing movement, so long urged by organized

labor, met with more generous response from employers than formerly. During the year marked increases in wages took place, the most pronounced of which were in the wages paid to employees engaged in transportation and in the textile industries.

Under the section relating to trade unions is given information indicative of the current movements of organized labor during the year. The new unions formed, new affiliations, disbanding of old unions, presentation of new trade agreements, and resolutions passed on certain subjects, commendatory or otherwise, as the case may be, form part of this compilation.

Of industrial changes during the year, 200 new establishments were incorporated, with an authorized capital stock of \$13,611,600; 161 private firms were changed to corporations, with an authorized capital stock of \$9,214,200, and there were 56 reorganizations, with an authorized capital stock of \$19,931,100, making a total of 417 manufacturing establishments incorporated, with an authorized capital stock of \$42,756,900. Considering the incorporations by industries, machines and machinery lead with 50, followed by metals and metallic goods with 41, boots and shoes with 30, and clothing with 20, the remaining 276 incorporations being distributed among some 60 industrial groups.

The section devoted to welfare work recounts the actions taken by employers to benefit the condition of their employees, or measures taken by trade unions or employees themselves for the betterment of the social and industrial condition of the workingmen. Some of the subjects embraced in the welfare work relate to improving the sanitary, working, and other conditions in mills, factories, and shops, to various forms of recreation, to educational classes, to housing, and to provident funds.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Twentieth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor and Printing of the State of North Carolina for the year 1906. H. B. Varner, Commissioner. 350 pp.

This report consists of seven chapters, as follows: Condition of farmers, 98 pages; condition of the trades, 29 pages; miscellaneous factories, 72 pages; cotton, woolen, and knitting mills, 59 pages; furniture factories, 18 pages; newspapers of the State, 47 pages; railroad employees, 9 pages.

CONDITION OF FARMERS.—The report on this subject is compiled from returns made by representative farmers residing in different sections of the State. The data is presented, by counties, in five tables, which show condition of land and labor, wages and cost of living, cost of production of principal crops, market price of crops, and profit

on production. In all (97) counties labor was reported scarce; 96 counties reported that negro labor was unreliable and 1 that there was no negro labor; 66 counties reported that employment was regular and 31 that it was irregular; 57 counties favored immigration, 37 opposed it, and 3 did not report; cost of living was reported as having increased in 95 counties and in 2 as not having increased. The highest and lowest monthly wages paid farm laborers in each county were reported, and for men the average of the highest wages so reported was \$21.71, and of the lowest \$13.09; for women, like averages were \$13.18 and \$8.65, and the average wages of children were \$8.01. For all classes of farm labor an increase of wages was reported.

CONDITION OF THE TRADES.—The data from which the tables presented under this title were compiled were secured from representative men engaged in the various trades considered. These reports from the wage-earners of the State show daily wages and wage changes, working conditions and cost of living, hours of labor, conditions of apprenticeship, etc. Of the wage-earners making returns, 62 per cent reported an increase of wages, 3 per cent a decrease, and 35 per cent no change; 61 per cent made full time and 39 per cent part time; 84 per cent reported cost of living increased, 1 per cent decreased, and 15 per cent no change; 31 per cent favored an 8-hour day, 13 per cent a 9-hour day, 55 per cent a 10-hour day, and 1 per cent a 12-hour day; 88 per cent favored fixing a day's work by law and 12 per cent opposed it; 20 per cent favored immigration and 80 per cent opposed it. The average wages paid per day in the different trades were: Blacksmiths \$2.09, boilermakers \$3, brass and iron molders \$2.75, brickmasons \$3.50, carpenters \$1.85, electricians \$3.50, harness makers \$1.23, lumbermen \$2.50, machinists \$2.44, miners \$1.75, painters \$2.33, plasterers \$4.05, printers \$2.02, stonecutters \$3.50, textile workers \$1.40, and wheelwrights \$1.75.

MISCELLANEOUS FACTORIES.—Under this classification the number of factories reporting was 541, of which 467 reported an invested capital amounting to \$31,239,510; 436 reported the number of employees as 22,438, and 530 the number of persons dependent on them for a livelihood as 75,243. An 8-hour day was reported by 4 factories, a 9-hour day by 6, a 9½-hour day by 3, a 10-hour day by 389, a 10½-hour day by 4, an 11-hour day by 48, a 12-hour day by 70, while the remaining factories did not report as to the workday. An increase of wages was reported by 74 per cent of the factories, no change by 17 per cent, while 9 per cent made no report. Of the adult employees 82 per cent were able to read and write and of the children 84 per cent. The highest daily wages paid was \$2.29 and the lowest \$0.84. In 64 per cent of the factories wages were paid weekly, in 17 per cent semimonthly, in 11 per cent monthly, in 1 per cent daily, while the remaining 7 per cent made no report. The

tables presented show for each establishment the product manufactured, capital stock, horsepower, days in operation, hours of labor, number of employees and number of persons dependent on factory, highest and lowest wages, etc.

COTTON, WOOLEN, AND KNITTING MILLS.—The number of mills covered by this presentation is 318, with an aggregate invested capital of \$41,278,160. The number of spindles in operation was 2,558,114, of looms 52,747, of knitting machines 5,237, together requiring 115,671 horsepower.

The number of employees reported by 96 per cent of 268 mills (265 cotton and woolen and 3 silk) was 22,878 adult males, 18,558 adult females, and 7,188 children, a total of 48,624. The number of persons dependent upon 82 per cent of these mills was 112,427. Of the adult employees 87 per cent, and of the children 79 per cent, were able to read and write. The average hours constituting a day's work were 10 $\frac{1}{2}$. The average of the highest daily wages (based on the highest wages paid to any employee by each establishment) was \$2.42, lowest \$0.77, for men; for women the average highest wages were \$1.18, lowest \$0.64, and for children the average wages were about \$0.54. An increase of wages was reported by 81 per cent of the establishments, 8 per cent reported no change, and 11 per cent made no report.

The number of employees reported by the 50 knitting mills was 1,196 adult males, 2,275 adult females, and 826 children, a total of 4,297. The number of persons dependent upon 74 per cent of these mills was 5,986. Of the adult employees 96 per cent, and of the children 95 per cent, were able to read and write. The average hours constituting a day's work was 10 $\frac{1}{2}$. For men the average of the highest daily wages was \$1.90, the lowest \$0.70; for women the average of the highest daily wages was \$1.29, the lowest \$0.50, while for children the average daily wages were \$0.53. An increase of wages was reported by 65 per cent of the establishments, 16 per cent reported no change, and 19 per cent made no report.

Relative to the employment of children under 12 years of age in the factories, 84 per cent of the cotton and woolen mill employers were opposed to it, while 3 per cent favored it and 13 per cent expressed no opinion; 84 per cent of the knitting mill employers were opposed to it, while 5 per cent favored it and 11 per cent expressed no opinion.

FURNITURE FACTORIES.—There were 105 furniture factories which reported capital stock, power, class of goods manufactured, wages, hours of labor, days in operation, number of employees, persons dependent on factory, etc. The 105 factories had an aggregate capital of \$2,998,201, used 10,040 horsepower, and employed 6,194 wage-earners. The average of the highest daily wages paid adults was \$2.27; the lowest, \$0.85; the average daily wages paid children was

\$0.51. Of the adult employees 87 per cent and of the children 83 per cent were able to read and write. An increase of wages was reported by 86 per cent of the factories, 9 per cent reported no change, and 5 per cent made no report. Relative to the employment of children under 14 years of age, 68 per cent of the employers were opposed to it, while 18 per cent favored it and 14 per cent expressed no opinion.

RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.—In this chapter statistics are presented showing, by occupations, for each railroad reporting, the number of employees and average wages paid. The following table shows the number and average daily wages of persons employed on the steam railroads of the State:

NUMBER AND AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES, BY OCCUPATIONS, 1906.

Occupation.	Number of employees.	Average daily wages.	Occupation.	Number of employees.	Average daily wages.
Station agents.....	691	\$1.22	Other shopmen.....	1,840	\$1.44
Other station men.....	1,674	1.04	Section foremen.....	545	1.58
Engineers.....	709	2.20	Other trackmen.....	3,739	1.02
Firemen.....	833	1.53	Switchmen, flagmen, and watchmen.....	442	1.11
Conductors.....	536	3.01	Telegraph operators.....	463	1.63
Other train men.....	1,486	1.34	Other employees.....	1,688	1.60
Machinists.....	567	2.55			
Carpenters.....	766	1.87			

Resulting from the movement of trains, there were during the year 156 accidents to passengers, 1 fatal and 155 nonfatal; 29 to postal clerks, express messengers, and Pullman employees, 1 fatal and 28 nonfatal; 711 to employees, 42 fatal and 669 nonfatal, and 261 to other persons, 82 fatal and 179 nonfatal, making a total of 126 fatal and 1,031 nonfatal accidents. From causes other than the movement of trains there were 666 accidents to persons, 1 fatal and 665 nonfatal.

A presentation is also made concerning the operation of each of nine street railways, giving mileage, capital stock, funded debt, gross earnings, operating expenses, income from operation and from other sources, number of passengers carried, and passengers carried per mile of track.

RECENT FOREIGN STATISTICAL PUBLICATIONS.

AUSTRIA.

Die Arbeitseinstellungen und Aussperrungen in Österreich während des Jahres 1906. Herausgegeben vom k. k. Arbeitsstatistischen Amte im Handelsministerium. 713 pp.

This volume contains the thirteenth annual report of the Austrian Government on strikes and lockouts. The information, which is compiled by the Austrian bureau of labor statistics, is given in the form of an analysis and six tables showing: (1) Strikes according to geographical distribution; (2) strikes according to industries; (3) general summary of strikes; (4) comparative summary of strikes for the ten-year period 1897-1906; (5) details for each strike in 1906; (6) details for each lockout in 1906. An appendix gives a brief review of industrial and labor conditions in Austria, statistics of trade unions, and notes concerning the strikes and lockouts reported in the preceding pages of the report.

STRIKES IN 1906.—The number of strikes, the number of establishments affected, and the number of strikers in 1906 showed a marked increase over the preceding year. There were 2,191,815 days lost by the persons directly affected in 1906 on account of strikes, or 90.4 per cent more than in the year 1905. During the year there were 1,083 strikes, which affected 6,049 establishments. Of a total of 276,424 employees in the establishments affected, 153,688 participated in the strikes and 13,098 others were thrown out of employment on account of them, the strikers representing 55.6 per cent of the total number of employees in the establishments affected. The average number of strikers in each strike was 142. After the strikes, 140,414 strikers were reemployed and 6,924 new employees took the places formerly occupied by strikers.

The following table shows, by industries, the number of strikes, establishments affected, strikers and other employees thrown out of work, etc., during the year 1906:

STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES, 1906.

Industry.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments af-fected.	Total em-ploy-ees.	Strikers.		Other em-ployees thrown out of work.	Strik-ers re-em-ployed.	New em-ployees after strikes.
				Num-ber.	Per cent of total em-ploy-ees.			
Mining and metallurgical.....	68	135	72,963	38,705	53.0	596	36,960	484
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.....	108	158	16,760	10,776	64.3	1,078	10,017	397
Metal working.....	80	282	25,840	16,373	63.4	568	15,392	400
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.....	56	57	15,715	5,641	35.9	302	5,004	408
Woodworking, caoutchouc, carved materials, etc.....	118	563	7,360	5,598	76.1	188	4,621	462
Leather, hides, hair, feathers, etc.....	35	77	2,654	2,244	84.6	87	2,058	114
Textiles.....	130	294	62,423	28,970	46.4	4,366	27,134	642
Upholstering and paper hanging.....	5	302	1,500	893	59.5	15	860	34
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....	105	2,376	19,445	13,018	66.9	1,150	11,467	780
Paper.....	18	51	2,845	1,522	53.5	571	1,345	120
Foods and drinks (including tobacco).....	82	683	14,432	6,924	48.0	974	5,439	1,083
Chemical products.....	15	15	1,998	1,529	76.5	35	1,456	92
Building trades.....	184	799	23,934	15,416	64.4	3,117	13,278	1,210
Printing.....	24	56	1,432	1,007	70.3	38	921	73
Heat, light, and power plants.....	1	1	383	6	1.6	6
Commerce.....	19	25	1,232	1,108	89.9	7	1,028	65
Transportation.....	24	152	4,837	3,341	69.1	6	3,000	380
Other.....	11	23	671	617	92.0	428	180
Total.....	1,083	6,049	276,424	153,688	55.6	13,098	140,414	6,924

The building trades had the largest number of strikes, 184, in 1906, while the largest number of strikers, 38,705, was in the mining and metallurgical group of industries. Next in importance with regard to the number of strikers involved was the textile industry, with 28,970 persons. Of all the strikers during the year, 44 per cent were engaged in these two groups of industries.

The following table shows the causes of the strikes for 1906, by industries:

STRIKES, BY INDUSTRIES AND CAUSES, 1906.

[Strikes due to two or more causes have been tabulated under each cause; hence the industry totals for this table, if computed, would not agree with those for the preceding table.]

Industry.	Against reduction of wages.	For increase of wages.	For change in method of payment.	For reduction of hours.	For discharge of foremen, workmen, etc.	Against obnoxious treatment.	Against discharge of employees.	Against obnoxious rules.	Other causes.
Mining and metallurgical.	2	50	1	2	8	1	5
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.	3	72	2	15	5	15	7	6
Metal working.	1	52	28	7	21	2
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.	31	20	4	11	5	4
Woodworking, caoutchouc, carved materials, etc.	73	48	8	1	19	5	2
Leather, hides, hair, feathers, etc.	18	14	3	9	1
Textiles.	1	82	34	7	28	2	10
Upholstering and paper-hanging.	5	4
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.	74	33	5	1	14	4	6
Paper.	14	6	1	1	2	2
Foods and drinks (including tobacco).	47	18	9	18	2	6
Chemical products.	10	3	1	4
Building trades.	4	116	1	56	17	1	32	2	9
Printing.	11	6	3	5	1	2
Heat, light, and power plants.	1
Commerce.	14	4	4	1
Transportation.	2	15	7	1	2	4
Other.	9	2	1	1
Total.	13	694	4	298	73	4	193	31	59

As in previous years, the most frequent causes of strikes were the demands for increased wages and for reduction of hours. The demand for increased wages alone or in conjunction with other demands figured in 694 strikes, and that for reduction of hours in 298 strikes.

The following table shows the number of strikes and of strikers in each group of industries in 1906, by results:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND RESULTS, 1906.

Industry.	Strikes.				Strikers.			
	Succeeded.	Succeeded partly.	Failed.	Total.	Succeeded.	Succeeded partly.	Failed.	Total.
Mining and metallurgical.	7	27	34	68	2,043	23,753	12,909	38,705
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.	22	55	31	108	2,603	5,622	2,551	10,776
Metal working.	20	35	25	80	1,956	13,226	1,191	16,373
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.	11	28	17	56	453	3,604	1,584	5,641
Woodworking, caoutchouc, carved materials, etc.	29	66	23	118	714	4,210	674	5,598
Leather, hides, hair, leathers, etc.	10	18	7	35	521	1,579	144	2,244
Textiles.	16	71	43	130	2,143	21,089	5,738	28,970
Upholstering and paper hanging.	1	4	5	809	84	893
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.	24	58	23	105	995	11,386	637	13,018
Paper.	5	7	6	18	277	714	531	1,522
Foods and drinks (including tobacco).	18	35	29	82	1,855	3,765	1,304	6,924
Chemical products.	4	7	4	15	461	859	209	1,529
Building trades.	48	73	63	184	2,214	9,384	3,818	15,416
Printing.	10	3	11	24	106	64	837	1,007
Heat, light, and power plants.	1	1	6	6
Commerce.	2	9	8	19	131	677	300	1,108
Transportation.	8	13	3	24	949	1,702	690	3,341
Other.	5	4	2	11	141	388	88	617
Total.	241	513	329	1,083	18,377	102,106	33,205	153,688

Of the total number of strikes in 1906, 22.2 per cent succeeded, 47.4 per cent succeeded partly, and 30.4 per cent failed. Of the total number of strikers, 12 per cent were engaged in strikes which succeeded, 66.4 per cent in strikes which succeeded partly, and 21.6 per cent in strikes which failed.

The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers in 1906, according to duration and results:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY DURATION AND RESULTS, 1906.

Days of duration.	Strikes.				Strikers.			
	Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.	Total.	Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.	Total.
1 to 5.....	144	168	161	473	11,588	30,739	14,938	57,256
6 to 10.....	39	109	53	201	1,826	11,403	2,801	16,030
11 to 15.....	19	54	28	101	1,741	16,390	3,458	21,589
16 to 20.....	16	41	13	70	878	3,400	4,810	9,068
21 to 25.....	4	21	18	43	39	3,912	1,624	5,575
26 to 30.....	4	21	9	34	117	14,606	678	15,403
31 to 40.....	9	26	12	47	2,082	5,457	996	8,535
41 to 50.....	3	26	12	41	54	4,499	943	5,496
51 to 100.....	2	33	21	56	30	5,755	2,466	8,251
101 or over.....	1	14	2	17	22	5,962	491	6,477
Total.....	241	513	329	1,083	18,377	102,106	33,205	153,688

STRIKES DURING THIRTEEN YEARS.—The summaries for the years 1894 to 1906 were compiled partly from the report for 1906 and partly from previous reports. The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers, establishments affected, and working days lost in Austria for the period during which the Ministry of Commerce has published reports on strikes:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY YEARS, 1894 TO 1906.

Year.	Strikes.	Estab- lish- ments af- fected.	Strikers.	Per cent of strik- ers of to- tal em- ployees.	Working days lost.
1894.....	172	2,542	67,061	69.5	705,416
1895.....	209	874	28,652	59.9	300,348
1896.....	305	1,499	66,234	65.7	899,939
1897.....	246	851	38,407	59.0	368,008
1898.....	255	885	39,658	59.9	323,619
1899.....	311	1,330	54,763	60.2	1,029,937
1900.....	303	1,903	105,128	67.3	3,483,963
1901.....	270	719	24,870	38.5	157,744
1902.....	264	1,184	37,471	44.0	284,046
1903.....	324	1,731	46,215	50.5	500,567
1904.....	414	2,704	64,227	64.3	606,629
1905.....	686	3,303	99,591	63.6	1,151,310
1906.....	1,083	6,049	153,688	55.6	2,191,815

The number of strikes and the number of strikers for each year of the thirteen-year period are shown, by industries, in the following table:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1894 TO 1906.

STRIKES.

Year.	Mining and metallurgical.	Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.	Metal working.	Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.	Woodworking, caoutchouc, carved materials, etc.	Textiles.	Building trades.	Other.	Total.
1894.....	13	22	23	7	23	34	11	39	172
1895.....	4	29	37	6	38	29	24	42	209
1896.....	11	29	33	14	55	43	42	78	305
1897.....	25	27	26	20	28	28	34	58	246
1898.....	29	27	26	13	28	28	49	55	255
1899.....	26	21	32	24	35	84	33	56	311
1900.....	40	19	26	13	34	56	23	92	303
1901.....	40	29	22	15	27	28	24	85	270
1902.....	63	24	18	15	20	34	22	68	264
1903.....	40	18	34	13	48	44	37	90	324
1904.....	36	38	44	27	41	37	80	111	414
1905.....	43	76	65	45	53	54	188	162	686
1906.....	68	108	80	56	118	130	184	339	1,083
Total....	438	467	466	268	548	629	751	1,275	4,842

STRIKERS.

1894.....	22,986	6,415	2,752	194	9,793	6,317	14,975	3,629	67,061
1895.....	626	9,943	3,694	253	2,336	4,085	5,361	2,354	28,652
1896.....	30,120	3,217	2,973	2,058	5,972	9,791	5,434	6,669	66,234
1897.....	3,632	3,053	1,568	4,689	1,382	11,275	4,995	7,873	38,467
1898.....	7,046	4,491	991	2,471	1,318	3,171	13,961	6,209	39,658
1899.....	3,477	2,112	2,459	1,356	3,198	30,249	7,842	4,070	54,763
1900.....	78,791	574	1,977	519	1,391	12,010	4,849	5,017	105,128
1901.....	7,496	1,698	1,393	889	2,925	2,675	3,214	4,580	24,870
1902.....	13,573	1,819	741	1,013	1,312	2,599	10,476	5,938	37,471
1903.....	12,341	2,740	2,936	705	2,846	5,220	9,645	9,782	46,215
1904.....	19,614	4,788	4,211	1,400	1,756	3,483	15,947	13,028	64,227
1905.....	10,100	9,832	7,406	4,660	2,736	5,866	35,024	23,967	99,591
1906.....	38,705	10,776	16,373	5,641	5,598	28,970	15,416	32,209	153,688
Total ...	248,507	61,458	49,474	25,848	42,563	125,711	147,139	125,325	826,025

The causes of strikes for each year of the period are shown in the following table, the cause and not the strike being made the unit:

STRIKES, BY CAUSES AND YEARS, 1894 TO 1906.

[Strikes due to two or more causes have been tabulated under each cause; hence the yearly totals for this table, if computed, would not agree with those for the preceding tables.]

Year.	Against reduction of wages.	For increase of wages.	For change in method of payment.	For reduction of hours.	For discharge of foremen, workmen, etc.	Against obnoxious treatment.	Against discharge of employees.	Against obnoxious rules.	Other causes.
1894.....	23	53	5	19	12	5	35	16	31
1895.....	19	89	6	31	22	2	31	8	37
1896.....	28	140	8	67	32	5	40	12	34
1897.....	26	116	7	47	26	13	32	18	45
1898.....	33	124	8	54	29	9	36	20	39
1899.....	29	143	5	73	17	5	40	18	40
1900.....	26	152	6	69	13	10	36	14	53
1901.....	28	116	7	46	28	4	36	15	33
1902.....	28	127	7	52	9	2	37	25	36
1903.....	30	151	6	61	36	2	51	15	33
1904.....	22	213	5	91	20	6	70	30	43
1905.....	24	402	3	151	46	3	130	16	52
1906.....	13	694	4	298	73	4	193	31	59
Total ...	329	2,520	77	1,059	363	70	767	238	535

The following table shows, for both strikes and strikers, during each year of the period, the results expressed in percentages:

PER CENT OF STRIKES AND OF STRIKERS, BY RESULTS, FOR EACH YEAR, 1894 TO 1906.

Year.	Strikes.				Strikers.			
	Number.	Per cent succeeded.	Per cent succeeded partly.	Per cent failed.	Number.	Per cent succeeded.	Per cent succeeded partly.	Per cent failed.
1894.....	172	25.0	27.9	47.1	67,061	9.2	37.3	53.5
1895.....	209	26.8	24.9	48.3	28,652	12.8	60.7	26.5
1896.....	305	21.0	36.4	42.6	66,234	4.6	62.8	32.6
1897.....	246	17.5	37.0	45.5	38,467	15.7	47.8	36.5
1898.....	255	18.8	41.2	40.0	39,658	8.4	66.4	25.2
1899.....	311	15.4	45.0	39.6	54,763	10.2	72.0	17.8
1900.....	303	20.1	44.9	35.0	105,128	4.7	85.5	9.8
1901.....	270	20.7	36.3	43.0	24,870	20.1	47.8	32.1
1902.....	264	19.7	39.0	41.3	37,471	13.9	52.6	33.5
1903.....	324	17.3	43.5	39.2	46,215	10.0	68.0	22.0
1904.....	414	24.4	44.4	31.2	64,227	18.6	41.4	40.0
1905.....	686	21.9	51.2	26.9	99,591	14.0	71.6	14.4
1906.....	1,083	22.2	47.4	30.4	153,688	12.0	66.4	21.6

LOCKOUTS.—There were 50 lockouts reported in 1906. One was due to the refusal of employees to work overtime; 1 to the arbitrary reduction of hours by employees; 1 to the refusal of employees to comply with the rules of the establishment; 2 to cessation of work by employees without the consent of employers; 2 boycotts by employees against other establishments; 2 against unionism; 2 to anticipate threatened strikes; 2 on account of lockouts existing in other establishments; 8 to the demands of employees for increase of wages; 13 to prevent the spreading of existing strikes; and 16 were due to employees taking a holiday without obtaining permission of the employers.

The following table shows the number of lockouts, establishments affected, and employees locked out for each year of the period, 1895 to 1906:

LOCKOUTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY YEARS, 1895 TO 1906.

Year.	Lockouts.	Estab-lishments affected.	Em-ployees locked out.	Per cent of em-ployees locked out of total em-ployees.	Em-ployees locked out and reem-ployed.
1895.....	8	17	2,317	51.2	2,183
1896.....	10	211	5,445	79.5	4,589
1897.....	11	12	1,712	54.4	1,647
1898.....					
1899.....	5	38	3,457	60.9	3,448
1900.....	10	58	4,036	75.8	3,703
1901.....	3	3	302	70.4	302
1902.....	8	9	1,050	49.9	1,003
1903.....	8	71	1,334	51.8	905
1904.....	6	605	23,742	99.2	23,717
1905.....	17	448	11,197	75.2	9,614
1906.....	50	1,832	67,872	84.3	64,549

BELGIUM.

Statistique des grèves en Belgique, 1901-1905. Office du Travail, Ministère de l'Industrie et du Travail. 1907. lix, 243 pp.

This is the second quinquennial report on strikes issued by the Belgian labor bureau. A summary of the data contained in the first report, embracing the period from 1896 to 1900, is given in the Twenty-first Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor, pages 812 to 817.

The present volume, which is substantially in the same form as the first report, consists of an introduction and analysis, giving the main results and a description of the methods used, general detailed tables, summary tables, and notes in regard to the most important strikes. In the detailed tables a list is given of all strikes, classified for each year by main branches of industries, and for each strike is given the following information: Industry, locality, cause or object, number of establishments involved in the strike, total number of persons employed in the establishments, number of strikers, number of employees forced out of employment by strikes, the dates of the beginning and ending of strikes, the duration, method of settlement, and result. Summary tables are presented showing (1) the number of strikes, establishments, persons employed and strikers, by industries; (2) the same information, by causes or objects of strikes; (3) results of strikes and number of strikers, by industries; (4) methods of settling strikes, by industry groups; (5) results of strikes, by causes or objects; (6) duration of strikes, by industries; (7) duration of strikes, by causes or objects; (8) duration of strikes, by results; (9) strikes and strikers, by months of the year and industries. Lock-outs, which are stated to be very rare in Belgium, are not included in the statistics presented in this report. During the five years embraced in this report 474 strikes were registered, affecting 1,281 establishments employing 321,631 persons, while the total number of strikers was 149,987, or 46.6 per cent of all the employees. In addition, 66,520 employees, or 20.7 per cent, were thrown out of employment by the strikes, making the total number thrown out of employment 216,507, or 67.3 per cent of all the employees of the establishments affected. For the period covered by the report, 1901 to 1905, the number of

strikes, number of establishments affected, and the number of strikers are given in the following table:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, AND ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, BY YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Year.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments affected.	Strikers.		
			Males.	Females.	Total.
1901.....	117	214	42,479	1,335	43,814
1902.....	73	116	9,894	533	10,427
1903.....	70	121	6,983	666	7,649
1904.....	81	280	11,735	640	12,375
1905.....	133	550	69,620	6,052	75,672
Total.....	474	1,281	140,711	9,276	149,987

In 1903 the smallest number of strikes occurred. This year also shows the smallest number of strikers, while the year 1905 shows the largest number of strikes and the largest number of strikers during the period.

The following table gives for each of the five years the number of strikes and strikers, by industrial groups:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Industry.	Strikes.						Strikers.					
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.
Mining.....	38	15	3	21	25	102	20,813	5,940	637	6,059	59,168	92,617
Quarrying.....	7	6	2	1	9	25	710	792	368	38	600	2,508
Metallurgical, metal working, and machinery.....	12	8	9	10	15	54	586	988	542	771	639	3,526
Ceramic.....			1	2	2	5			2,568	282	3,101	5,951
Glass.....	6	2	4	2	3	17	3,671	138	662	277	1,627	6,375
Chemical products.....	3		4		2	9	563		68		213	844
Foods and drinks.....	1			1		2	100			50		150
Textiles.....	25	25	18	31	54	153	1,147	1,623	1,247	2,060	7,975	14,052
Wearing apparel.....	3	3	4	3		13	68	86	521	140		815
Building.....	7	2	2		4	15	421	52	69		346	888
Woodworking.....	3	2		2	5	12	91	162		78	476	807
Leather and hides.....	2	1	6	1	8	18	79	26	147	82	341	675
Tobacco.....		2	4	1	1	8		419	358	12	2	791
Printing.....	1	2	2	2	1	8	6	158	41	20	27	252
Art trades and scientific instruments.....	2	3	6	1	1	13	330	49	289	2,400	1,042	4,110
Special.....	4	2	3	3	2	14	166	44	82	106		433
Transportation.....	3		2		1	6	15,063		50		80	15,193
Total.....	117	73	70	81	133	474	43,814	10,477	7,649	12,375	75,672	149,987

Over one-half of the 474 strikes reported during the five-year period occurred in the mining and textile industries, namely, 102, or 21.5 per cent, in the former and 153, or 32.3 per cent, in the latter. During the same period the industries in which the largest number of strikers were engaged were mining, with 92,617 persons, or 61.8 per cent; transportation, with 15,193 persons, or 10.1 per cent; and textiles, with 14,052 persons, or 9.4 per cent.

The following table shows for each of the five years the number of strikes and strikers, by causes:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY CAUSES AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Cause or object.	Strikes.						Strikers.					
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.
For increase of wages.	35	24	24	28	74	185	2,820	5,326	3,823	4,041	66,001	82,011
Against reduction of wages.	28	8	15	8	10	69	31,269	661	954	1,739	2,563	37,186
Other causes affecting wages.	5	2				7	128	372				500
For reduction of hours.	1	2	5	6	1	15	230	301	604	2,777	386	4,298
Against increase of hours.	1	1	1	2	1	6	200	40	20	592	44	896
Other causes affecting hours of labor.	1					1	29					29
For or against modification of conditions of work.	14	10	9	8	17	58	1,490	789	442	269	2,292	5,282
Against piecework.	1	2	1			4	46	183	415			644
For or against modification of shop rules.	1			3	3	7	280			80	81	441
Against fines.	2		1	4	2	9	190		228	1,066	1,225	2,709
For discharge of superintendents or other employees.	7	6	3	3	6	25	1,005	216	139	105	632	2,097
For reinstatement of discharged employees.	16	11	4	10	17	58	2,608	1,882	161	1,133	2,370	8,154
Trade unionism.	5	4	7	6	2	24	3,519	633	863	254	78	5,347
Other causes.	3			3		6		74		319		393
Total.	117	73	70	81	133	474	43,814	10,477	7,649	12,375	75,672	149,987

Questions of wages caused more than half of all the strikes in Belgium during the period, namely, 261, or 55.1 per cent of all the strikes, involving 119,697, or 79.8 per cent of all the strikers. Other frequent causes were demands for modification of conditions of work (58 strikes and 5,282 strikers) and demands for reinstatement of discharged employees (58 strikes and 8,154 strikers). Disputes as to hours of labor caused 22 strikes with 5,223 strikers.

In the table which follows, the strikes and strikers are classified according to duration of strikes:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY DURATION AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Days of duration.	Strikes.						Strikers.					
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.
Under 2.	25	8	15	7	22	77	1,464	1,066	573	288	2,866	6,197
2 to 5.	42	24	27	28	38	159	7,370	2,429	1,571	4,121	5,417	21,208
6 to 10.	25	16	11	18	30	100	2,273	4,041	1,041	2,400	2,558	12,318
11 to 15.	3	10	4	8	11	36	75	1,205	2,672	792	371	5,115
16 to 20.	4	4	3	5	4	20	15,138	297	158	193	410	16,196
21 to 30.	3	3	1	6	8	21	158	546	150	1,391	1,413	3,658
Over 30.	15	8	9		9	61	17,331	953	1,434	2,590	62,637	85,295
Total.	117	73	70	81	133	474	43,814	10,477	7,649	12,375	75,672	149,987

* The sum of the items (12,075) does not agree with this total, but the figures are reproduced as found in the report.

The majority of the strikes is found to be of very short duration, 336 out of 474 strikes, or 70.9 per cent, lasting fewer than 10 days. It appears from the table, however, that these 336 strikes included only 39,723 strikers, or 26.5 per cent. Of the total number, 77 strikes, or 16.2 per cent, lasted from 11 to 30 days and included 24,969, or 16.6 per cent, of the strikers, while 61 strikes, or 12.9 per cent, lasted over 30 days and involved 85,295 strikers, or 56.9 per cent. By dividing the strikes according to their duration into these 3 large groups, it is found that the average number of strikers per strike in the first or briefest group is 118, in the second group 324, and in the last group, of longest duration, 1,398 men per strike.

Of the 474 strikes recorded, 83, or 17.5 per cent, involving 11,205 workmen, or 7.5 per cent of the total, resulted entirely in favor of the workmen; 325, or 68.6 per cent, with 125,974 employees, or 84 per cent, resulted in favor of the employers, and 66, or 13.9 per cent, with 12,808 employees, or 8.5 per cent, were compromised. The proportion of the strikes resulting in favor of the employees in 1901 was 11 per cent, in 1902 12 per cent, in 1903 14 per cent, in 1904 20 per cent, and in 1905 26.3 per cent. The large strikes were generally unfavorable to the employees, as is shown by the fact that during the five-year period the average number of employees per strike ending favorably for the employees was 135, per strike compromised was 194, and per strike resulting in favor of the employers was 387.

The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers, by results, in each year of the five-year period:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Year.	Total strikes.	Strikes, the results of which were—			Total strikers.	Strikers in strikes, the results of which were—		
		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.
1901.....	117	13	88	16	43,814	956	40,640	2,218
1902.....	73	9	54	10	10,477	1,060	8,287	1,130
1903.....	70	10	52	8	7,649	3,152	3,827	670
1904.....	81	16	55	10	12,375	2,230	7,180	2,965
1905.....	133	35	76	22	75,672	3,807	66,040	5,825
Total.....	474	83	325	66	149,987	11,205	125,974	12,808

The number of strikes and strikers in various branches of industry during the five-year period are shown in the following table, by results:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND RESULTS, 1901 TO 1905.

Industry.	Total strikes.	Strikes, the results of which were—			Total strikers.	Strikers in strikes, the results of which were—		
		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.
Mining.....	102	6	90	6	92,617	1,675	89,782	1,160
Quarrying.....	25	5	12	8	2,508	272	1,164	1,072
Metallurgical, metal working, and machinery.....	54	9	37	8	3,526	1,138	1,991	397
Ceramic.....	5	3	2	5,951	3,044	2,307
Glass.....	17	4	10	3	6,375	308	5,533	534
Chemical products.....	9	6	3	844	279	565
Foodst and drinks.....	2	2	150	150
Textiles.....	153	31	96	26	14,052	2,468	6,116	5,468
Wearing apparel.....	13	3	8	2	815	70	638	107
Building.....	15	3	10	2	888	216	302	379
Woodworking.....	12	3	7	2	807	68	429	310
Leather and hides.....	18	5	10	3	675	146	402	127
Tobacco.....	8	1	6	1	791	386	118	287
Printing.....	8	1	7	252	88	164
Art trades and scientific instruments.....	13	4	7	2	4,110	518	1,181	2,411
Special.....	14	3	11	433	93	340
Transportation.....	6	2	4	15,193	115	15,078
Total.....	474	83	325	66	149,987	11,205	125,974	12,808

A classification of the strikes and strikers during the five-year period with reference to causes and results is given in the following table:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, 1901 TO 1905.

Cause or object.	Total strikes.	Strikes, the results of which were—			Total strikers.	Strikers in strikes, the results of which were—		
		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.
For increase of wages.....	185	47	113	25	82,011	7,301	68,737	5,973
Against reduction of wages.....	69	13	46	10	37,186	799	35,678	709
Other causes affecting wages.....	7	6	1	500	452	48
For reduction of hours.....	15	1	11	3	4,298	37	1,718	2,543
Against increase of hours.....	6	1	4	1	896	401	295	200
Other causes affecting hours of labor.....	1	1	29	29
For or against modification of conditions of work.....	58	6	39	13	5,282	461	3,011	1,810
Against piecework.....	4	1	1	2	644	113	415	116
For or against modification of shop rules.....	7	2	5	441	64	377
Against fines.....	9	1	8	2,709	700	2,009
For discharge of superintendents or other employees.....	25	1	22	2	2,097	30	1,626	441
For reinstatement of discharged employees.....	58	3	49	6	8,154	153	7,250	751
Trade unionism.....	24	6	16	2	5,347	944	4,189	214
Other causes.....	6	1	4	1	393	202	188	3
Total.....	474	83	325	66	149,987	11,205	125,974	12,808

As will be seen by the table, of the strikes resulting in favor of the employees more than one-half were undertaken for the purpose of increasing wages, while of those against increase of hours for their purpose one strike, in which 401 employees were engaged, resulted in favor of the employees. Also, more than one-half of the strikers struck for increase of wages.

The following table shows, for both strikes and strikers, the methods of settlement of the strikes during each year of the five-year period:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY METHOD OF SETTLEMENT AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Method of settlement.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.
Strikes settled by—						
Submission of employees.....	10	23	10	21	38	102
Negotiations between employers and employees..	80	28	22	31	57	218
Negotiations in which the organization of one of the parties participated.....	5	16	19	11	5	56
Negotiations conducted by the organizations of the two parties.....	1	3	2	6
The council of industry and labor.....	1	1
Arbitration.....	1	1	2
Conciliation.....	2	1	2	7	12
Exclusion of strikers.....	19	5	15	13	25	77
Total strikes.....	117	73	70	81	133	474
Strikers in strikes settled by—						
Submission of employees.....	29,695	5,849	908	3,556	61,351	101,359
Negotiations between employers and employees..	12,500	2,848	1,218	4,745	7,721	29,032
Negotiations in which the organization of one of the parties participated.....	249	1,579	1,724	529	441	4,522
Negotiations conducted by the organizations of the two parties.....	320	3,058	2,499	5,877
The council of industry and labor.....	140	140
Arbitration.....	30	30	60
Conciliation.....	134	87	680	4,034	4,945
Exclusion of strikers.....	916	61	654	326	2,095	4,052
Total strikers.....	43,814	10,477	7,649	12,375	75,672	149,987

During the period 102 strikes, with 101,359 strikers, were terminated by an unconditional return to work. In addition 77 strikes, with 4,052 strikers, were terminated by the exclusion of the strikers from the establishments. In other words, 179 strikes, or 37.8 per cent of the total, in which 105,411 strikers, or 70.3 per cent of the total, were engaged, were terminated otherwise than by negotiations of any kind between the parties to the disputes. The next largest group is that in which settlement was brought about by direct negotiations between the employers and the workmen. This group included 218 strikes, or 46 per cent of the total, and 29,032 strikers, or 19.4 per cent of the total.

FRANCE.

Statistique des Grèves et des Recours à la Conciliation et à l'Arbitrage Survenus Pendant l'Année 1906. Direction du Travail, Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. xxi, 824 pp.

The present volume is the sixteenth of a series of annual reports on strikes and conciliation and arbitration issued by the French labor bureau. The information is presented in the same form as in previous reports.

STRIKES.—During the year 1906 there were 1,309 strikes, involving 19,637 establishments, 438,466 strikers, and 29,305 other persons thrown out of work on account of strikes. Of the strikers, 86.76 per cent were men, 9.43 per cent were women, and 3.81 per cent were children. The strikes caused a loss of 8,692,104 working days by strikers and 746,490 by other employees thrown out of work, a total of 9,438,594 working days. In 1905 there were 830 strikes, in which 177,666 strikers were involved and 18,146 other employees were thrown out of work, causing an aggregate loss of 2,746,684 working days. The average number of days lost per striker in 1906 was 19, as compared with 14 in 1905.

Of the 1,309 strikes in 1906, 830 involved but 1 establishment each, 157 involved from 2 to 5 establishments, 87 from 6 to 10 establishments, 116 from 11 to 25 establishments, 49 from 26 to 50 establishments, and 32 from 51 to 100 establishments. Of the remaining strikes, 35 involved over 100 establishments each, while for 3 strikes the number of establishments involved could not be ascertained. In 1,003 strikes, all or a part of the striking employees were organized. The employers were organized in 589 strikes. Sixteen workmen's unions and 6 employers' associations were organized during the progress of or immediately following strikes. In 128 strikes regular aid was given by labor organizations to their striking members and in some cases to strikers not members.

Of the 1,309 strikes, 278, or 21.2 per cent, involving 31,148 strikers, succeeded; 539 strikes, or 41.2 per cent, involving 253,264 strikers, succeeded partly, and 490 strikes, or 37.4 per cent, involving 154,010 strikers, failed; 2 strikes had not terminated July 1, 1907. The percentage of strikers involved in the three classes of strikes was 7.1 per cent, 57.8 per cent, and 35.1 per cent, respectively. In 575 strikes the striking employees were time workers, while in 294 they worked by the piece, and in the remaining 440 by both time and piece.

The table following shows, by groups of industries, the number of strikes, strikers, and establishments affected, according to the results of strikes; also the days of work lost by all employees and the

number of strikers per 1,000 working people in each group of industries, for the year 1906:

STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, FOR EACH GROUP OF INDUSTRIES, 1906.

Industry.	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Total.	
	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries.....	17	489	22	325	11	500	50	1,814
Mining.....	4	4	23	55	13	16	40	75
Quarrying.....	6	25	4	16	7	30	17	71
Foods and drinks.....	13	437	19	738	21	283	53	1,458
Chemical products (including tobacco).....	5	5	12	21	16	16	33	42
Paper and printing.....	31	77	46	691	42	105	119	873
Leather and hides.....	23	95	31	126	21	572	75	798
Textiles.....	41	87	84	489	83	161	208	737
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....	5	31	11	161	12	47	28	239
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.....	16	100	29	790	21	167	68	1,059
Building trades (woodwork).....	6	37	13	278	13	1,246	32	1,561
Metallurgical.....	3	3	10	31	11	18	24	52
Metal working, machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.....	22	72	72	1,010	70	1,809	164	2,891
Jewelry, gold and silver working.....			3	642	3	3	6	645
Stonecutting, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.....	11	31	19	50	25	26	55	107
Building trades (stone and earth work).....	44	197	79	2,586	79	3,747	202	6,530
Transportation, commerce, etc.....	31	133	62	448	42	109	135	690
Total.....	278	1,823	539	8,957	490	8,855	1,309	19,637

Industry.	Strikers in strikes which—			Total strikers.	Strikers per 1,000 working people in each industry. (e)	Working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	Succeeded.	Succeeded partly.	Failed.			
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries.....	4,517	7,985	1,880	14,382	48.57	183,169
Mining.....	779	75,569	10,131	86,479	475.44	2,974,470
Quarrying.....	537	1,810	325	2,672	43.76	15,646
Foods and drinks.....	1,244	2,658	768	4,670	7.36	31,528
Chemical products (including tobacco).....	981	2,415	2,362	5,758	50.37	53,922
Paper and printing.....	1,335	16,561	3,547	21,443	162.40	561,895
Leather and hides.....	2,909	8,216	3,528	14,653	93.43	434,966
Textiles.....	4,819	31,602	12,352	48,773	79.10	934,445
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....	163	3,450	851	4,464	9.44	39,493
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.....	1,029	13,057	7,668	21,754	109.52	664,164
Building trades (woodwork).....	280	1,394	10,359	12,033	(e)	183,075
Metallurgical.....	525	8,641	13,046	22,212	314.80	495,418
Metal working, machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.....	1,438	30,035	33,027	64,500	117.98	1,245,216
Jewelry, gold and silver working.....		3,539	101	3,640	171.54	51,417
Stonecutting, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.....	815	2,201	2,402	5,418	35.91	171,472
Building trades (stone and earth work).....	7,349	29,732	42,849	79,930	727.83	1,249,462
Transportation, commerce, etc.....	2,428	9,399	8,514	20,641	17.56	98,833
Total.....	31,145	253,264	154,010	438,466	86.03	9,438,594

* Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^b Including 2 establishments in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^c Based on the census of 1901.

^d Including 44 strikers in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^e Included in building trades (stone and earth work).

^f Including building trades (woodwork).

^g Based on the total number of industrial working people in France in 1901.

Of the 17 groups of industries above shown, 3, namely, textiles, building trades (stone and earth work), and metal working, etc.,

together furnished 43.9 per cent of the total number of strikes during the year. With regard to the number of strikers, these 3 groups furnished 44.1 per cent. The principal data as to strikes are shown, by causes, in the table following:

STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, FOR EACH CAUSE, 1906.

[Strikes due to two or more causes have been tabulated under each cause; hence the totals for this table, if computed, would not agree with those for preceding tables.]

Cause or object.	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Total.	
	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.
For increase of wages.....	192	1,770	335	6,164	268	4,107	^a 797	^b 12,043
Against reduction of wages.....	15	40	9	78	13	13	37	131
For reduction of hours with present or increased wages.....	109	1,021	92	4,219	182	8,688	383	13,928
Relating to time, method, etc., of wage payments.....	87	839	44	618	72	1,182	203	2,639
For or against modification of conditions of work.....	18	38	9	208	31	608	58	854
Against piecework.....	18	172	16	596	56	5,911	90	6,679
For or against modification of shop rules.....	33	564	20	313	53	1,298	106	2,175
For abolition or reduction of fines.....	6	40	6	50	14	16	26	106
Against discharge or for reinstatement of workmen, foremen, or superintendents.....	34	156	21	48	94	317	149	521
For discharge of workmen, foremen, or superintendents.....	34	74	23	40	91	631	^c 149	^d 746
For limitation of number of apprentices.....					7	65	7	65
Relating to deductions from wages for support of insurance and aid funds.....	4	23	3	11	4	51	11	85
Other causes.....	29	347	16	237	41	1,885	86	2,469

Cause or object.	Strikers in strikes which—			Total strikers.	Working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.		
For increase of wages.....	22,816	210,425	67,798	^e 301,083	7,517,442
Against reduction of wages.....	1,100	916	584	2,600	12,845
For reduction of hours with present or increased wages.....	16,296	64,149	139,993	220,438	3,843,923
Relating to time, method, etc., of wage payments.....	15,513	74,967	27,170	117,650	3,497,674
For or against modification of conditions of work.....	2,405	3,149	5,254	10,808	168,000
Against piecework.....	2,414	9,246	68,919	80,579	1,932,323
For or against modification of shop rules.....	4,011	5,353	14,286	23,650	518,323
For abolition or reduction of fines.....	1,544	4,778	8,815	15,137	238,749
Against discharge or for reinstatement of workmen, foremen, or superintendents.....	6,725	6,844	24,981	38,550	939,062
For discharge of workmen, foremen, or superintendents.....	4,020	4,134	24,196	^f 32,364	582,623
For limitation of number of apprentices.....			3,001	3,001	40,992
Relating to deductions from wages for support of insurance and aid funds.....	269	225	3,910	4,404	64,021
Other causes.....	25,505	6,663	87,309	119,477	3,649,633

^a Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.
^b Including 2 establishments in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.
^c Including 1 strike not terminated July 1, 1907.
^d Including 1 establishment in 1 strike not terminated July 1, 1907.
^e Including 44 strikers in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.
^f Including 14 strikers in 1 strike not terminated July 1, 1907.

The most frequent causes of strikes during the year were wage disputes, the demands for increased wages, alone or in conjunction with

other demands, having figured in 797 strikes, or 60.9 per cent of the total number of strikes for the year, involving 301,083 strikers, or 68.7 per cent of the total number of strikers, and causing a loss of 7,517,442 working days, which include days lost by persons other than strikers who were thrown out of employment on account of strikes. Of these demands (excluding 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907, involving 44 strikers) 192 were successful for 22,816 strikers, 335 partly successful for 210,425 strikers, and 268, involving 67,798 strikers, failed. The next two tables show, for both strikes and strikers, the results of strikes by duration and the results and duration of strikes by number of strikers involved:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY DURATION AND RESULTS, 1906.

Days of duration.	Strikes which—			Total strikes.	Strikers in strikes which—			Total strikers.
	Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.		Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.	
7 or under.....	210	278	264	752	23,134	50,750	30,702	104,586
8 to 15.....	37	106	92	235	2,670	21,996	19,155	43,821
16 to 30.....	23	83	77	183	3,012	37,781	43,515	84,308
31 to 100.....	7	62	48	117	832	122,263	57,547	180,642
101 or over.....	1	10	9	^a 22	1,500	20,474	3,091	^b 25,100
Total.....	278	539	490	^a 1,309	31,148	253,264	154,010	^b 438,466

^a Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^b Including 44 strikers in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

STRIKES, BY NUMBER OF STRIKERS INVOLVED, RESULTS, AND DURATION, 1906.

Strikers involved in each strike.	Strikes which—			Total strikes.	Strikes which lasted—				
	Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.		7 days or under.	8 to 15 days.	16 to 30 days.	31 to 100 days.	101 days or over.
25 or under.....	79	108	150	^a 338	221	63	31	20	3
26 to 50.....	64	95	111	^a 271	186	50	26	6	3
51 to 100.....	51	108	72	231	143	37	29	20	2
101 to 200.....	43	84	64	191	99	38	31	22	1
201 to 500.....	33	82	47	162	75	30	32	20	5
501 to 1,000.....	4	25	13	42	14	6	14	5	3
1,001 or over.....	4	37	33	74	14	11	20	24	5
Total.....	278	539	490	^b 1,309	752	235	183	117	22

^a Including 1 strike not terminated July 1, 1907.

^b Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

Considered by their duration, the largest percentage of successful strikes was found in strikes which lasted 7 days or under. In strikes of this class 27.9 per cent were successful, while of those which continued for more than 7 days only 12.2 per cent terminated favorably to the strikers. In the classes 8 to 15 days and 16 to 30 days the percentages of successful strikes were 15.7 and 12.6, respectively. Of strikes lasting more than 30 days 5.8 per cent were successful.

The following table gives a summary of the most important strike statistics for each of the years 1894 to 1906. The figures for the years

1894 to 1905 have been compiled from previous reports and those for 1906 from the present report:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, FOR EACH YEAR, 1894 TO 1906.

Year.	Strikes.	Estab- lish- ments affected.	Strikers.	Working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.	Strikes which—			Strikers in strikes which—		
					Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.	Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.
1894.....	391	1,731	54,576	1,062,480	84	129	178	12,897	24,784	16,895
1895.....	405	1,298	45,801	617,469	100	117	188	8,565	26,672	16,564
1896.....	476	2,178	49,851	644,168	117	122	237	11,579	17,057	21,215
1897.....	356	2,568	68,875	780,944	68	122	166	19,838	28,767	20,270
1898.....	368	1,967	82,065	1,216,306	75	123	170	10,594	32,546	38,925
1899.....	739	4,288	176,772	3,550,734	180	282	277	21,131	124,767	30,874
1900.....	902	10,253	222,714	3,760,577	205	360	337	24,216	140,358	58,140
1901.....	523	6,970	111,414	1,862,050	114	195	214	9,364	44,386	57,664
1902.....	512	1,820	212,704	4,675,081	111	184	217	23,533	160,820	28,351
1903.....	567	3,246	123,151	2,441,944	122	222	223	12,526	89,736	20,889
1904.....	1,026	17,250	271,097	3,934,884	297	394	335	53,555	168,034	49,508
1905.....	830	5,302	177,666	2,746,684	184	361	285	22,872	125,016	29,778
1906.....	^a 1,309	^b 19,637	^c 438,466	9,438,504	278	539	490	31,148	253,264	154,010

^a Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^b Including 2 establishments in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^c Including 44 strikers in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

The number of strikes, establishments affected, strikers, and aggregate working days lost during 1906 show a large increase over each of the preceding years of the period.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.—During the year recourse to the law of December 27, 1892, relating to the conciliation and arbitration (^a) of labor disputes, was had in 302 disputes. In 16 cases recourse was had to the law before entire cessation of work had occurred, in 8 of which a compromise was effected, while in 1 case the employees receded from their demands. In 1 case, upon the refusal of the employers to present themselves, a strike was declared which resulted in failure. In the remaining 6 cases committees of conciliation were formed, but in none of these was a strike averted. Of the 6 strikes which followed the failure of conciliation, 3 succeeded, 2 after new meetings of the committee and 1 after direct negotiation between the parties. The 3 remaining strikes were settled by compromise after new meetings of the committee had occurred.

The number of disputes in which the application of the law was requested in 1906 is equal to 23.1 per cent of the number of strikes that actually occurred during the year. During the preceding thirteen-year period such recourse was had in 1,898 disputes, or 24.6 per cent of the total strikes for the period. Requests for the application of the law during 1906 were made by employees in 141 disputes, by employers in 8 disputes, and by both employees and employers in

^a For the provisions of this law see Bulletin of the Department of Labor No. 25, pp. 854-856.

6 disputes. In the 147 other disputes in which recourse was had to the law the initiative was taken by justices of the peace.

As for results, it was found that 13 strikes had terminated by direct agreement between employers and employees before committees of conciliation were formed. The offer of conciliation was rejected in 119 of the 289 remaining disputes, the rejection coming from employers in 100 cases, from employees in 3 cases, and from both employers and employees in 16 cases. In 10 of the 119 cases in which conciliation was rejected the disputes were terminated by the employees withdrawing their demands or accepting concessions previously offered, while in the 109 other cases strikes were declared or continued.

Committees of conciliation were constituted for the settlement of the remaining 170 disputes. Ninety-four of these disputes were settled directly by such committees, and of the 76 disputes remaining 8 were settled by arbitration and 5 were settled by the parties themselves after having appeared without success before committees of conciliation. Strikes were declared or continued after the failure of conciliation and arbitration in the 63 remaining disputes.

The following is a summary statement in regard to disputes in which recourse was had to the law concerning conciliation and arbitration during 1906 and for the preceding thirteen years taken collectively:

SUMMARY OF CASES IN WHICH RECOURSE WAS HAD TO THE LAW CONCERNING CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION, 1893 TO 1905 AND 1906.

Items.	1893 to 1905.	1906.
Total number of strikes.....	7,723	1,309
Disputes in which recourse was had to the law of 1892.....	1,898	302
Disputes settled:		
Before the creation of committees of conciliation.....	97	13
After refusal of request for conciliation.....	92	10
Directly by committees of conciliation.....	558	94
By arbitration.....	69	8
Directly by the parties, after having had recourse to conciliation.....	55	5
Total cases settled through the application of the law.....	871	130
Strikes resulting or continuing:		
After refusal of request for conciliation.....	591	109
After failure of recourse to conciliation and arbitration.....	436	63
Total cases of failure after application of the law.....	1,027	172

The above summary shows that of 302 disputes considered in 1906, 130 were settled directly or indirectly through the application of the law of 1892, and in the case of 172 the recourse to the law proved fruitless. Of the 130 disputes settled, 19 were favorable to the demands of the employees, 93 resulted in a compromise, and 18 were unfavorable to the employees. In the 172 disputes which continued after the failure of attempts at conciliation and arbitration the employees succeeded in 15, partly succeeded in 83, and failed in 74 cases.

GERMANY.

Streiks und Aussperrungen im Jahre 1906. Bearbeitet im Kaiserlichen Statistischen Amt. 306 pp.

This is the eighth annual report on strikes and lockouts issued by the German Imperial Statistical Bureau. The report contains analyses and summaries of the strikes and lockouts in 1906, copies of schedules of inquiry, an outline of the methods pursued by the bureau in the collection and compilation of strike and lockout data, a series of diagrams presenting the principal features relating to strikes and lockouts in Germany and other countries, and tables showing in detail, by locality and industry for each dispute, the establishments affected, total number of employees, strikers and others thrown out of employment, causes, results, manner of settlement, etc. The data relate to disputes ending in 1906.

STRIKES.—During 1906 there were 3,328 strikes reported, affecting 16,246 establishments. Operations were completely suspended in 5,068. Of a total of 686,539 employees in the establishments affected, 272,218 participated in the strikes and 24,433 others were thrown out of employment.

The following table shows the number of strikes, establishments affected, strikers, and other employees thrown out of work, by results of strikes, in 1906:

STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY RESULTS, 1906.

[The column headed "Strikers" shows the maximum number of strikers at any time during strike.]

Result.	Strikes.	Estab-lishments affected.	Total em-ployees in estab-lishments affected.	Strikers.	Other em-ployees thrown out of work.
Succeeded.....	613	3,161	82,152	32,729	2,910
Succeeded partly.....	1,498	11,363	366,534	177,047	15,025
Failed.....	1,217	1,722	237,853	62,442	6,498
Total.....	3,328	16,246	686,539	272,218	24,433

The number of strikes that failed was 36.6 per cent of the total, while the proportion of persons participating in unsuccessful strikes was 22.9 per cent of the total number of strikers. Only 12 per cent of the strikers, representing 19.5 per cent of the establishments affected, were engaged in successful strikes.

The following table shows, by principal groups of industries, the number and results of strikes, the number of establishments and

strikers involved, and the number of other employees thrown out of work on account of strikes during the year 1906:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES, 1906.

[The column headed "Strikers" shows the maximum number of strikers at any time during strike.]

Industry.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—			Estab-lish-ments af-fected.	Strikers.	Other em-ployees thrown out of work.
		Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.			
Gardening, florist, and nursery trades....	12		10	2	152	656	20
Fisheries.....	3	2	1		50	307	97
Mining, metallurgical, salt, etc.....	106	9	58	39	208	21,391	4,307
Quarrying, products of, stone, clay, glass, etc.....	242	51	87	104	590	13,367	1,025
Metal working.....	310	51	145	114	952	22,724	1,118
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.....	206	29	83	94	576	19,046	944
Chemical products.....	33	4	16	13	41	4,123	179
Oil, fat, soap, gas, etc.....	18	2	10	6	18	546	
Textiles.....	154	22	75	57	384	29,215	5,084
Paper.....	48	13	13	22	108	7,133	138
Leather.....	88	13	43	32	244	7,911	580
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.....	436	77	193	166	1,916	21,141	519
Foods and drinks (including tobacco).....	144	25	64	55	330	7,703	257
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....	133	27	74	32	1,894	10,718	126
Building trades.....	1,079	232	490	357	7,626	79,076	8,494
Printing.....	51	8	26	17	116	2,251	307
Art trades.....	5	1	3	1	24	117	
Commerce.....	164	33	70	61	549	12,756	183
Transportation.....	94	14	37	43	466	11,986	1,075
Hotels, restaurants, etc.....	1			1	1	36	
Other.....	1			1	1	15	
Total.....	3,328	613	1,496	1,217	16,246	272,218	24,433

The group of building trades had the largest number of strikes, strikers, and establishments affected—1,079, or 32.4 per cent of all the strikes, 79,076, or 29 per cent of all the strikers, and 7,626, or 46.9 per cent of all the establishments being in this industry. Of the strikes in the building trades 33.1 per cent were failures. Next in importance with regard to the number of persons involved were the groups of textiles, metal working, mining, metallurgical, salt, etc., and woodworking industries, respectively. The strikers in these five groups of industries constituted 63.8 per cent of the total.

The next two tables give statistics of strikes according to their duration and according to the number of strikers involved:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY DURATION, 1906.

[The column headed "Strikers" shows the maximum number of strikers at any time during strike.]

Days of duration.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—			Estab-lish-ments af-fected.	Strikers.	Other em-ployees thrown out of work.
		Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.			
Less than 1.....	213	59	60	94	266	9,873	401
1 to 5.....	1,132	307	416	409	2,857	68,263	11,413
6 to 10.....	463	96	219	148	1,892	28,220	3,840
11 to 20.....	475	72	241	162	4,295	45,224	2,374
21 to 30.....	393	35	158	112	1,911	28,843	2,028
31 to 50.....	304	17	159	128	1,710	31,762	534
51 to 100.....	320	19	181	120	2,529	47,872	3,328
101 or over.....	118	8	66	44	786	12,061	515
Total.....	3,328	613	1,498	1,217	16,246	272,218	24,433

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY NUMBER OF STRIKERS INVOLVED, 1906.

[The column headed "Strikers" shows the maximum number of strikers at any time during strike.]

Strikers involved in each strike.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—			Estab-lish-ments af-fected.	Strikers.	Other em-ployees thrown out of work.
		Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.			
2 to 5.....	198	50	54	94	217	767	127
6 to 10.....	393	101	104	188	502	3,133	109
11 to 20.....	642	135	231	276	972	9,813	583
21 to 30.....	442	103	188	151	915	11,159	1,228
31 to 50.....	494	76	235	183	1,387	19,548	2,322
51 to 100.....	556	81	300	174	2,365	39,970	2,509
101 to 200.....	331	38	215	78	2,367	46,875	4,431
201 to 500.....	205	22	124	59	3,734	63,802	6,708
501 or over.....	68	7	47	14	3,787	77,151	6,416
Total.....	3,328	613	1,498	1,217	16,246	272,218	24,433

The following table shows the results of strikes in 1906, by cause or object:

STRIKES, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, 1906.

[Strikes due to two or more causes have been tabulated under each cause; hence totals for this table, if computed, would not agree with those for the preceding tables.]

Cause or object.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—		
		Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.
Against reduction of wages.....	70	22	17	31
For increase of wages.....	2,343	368	1,312	663
For extra rate for overtime.....	452	43	309	100
For extra pay for secondary work.....	199	20	144	35
Other causes affecting wages.....	322	34	195	93
Against increase of hours.....	13	2	6	5
For reduction of hours.....	964	102	571	191
For abolition or limitation of overtime work.....	112	6	76	30
For reduction of hours on Saturday.....	120	11	88	21
For regular hours.....	51	5	37	9
Other causes affecting hours of labor.....	124	13	78	33
For change in method of payment.....	131	13	84	34
Against change in method of payment.....	17	5	6	6
For reinstatement of discharged employees.....	512	74	119	319
For discharge or against employment of certain persons.....	166	45	33	88
For discharge of foremen, etc.....	49	4	19	26
Against being compelled to work on holidays.....	54	5	44	5
For better sanitary conditions, etc.....	116	14	70	32
Against use of material from establishment in which strike was pending.....	30	6	11	13
For better treatment.....	55	8	27	20
For recognition of committee of employees.....	202	17	126	59
For adoption, retention, or change of wage scale.....	355	63	204	88
Other causes.....	514	79	250	185

The results of strikes for each year from 1899 to 1906 are shown in the following table, together with number of strikers and establishments affected:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND STRIKERS, BY YEARS, 1899 TO 1906.

Year.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—						Estab-lish-ments affected.	Total em-employees in estab-lish-ments affected.	Strikers.
		Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.				
		Num-ber.	Per cent of total strikes.	Num-ber.	Per cent of total strikes.	Num-ber.	Per cent of total strikes.			
1899.....	1,288	331	25.7	429	33.3	528	41.0	7,121	256,858	99,338
1900.....	1,433	275	19.2	505	35.2	653	45.6	7,740	298,819	122,803
1901.....	1,066	200	18.9	285	27.0	571	54.1	4,561	141,220	55,262
1902.....	1,060	228	21.5	235	22.2	597	56.3	3,437	131,086	53,912
1903.....	1,374	300	21.8	444	32.3	630	45.9	7,000	198,636	85,603
1904.....	1,870	449	24.0	688	36.8	733	39.2	10,321	273,364	113,480
1905.....	2,403	528	22.0	971	40.4	904	37.6	14,481	776,964	408,145
1906.....	3,328	613	18.4	1,498	45.0	1,217	36.6	16,246	686,539	272,218

LOCKOUTS.—During 1906 there were 298 lockouts reported affecting 2,780 establishments. Of a total of 152,449 employees in the establishments affected 77,109 were locked out and 2,655 others were thrown out of employment on account of the lockouts.

The following table shows the number of lockouts, establishments affected, employees locked out, and other employees thrown out of work, by results of lockouts, in 1906:

LOCKOUTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY RESULTS, 1906.

[The column headed "Employees locked out" shows the maximum number of employees locked out at any time during lockout.]

Result.	Lock-outs.	Estab-lish-ments affected.	Total employ-ees in es-tab-lish-ments af-fected.	Employ-ees locked out.	Other employ-ees thrown out of work.
Succeeded.....	88	660	20,224	10,779	86
Succeeded partly.....	174	1,751	112,413	56,524	2,057
Failed.....	36	369	19,812	9,806	512
Total.....	298	2,780	152,449	77,109	2,655

Of the lockouts in 1906, 29.5 per cent were successful from the standpoint of the employers, 58.4 per cent were partly successful, and 12.1 per cent were complete failures.

The following table shows, by principal groups of industries, the number and results of lockouts, the number of establishments and persons involved in lockouts, and the number of other employees thrown out of work on account of lockouts during the year 1906:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF LOCKOUTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES, 1906.

[The column headed "Employees locked out" shows the maximum number of employees locked out at any time during lockout.]

Industry.	Total lock-outs.	Lockouts which—			Estab-lish-ments af-fected.	Em-employees locked out.	Other em-employees thrown out of work.
		Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.			
Mining, metallurgical, salt, etc.	1	1	1	103
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.	53	13	34	6	169	3,982	349
Metal working	26	13	11	2	466	5,066	23
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.	32	7	22	3	223	30,317	1,381
Chemical products	1	1	1	346
Oil, fat, soap, gas, etc.	2	1	1	2	119
Textiles	9	7	2	82	10,833	14
Paper	1	1	24	1,023
Leather	6	4	2	49	473
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.	31	11	13	7	327	3,014	25
Foods and drinks (including tobacco)	5	3	2	10	573
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.	1	1	34	1,800
Building trades	87	27	47	13	1,165	14,909	409
Printing	38	3	35	213	4,097	454
Commerce	3	2	1	12	422
Transportation	1	1	1	19
Hotels, restaurants, etc.	1	1	1	13
Total	298	88	174	36	2,780	77,109	2,655

The group of building trades had the largest number of lockouts and establishments affected, 29.2 per cent of all the lockouts and 41.9 per cent of all the establishments affected belonging to this industry. Of the lockouts in this group of trades, 31 per cent were successful, 54 per cent were partly successful, and 15 per cent were complete failures. The largest number of employees locked out is found in the group of machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc., 30,317, or 39.3 per cent of the total number of employees locked out, being engaged in these industries. Next in importance with regard to the number of persons involved are the groups of building trades and textiles. Of all the employees locked out, 72.7 per cent belonged to these three groups of industries.

The results of lockouts for each year from 1899 to 1906, together with establishments affected and employees locked out, are shown in the table following:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF LOCKOUTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY YEARS, 1899 TO 1906.

Year.	Total lock-outs.	Lockouts which—						Estab-lish-ments affected.	Total employ-ees in estab-lish-ments affected.	Em-employees locked out.
		Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.				
		Num-ber.	Per cent of total lockouts.	Num-ber.	Per cent of total lockouts.	Num-ber.	Per cent of total lockouts.			
1899	23	6	26.1	9	39.1	8	34.8	427	8,290	5,298
1900	35	13	37.1	17	48.6	5	14.3	607	22,462	9,085
1901	35	16	45.7	8	22.9	11	31.4	238	7,980	5,414
1902	46	30	65.2	7	15.2	9	19.6	948	18,705	10,305
1903	70	36	51.4	15	21.4	19	27.2	1,714	52,541	35,273
1904	120	44	36.7	33	27.5	43	35.8	1,115	36,312	23,770
1905	254	65	25.6	147	57.9	42	16.5	3,859	188,526	118,665
1906	298	88	29.5	174	58.4	36	12.1	2,780	152,449	77,109

GREAT BRITAIN.

Report on Strikes and Lockouts and on Conciliation and Arbitration Boards in the United Kingdom in 1906. 1907. 152 pp. (Published by the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade.)

This report is the nineteenth of a series of annual reports, begun in 1888, on strikes and lockouts. It presents statistics for strikes and lockouts beginning in 1906 and of trade disputes settled by conciliation or arbitration boards. Summary tables are also given, making general comparison of results in 1906 with the results of each of the four previous years, 1902 to 1905.

Figures are given showing by industries, causes, and results the number of strikes and lockouts, persons directly and indirectly involved, and days lost. A list of trade disputes (involving cessation of work) settled in 1906 by conciliation or arbitration is given, and tables are presented summarizing, by industries, the work of the permanent and district conciliation and arbitration boards.

Strikes and lockouts, in which the number of persons involved was fewer than 10 or which lasted less than one day unless the aggregate days lost exceeded 100 days, are not included in the report.

Appendixes show the method used in classifying causes of trade disputes, trade dispute statistics for each year of the period 1893 to 1906, great labor disputes 1888 to 1905, etc.

As in previous years, disputes relative to wages were the most numerous, forming 68.3 per cent of all disputes for the year and involving 55.7 per cent of all striking and locked-out employees. Of this class of disputes 28 per cent resulted in favor of employees, 34.6 per cent in favor of employers, 36.5 per cent were compromised, and in three cases, or 0.9 per cent, the results were indefinite. Of the total employees engaged in wage disputes 17.7 per cent were in disputes settled in favor of the employees, 35 per cent in those settled in favor of the employers, and 46.7 per cent in those that were compromised. Of disputes relative to hours of labor, 46.1 per cent were settled in favor of the employees, 30.8 per cent in favor of the employers, and 23.1 per cent were compromised. Of the disputes relative to trade unionism and employment of particular classes or persons, 42.3 per cent were settled in favor of employees, 40 per cent in favor of employers, 16.5 per cent were compromised, and 1.2 per cent were indefinite or unsettled; while 88.5 per cent of the employees involved were in disputes settled in favor of the employees, 5.8 per cent in those settled in favor of the employers, and 5.7 per cent in those that were compromised, indicating that the disputes in which the employees were successful were conducted by unions having a large membership. Considering all disputes, 31.5 per cent were settled in

favor of the employees, 36.8 per cent in favor of the employers, 30.9 per cent were compromised, and 0.8 per cent were indefinite or unsettled.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN 1906.—The number of strikes and lockouts, the number of work people affected, and the aggregate days lost were greater in 1906 than in any year since 1902. During the year there were 486 strikes and lockouts recorded, affecting 217,773 persons and entailing an aggregate loss of 3,028,816 working days. These items are considerably above the averages for the five-year period, 1901 to 1905.

The following tables show the number of strikes and lockouts, the number of strikers and persons locked out and of other persons thrown out of work by reason of strikes and lockouts in 1906, and the number of working days lost by all employees thrown out of work, classified according to principal causes and by results:

STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1906.

[“Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work” includes the aggregate duration in 1906 of disputes which began in previous years, and excludes the duration in 1907 of disputes which began in 1906.]

Principal cause or object.	Strikes and lockouts, the results of which were—				Total strikes and lockouts.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Wages.....	93	115	121	3	332	2,321,661
Hours of labor.....	6	4	3	13	97,209
Employment of particular classes or persons.....	15	25	12	1	53	75,891
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline.....	16	25	11	52	114,287
Trade unionism.....	21	9	2	32	416,685
Sympathetic disputes.....	1	1	2	1,014
Other causes.....	1	1	2	2,059
Total.....	153	179	150	4	486	3,028,816

STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1906.

Principal cause or object.	Strikers and employees locked out in disputes, the results of which were—				Total strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Wages.....	15,532	30,808	41,055	538	87,933	49,283
Hours of labor.....	1,086	609	5,391	7,086	311
Employment of particular classes or persons.....	1,184	2,428	1,112	10	4,734	5,580
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline.....	1,404	3,159	1,973	6,536	2,708
Trade unionism.....	47,913	773	2,064	50,750	2,019
Sympathetic disputes.....	10	23	33
Other causes.....	30	770	800
Total.....	67,159	38,547	51,618	548	157,872	59,901

Of all employees directly affected by labor disputes 42.5 per cent were involved in disputes settled in favor of the employees, 24.4 per

cent in those settled in favor of the employers, 32.7 per cent in those that were compromised, and 0.4 per cent in those the results of which were indefinite or unsettled.

The following table shows the number of strikes and lockouts, employees thrown out of work, and working days lost, according to classified groups of employees thrown out of work:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY CLASSIFIED NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1906.

["Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" refers exclusively to disputes which began in 1906, and includes working days lost in 1907 due to disputes which extended beyond 1906.]

Groups of employees thrown out of work.	Strikes and lockouts.	Employees thrown out of work.		Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.	
		Number.	Percent.	Number.	Percent.
5,000 or over	9	101,685	46.7	1,456,760	51.4
2,500 or under 5,000	4	13,900	6.4	39,880	1.4
1,000 or under 2,500	26	36,268	16.7	348,618	12.3
500 or under 1,000	31	21,326	9.8	217,502	7.7
250 or under 500	57	18,743	8.6	326,630	11.5
100 or under 250	102	15,978	7.3	239,393	8.4
50 or under 100	82	5,704	2.6	130,318	4.6
25 or under 50	72	2,538	1.2	45,335	1.6
Under 25 (a)	103	1,631	.7	29,706	1.1
Total	486	217,773	100.0	2,834,142	100.0

* Disputes involving fewer than 10 work people and those which lasted less than one day have been omitted, except when the aggregate duration exceeded 100 working days.

In 1906 there were 9 disputes in each of which the number of employees involved exceeded 5,000; in 1905 there was no dispute of such magnitude. The disputes affecting more than 1,000 persons in 1906 were but 8 per cent of the total number of disputes, while these disputes affected 69.8 per cent of all employees thrown out of work.

In the following table are given the number of strikes and lockouts, employees thrown out of work, and working days lost, classified according to duration of the disputes:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY DURATION, 1906.

["Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" refers exclusively to disputes which began in 1906, and includes working days lost in 1907 due to disputes which extended beyond 1906.]

Duration of strikes or lockouts.	Number of disputes.	Employees thrown out of work.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees.
Under 1 week	206	73,256	163,041
1 week or under 2 weeks	97	43,406	316,111
2 weeks or under 4 weeks	61	61,307	583,362
4 weeks or under 6 weeks	37	5,432	140,383
6 weeks or under 8 weeks	19	18,406	711,707
8 weeks or under 10 weeks	16	10,368	400,764
10 weeks or under 15 weeks	26	2,368	130,624
15 weeks or under 20 weeks	5	327	23,715
20 weeks or under 25 weeks	7	622	48,088
25 weeks or over	12	2,281	316,347
Total	486	217,773	2,834,142

The number of strikes and lockouts which lasted less than two weeks formed 62.3 per cent of all disputes, and the number of persons thrown out of work in these groups formed 53.6 per cent of all persons thrown out of work by strikes and lockouts. There were but 12 disputes, or 2.5 per cent of all disputes, which had a duration of twenty-five weeks or more. While the number of employees involved in disputes in this group formed but 1 per cent of all employees affected by strikes and lockouts, yet the aggregate days lost by strikers and locked-out employees was 11.2 per cent of the aggregate working days lost by all employees engaged in the disputes of the year.

The following tables, in which the disputes are classified by results, show the number of disputes and of persons affected, and the number of working days lost in each group of industries:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, FOR EACH GROUP OF INDUSTRIES, 1906.

[“Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work” includes the aggregate duration in 1906 of disputes which began in previous years, and excludes the duration in 1907 of disputes which began in 1906.]

Industry.	Strikes and lockouts the result of which were—				Total strikes and lockouts.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Com-promised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Building trades.....	8	9	2	19	56,201
Mining and quarrying.....	42	21	33	96	922,102
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	32	55	35	3	125	1,118,282
Textile trades.....	31	43	49	1	124	762,999
Clothing trades.....	17	12	13	42	92,139
Transportation.....	5	12	2	19	10,021
Miscellaneous trades.....	18	26	14	58	62,184
Employees of public authorities.....	1	2	3	4,888
Total.....	153	179	150	4	486	3,028,816

STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY RESULTS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, FOR EACH GROUP OF INDUSTRIES, 1906.

Industry.	Strikers and employees locked out in disputes, the results of which were—				Total strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Com-promised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Building trades.....	561	732	89	1,382	59
Mining and quarrying.....	52,927	3,690	7,439	64,056	19,777
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	2,926	14,159	6,156	148	23,389	18,660
Textile trades.....	9,209	15,919	31,361	400	56,889	18,225
Clothing trades.....	731	1,040	5,373	7,144	1,768
Transportation.....	135	1,331	100	1,566	322
Miscellaneous trades.....	670	1,464	1,068	3,202	1,070
Employees of public authorities.....	212	32	244	20
Total.....	67,159	38,547	51,618	548	157,872	59,901

The number of disputes, persons directly affected, persons indirectly affected, and aggregate working days lost in the mining and quarry-

ing, metal, engineering, and shipbuilding, and textile groups of industries exceeded similar items in every other industrial group. Of the total, there were 153 disputes, involving 67,159 work people, which resulted in favor of employees; 179 disputes, involving 38,547 work people, which resulted in favor of employers, and 150 disputes, involving 51,618 work people, which were compromised. The remaining disputes were indefinite or unsettled as to results.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS DURING FIVE YEARS.—During the five-year period, 1902 to 1906, there was a yearly average of 406 disputes affecting an average of 154,410 employees yearly, and entailing an average yearly loss of 2,560,230 working days.

The following table shows the number of strikes and lockouts, employees thrown out of work, and working days lost in each year of the period named :

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

[“Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work” includes the aggregate duration in each year of disputes which began in previous years and extended beyond the year in which they began, and excludes the duration in 1907 of disputes which began in 1906.]

Year.	Strikes and lockouts.	Strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.	Total employees thrown out of work.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
1902.....	442	116,824	139,843	256,667	3,479,255
1903.....	387	93,515	23,386	116,901	2,335,668
1904.....	355	56,380	30,828	87,208	1,484,220
1905.....	358	67,653	25,850	93,503	2,470,189
1906.....	486	157,872	59,901	217,778	3,025,816

The number of strikes and lockouts, and employees thrown out of work in each year from 1902 to 1906, are shown in the following table, by industries :

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

Industry.	Strikes and lockouts.					Employees thrown out of work.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Building trades.....	39	44	37	31	19	5,356	3,663	8,697	6,637	1,441
Mining and quarrying.....	168	125	113	106	96	208,526	63,578	46,287	44,791	83,833
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	71	87	75	70	125	15,914	32,380	12,130	12,753	42,049
Textile trades.....	82	55	52	67	124	16,706	9,458	13,048	15,786	75,114
Clothing trades.....	23	25	26	29	42	2,790	2,476	1,448	3,540	8,912
Transportation.....	14	15	10	11	19	1,590	2,172	1,759	2,112	1,888
Miscellaneous trades.....	41	32	41	39	58	3,679	2,463	3,794	7,159	4,272
Employees of public authorities.....	4	4	1	5	3	2,106	711	45	725	264
Total.....	442	387	355	358	486	256,667	116,901	87,208	93,503	217,778

The following table shows, by groups of industries, the aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work for each year of the period 1902 to 1906 :

AGGREGATE DURATION IN WORKING DAYS OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

["Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" includes the aggregate duration in each year of disputes which began in previous years and extended beyond the year in which they began, and excludes the duration in 1907 of disputes which began in 1906.]

Industry.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Building trades.....	115,860	114,371	345,513	412,633	56,201
Mining and quarrying.....	2,550,047	1,397,898	657,285	1,255,514	922,102
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	420,362	481,016	185,429	467,571	1,118,282
Textile trades.....	238,380	117,038	121,554	126,483	762,999
Clothing trades.....	54,044	136,182	13,202	71,435	92,139
Transportation.....	10,027	26,779	42,343	67,089	10,021
Miscellaneous trades.....	84,133	64,892	118,804	64,290	62,184
Employees of public authorities.....	6,402	492	90	5,174	4,888
Total.....	3,479,255	2,338,668	1,484,220	2,470,189	3,028,816

There were more strikes and lockouts during 1906 than during any other year of the five-year period, and more employees thrown out of work and more working days lost by employees except during the first year of the five-year period. During the four years 1902 to 1905 the greatest number of disputes arose in the mining and quarrying industry, but in 1906 this industry ranks third as to number of disputes, the greatest number (125) during the year being in the metal, engineering, and shipbuilding group of trades, followed by 124 in the textile trades. On the other hand, mining and quarrying shows during 1906 the largest number of employees thrown out of work and ranks second as to aggregate working days lost by employees. The building trades during 1906, as compared with each of the four preceding years of the period, show a material falling off in number of disputes, employees thrown out of work, and aggregate working days lost by employees.

The number of strikes and lockouts and the number of strikers and employees locked out for each year of the period 1902 to 1906 are shown in the next table, by principal causes:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY PRINCIPAL CAUSES AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

Principal cause or object.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Wages.....	267	232	233	235	332	56,733	40,557	32,783	38,737	87,933
Hours of labor.....	20	17	13	14	13	3,044	4,108	1,970	3,145	7,086
Employment of particular classes or persons.....	58	54	46	47	53	11,436	7,822	6,081	6,406	4,734
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline.....	64	56	47	37	52	19,849	13,609	7,601	5,546	6,536
Trade unionism.....	29	25	15	21	32	25,489	17,602	7,925	9,377	50,750
Sympathetic disputes.....	1	1	2	2	14	20	243	33
Other causes.....	3	3	2	2	259	817	4,197	800
Total.....	442	387	355	358	486	116,824	93,515	56,390	67,653	157,872

While the number of disputes relative to wages remained comparatively the same during the years 1903 to 1905, there was a material increase during 1906 as compared with each of the preceding years of the five-year period. The number of strikers and employees locked out also shows a large increase during 1906 over preceding years. The number of disputes relative to hours of labor follows closely that for each of the three preceding years, while the number of employees involved shows a large increase over each of the four preceding years of the period. Disputes in 1906 on account of trade unionism numbered 32, as compared with 29, the greatest number during any preceding year of the period, while the number of employees involved was 50,750, as compared with 25,489, the greatest number reported during any preceding year of the five-year period. Disputes arising from the remaining named causes show for 1906 a record not strikingly different from that of the four preceding years.

The following table shows, by results, the number of strikes and lockouts and employees directly affected during each year, 1902 to 1906:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY RESULTS AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

[The figures for years previous to 1906 have been revised to include the results of disputes terminated after the reports of those years were published.]

Result.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
In favor of employees.....	108	90	62	70	153	37,187	29,167	15,413	16,702	67,159
In favor of employers.....	206	185	180	168	179	37,187	44,956	23,500	23,029	38,547
Compromised.....	125	111	112	119	150	42,141	19,370	17,441	27,894	51,618
Indefinite or unsettled.....	3	1	1	1	4	309	22	26	28	548
Total.....	442	387	355	358	486	116,824	93,515	56,380	67,653	157,872

This table shows that for each year during the five-year period the number of disputes resulting in favor of the employees was less than the number in which the employers were successful. The number compromised (except in 1906) also exceeds the number which were settled in favor of the employees, but is less in each year than the number settled in favor of the employers. The total number of disputes during the five-year period was 2,028, of which 483, or 23.8 per cent, were settled in favor of the employees; 916, or 45.2 per cent, in favor of the employers; 616, or 30.4 per cent, were compromised, and 13, or 0.6 per cent, were indefinite or unsettled. In 1906, of the 486 disputes, 31.5 per cent were favorable to the employees and 36.8 per cent to the employers, 30.9 per cent were compromised, and 0.8 per cent were indefinite or unsettled at the end of the year.

During the five-year period there were in the aggregate 492,244 employees directly affected by strikes and lockouts. Of this number, 165,628 employees, or 33.6 per cent of all employees directly affected,

were involved in disputes in which employees were successful; 167,219, or 34 per cent, in disputes in which the employers were successful; 158,464, or 32.2 per cent, in disputes which were compromised, and 933, or 0.2 per cent, in those of which the settlement was indefinite, or which were unsettled. The corresponding percentages for 1906 were 42.5, 24.4, 32.7, and 0.4, respectively.

In the following table the number of strikes and lockouts, and the number of strikers and employees locked out, are shown by methods of settlement for each year of the period 1902 to 1906:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY METHOD OF SETTLEMENT AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

[The figures for the years previous to 1906 have been revised to include the results of disputes terminated after the reports for these years were published.]

Method of settlement.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Arbitration.....	16	18	15	9	16	2,418	18,047	1,832	2,224	4,391
Conciliation.....	13	.8	12	22	23	2,641	1,401	3,179	8,752	3,494
Direct arrangement or negotiation between parties or their representatives.....	319	270	227	220	340	98,270	64,459	43,589	48,155	129,614
Submission of employees.....	40	36	27	47	39	9,310	6,989	4,495	5,550	17,293
Replacement of employees.....	50	50	67	53	59	3,928	2,378	2,587	2,126	2,377
Closing of works.....	3	5	6	3	3	228	241	672	714	128
Indefinite or unsettled.....	1	1	4	6	29	26	132	575
Total.....	442	387	355	358	486	116,824	93,515	56,380	67,653	157,872

In each year most of the disputes were settled by direct arrangement or negotiation, the percentage of disputes settled by this method being 72.2, 69.8, 63.9, 61.5, and 70.0 per cent of all disputes for the respective years 1902 to 1906. The number of disputes settled by submission of employees and by replacement of employees in 1906 compares closely with the averages for the preceding four years. In only three instances was there a closing of works. Disputes settled by submission of employees, replacement of employees, and closing of works together formed 21.0, 23.5, 28.2, 28.8, and 20.8 per cent of all disputes for the respective years. Only 39 disputes, involving 5.0 per cent of all persons directly affected, were settled by arbitration and conciliation during 1906. The number of disputes so settled, however, is greater than the average for the preceding four years, which is but 28.

RUSSIA.

Statisticheskyyâ svedeniâ o Stachkakh Rabochykh na Fabrikakh i Zavodakh za desiatilietie 1895-1904 goda (Statistical data relating to strikes of workingmen in factories and mills for the decade 1895-1904). Published by Ministerstvo Torgovli i Promyshlennosti, Otdiel Promyshlennosti (Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Bureau of Industry). 1905. 79 pp.+38 pp.

This is the first official report on strikes in Russia. The report, which covers only European Russia, embraces the decade 1895-1904,

and includes only those factories and mills which are subject to factory inspection and to the supervision of the Ministry of Finance. The smaller industrial establishments, having fewer than 10 and in some cases 15 employees, are excluded, as are mines and metallurgical establishments, which are subject to the Ministry of Agriculture and State Domains, all state factories and mills, and all industrial establishments under the jurisdiction of the Ministries of War, of the Navy, and of Ways of Communication. While accurate data for all the years are lacking, it is stated that during the period about one-half of the industrial establishments and about seven-tenths of the workingmen employed were subject to the factory-inspection laws. For the entire decade the number of industrial establishments inspected is estimated at 18,000 and the number of workingmen employed in them at 1,600,000. Throughout the report, by "number of strikes" is meant the number of establishments in which strikes have taken place. All the labor disputes included are termed "strikes" in the report, and it is explained that "lockouts" are practically unknown in Russia, on account of peculiar local conditions of employment, requiring a two weeks' notice of discharge, and also on account of the absence of employers' associations. Discharges of large bodies of employees are sometimes resorted to after a strike is declared, and the nearest approach to "lockouts" might be found in strikes brought on by aggressive actions of employers.

The report contains 79 pages of text with summary tables and 15 tables giving, for the years 1895 to 1904, the following information: (1) Strikes and strikers by geographical distribution, for each year; (2) strikes and strikers by months, for each year; (3) proportion of strikers to total number of factory workers for the period; (4) number of establishments having more than one strike, by geographical distribution, for the period; (5) group strikes (i. e., embracing more than one establishment), by years, geographical distribution, and groups of industries; (6) strikes and strikers, by years and groups of industries; (7) strikes and strikers, by months and groups of industries, for the period; (8) strikes and strikers, by industries, for the period; (9) duration of strikes and number of workdays lost, by years and groups of industries; (10) strikes, by main and subsidiary causes and by years; (11) strikes and strikers, by causes and years; (12) strikes and strikers, by causes and groups of industries, for the period; (13) causes of strikes, due to action of employers; (14) strikes, by causes and results, for the period; (15) strikes in which extraordinary means were taken, by years.

The total number of strikes during the ten years was 1,765, in which 431,254 strikers were engaged. This gives an annual average

of 176.5 strikes, or 0.98 per cent of all establishments, and 43,125 strikers, or 2.7 per cent of all workmen employed in all establishments. By individual years the strikes, strikers, and days of work lost were distributed as follows:

STRIKES, STRIKERS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Strikes.	Strikers.	Total employees in establishments affected.	Per cent of strikers of total employees in establishments affected.	Working days lost.		
					Total.	Average number per—	
						Strike.	Striker.
1895.....	68	31,195	60,587	51.49	156,843	2,307	5.0
1896.....	118	29,527	47,979	61.54	189,213	1,604	6.4
1897.....	145	59,870	111,725	53.59	321,349	2,216	5.4
1898.....	215	43,150	93,596	46.10	158,898	739	3.7
1899.....	189	57,498	112,296	51.20	264,856	1,401	4.6
1900.....	125	29,389	77,382	37.98	119,525	956	4.1
1901.....	164	32,218	62,735	51.36	110,193	672	3.4
1902.....	123	36,671	64,196	57.12	128,200	1,042	3.5
1903.....	550	86,832	138,877	62.52	444,919	809	5.1
1904.....	68	24,904	51,642	48.22	185,412	2,727	7.4
Total.....	1,765	431,254	821,015	52.53	2,079,408	1,178	4.8

There seem to have been two well-defined waves in the strike movement, the first in the period 1897–1899, and the second in 1903.

The distribution of the strikes and strikers, by months, shows a concentration of the strike movement within the four months of April, May, June, and July, which, during the 10-year period, claimed 1,100 strikes out of 1,765, or 62.3 per cent, and 227,037 strikers out of 431,254, or 52.7 per cent. The following table shows the aggregate number of strikes and strikers and the average number of strikers per strike during the period, 1895 to 1904, by months:

NUMBER OF STRIKES AND STRIKERS, AND AVERAGE STRIKERS PER STRIKE, BY MONTHS, FOR THE PERIOD, 1895 TO 1904.

Month.	Strikes.		Strikers.		Average number of strikers per strike.
	Number.	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	
January.....	102	5.8	43,192	10.0	423
February.....	54	3.0	24,609	5.7	456
March.....	62	3.5	27,801	6.4	448
April.....	168	9.5	28,243	6.6	168
May.....	197	11.2	85,096	19.7	432
June.....	259	14.6	39,696	9.2	153
July.....	476	27.0	74,002	17.2	155
August.....	107	6.1	23,269	5.4	217
September.....	125	7.2	21,587	5.0	173
October.....	91	5.1	19,710	4.6	217
November.....	66	3.7	16,529	3.8	250
December.....	58	3.3	27,520	6.4	474
Total.....	1,765	100.0	431,254	100.0	244

The next table shows the distribution of strikes and strikers during the period, by industry groups:

STRIKES, STRIKERS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY INDUSTRIES, 1895 TO 1904.

Industry.	Strikes.		Strikers.		Working days lost.	
	Number.	Per cent of total.	Number.	Per cent of total.	Total.	Average per striker.
Cotton.....	253	14.4	185,101	42.9	945,686	5.1
Wool.....	225	12.8	20,169	4.7	155,843	7.7
Silk.....	6	.3	1,649	.4	7,273	4.4
Flax, hemp, and jute.....	64	3.6	19,157	4.4	62,549	3.3
Other textiles.....	44	2.5	19,736	2.5	51,688	4.8
Paper and printing.....	136	7.7	9,154	2.1	33,878	3.7
Woodworking.....	89	5.1	7,040	1.6	24,860	3.5
Metal working.....	336	19.0	116,973	27.1	541,960	4.6
Stone, earthen, glass, and china ware.....	129	7.3	15,791	3.7	60,581	3.8
Animal products.....	186	10.5	10,751	2.5	79,834	7.4
Food products.....	177	10.0	23,479	5.5	71,646	3.1
Chemical products.....	120	6.8	11,254	2.6	43,610	3.9
Total.....	1,765	100.0	431,254	100.0	2,079,408	4.8

The table shows that strikes were most frequent in the textile industry and in metal working (mainly the iron and steel industry), the first group comprising 592 strikes, or 33.6 per cent, and 236,812 employees, or 54.9 per cent, and the second group 336 strikes or 19 per cent, and 116,973 employees, or 27.1 per cent.

The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers, for each year of the period, by industry groups:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

STRIKES.

Year.	Cot- ton.	Wool.	Silk.	Flax and hemp	Other tex- tiles.	Paper and print- ing.	Wood- work- ing	Metal work- ing.	Stone- ware, etc.	Ani- mal prod- ucts.	Food prod- ucts.	Chem- ical prod- ucts.	Total.
1895.....	15	24	1	2	1	8	7	4	3	3	68
1896.....	32	37	4	5	1	2	8	8	16	3	2	118
1897.....	47	3	2	3	6	3	3	15	7	28	7	1	145
1898.....	38	105	2	2	5	6	21	17	4	11	4	215
1899.....	19	16	1	12	12	2	13	69	14	12	14	5	189
1900.....	17	10	12	1	2	4	17	16	18	27	1	125
1901.....	26	6	1	7	6	2	4	26	27	37	17	5	164
1902.....	17	4	1	2	1	7	12	36	10	6	23	4	123
1903.....	18	11	1	10	8	110	38	119	17	60	67	91	550
1904.....	4	9	11	1	4	6	17	6	1	5	4	68
Total...	253	225	6	64	44	136	89	336	129	186	177	120	1,765

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904—Concluded.

STRIKERS.

Year.	Cotton.	Wool.	Silk.	Flax and hemp.	Other textiles.	Paper and printing.	Wood-working.
1895.....	18,283	7,387	450	230	24
1896.....	21,628	543	472	2,592	10	200
1897.....	46,089	54	293	1,099	2,626	826	120
1898.....	24,642	3,519	955	165	712	464
1899.....	15,474	4,403	400	4,044	2,543	125	2,151
1900.....	13,038	1,252	1,975	50	24	452
1901.....	7,341	567	110	2,463	260	28	453
1902.....	15,100	380	500	184	62	243	902
1903.....	18,810	697	346	5,471	2,199	7,137	1,878
1904.....	3,696	1,367	2,044	9	49	396
Total.....	185,101	20,169	1,649	19,157	10,736	9,154	7,040

Year.	Metal working.	Stone-ware, etc.	Animal products.	Food products.	Chemical products.	Total.
1895.....	2,201	653	161	1,450	356	31,195
1896.....	2,359	719	553	306	145	29,527
1897.....	3,157	826	291	3,389	100	59,870
1898.....	7,116	1,714	271	3,482	110	43,150
1899.....	19,603	2,230	1,487	1,409	3,629	57,498
1900.....	9,045	1,498	265	1,723	67	29,389
1901.....	15,527	1,367	1,497	1,456	1,149	32,218
1902.....	12,663	3,240	286	2,042	1,069	36,671
1903.....	30,935	2,437	5,904	6,719	4,299	86,832
1904.....	14,367	1,107	36	1,503	330	24,904
Total.....	116,973	15,791	10,751	23,479	11,254	431,254

It appears that for the first half of the decade covered by the report the strikes were mainly in the textile industries. In 1899 the metal industry, and in 1903 both this and the printing industries were those most severely affected.

In the next table the number and per cent of strikes and strikers and the working days lost during the period are shown, by causes:

STRIKES, STRIKERS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY CAUSES, 1895 TO 1904.

Cause or object.	Strikes.		Strikers.			Working days lost.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Average per strike.	Total.	Average per striker.
For increase of wages.....	754	42.7	98,767	22.9	131	494,814	5.0
Against reduction of wages.....	128	7.3	61,271	14.2	479	283,880	4.6
Methods of wage payment.....	189	10.7	48,523	11.3	257	206,261	4.3
For reduction of hours.....	284	16.1	81,009	18.8	285	422,740	5.2
Against increase of hours.....	41	2.3	22,460	5.2	548	166,862	7.4
Arrangement of working hours.....	60	3.4	25,889	6.0	431	47,018	1.8
Against imposition of fines.....	26	1.5	14,727	3.4	566	101,372	6.9
Dissatisfaction with foremen, superintendents, etc.....	77	4.3	40,977	9.5	532	188,060	4.6
Dissatisfaction with quarters and board.....	28	1.6	2,928	.6	105	3,856	1.3
Miscellaneous and sympathetic.....	178	10.1	34,703	8.1	195	164,545	4.7
Total.....	1,765	100.0	431,254	100.0	244	2,079,408	4.8

Questions of wages and pay caused 60.7 per cent of all the strikes, and 48.4 per cent of all striking employees, while questions of hours

of work caused 21.8 per cent of all strikes with 30 per cent of all strikers.

Demands for higher wages and shorter hours, i. e., demands for betterment of the conditions of the labor contract, were responsible for almost three-fifths (58.8 per cent) of the strikes, and over two-fifths (41.7 per cent) of the number of strikers. But an interesting feature is that the largest strikes, as indicated by the largest average number of strikers, were caused by grievances rather than demands, namely, by fines, resistance to lengthening of hours, dissatisfaction with superintendence, or to reduction of wages, so that while for all strikes the average number of days lost per striker was 4.8, in cases of strikes caused by fines, it was 6.9, and in cases of resistance to longer hours, 7.4.

The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers, respectively, for each year of the period, classified according to the causes of the strikes:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY CAUSES AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

STRIKES.

Year.	For increase of wages.	Against reduction of wages.	Methods of wage payment.	For reduction of hours.	Against increase of hours.	Arrangement of working hours.	Against imposition of fines.	Dissatisfaction with foremen, superintendents, etc.	Dissatisfaction with quartermen and board.	Miscellaneous and sympathetic.	Total.
1895.....	21	21	11	4	2	4	4	1	68
1896.....	50	6	19	23	2	2	3	5	3	5	118
1897.....	31	12	28	42	17	7	2	3	1	2	145
1898.....	130	19	13	10	4	21	3	11	8	6	215
1899.....	107	12	13	32	4	1	6	3	11	189
1900.....	29	14	23	34	4	2	2	4	3	10	125
1901.....	59	11	25	46	2	5	1	7	3	5	164
1902.....	35	14	19	14	3	6	3	16	2	11	123
1903.....	276	7	26	77	9	2	4	15	1	126	550
1904.....	26	12	12	2	9	3	6	3	2	68
Total..	754	128	189	284	41	60	26	77	28	178	1,765

STRIKERS.

1895.....	5,564	15,523	2,289	881	140	1,327	5,437	34	31,195
1896.....	1,662	3,741	3,587	17,561	306	1,196	205	337	193	239	29,527
1897.....	6,195	7,926	13,382	12,574	13,639	2,595	730	2,270	42	517	59,870
1898.....	6,941	5,703	3,786	3,452	960	13,221	633	5,717	1,177	1,560	43,150
1899.....	27,068	6,228	7,203	9,002	823	76	3,662	313	3,123	57,498
1900.....	5,563	5,556	4,084	2,188	6,564	548	95	390	232	4,179	29,389
1901.....	4,599	1,853	2,202	14,081	250	1,602	27	6,954	130	520	32,218
1902.....	4,939	7,990	3,465	3,211	365	3,550	1,810	6,246	53	5,042	36,671
1903.....	29,808	5,960	5,903	15,664	376	666	1,138	7,619	676	19,022	86,832
1904.....	6,428	791	2,622	2,395	1,548	8,686	1,855	78	501	24,904
Total..	98,767	61,271	48,523	81,009	22,460	25,889	14,727	40,977	2,928	34,703	431,254

In Russia the duration of strikes is usually brief. It has been shown that the average number of days lost per striker was 4.8. Almost one-half of all the strikes (48.5 per cent) lasted three days

or less, and over five-sixths (84.6) not more than ten days. This is shown in the following table:

STRIKES, BY DURATION AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Less than ½ day.	½ day to 2 days.	2 to 3 days.	3 to 5 days.	5 to 10 days.	10 to 15 days.	15 to 20 days.	20 to 30 days.	30 or more days.	Un-known	No loss of time.	Total.
1895.....	8	23	9	6	13	2	1	6	68
1896.....	8	31	4	11	52	9	1	1	1	118
1897.....	10	48	15	21	21	10	2	16	1	1	145
1898.....	15	72	12	10	8	98	215
1899.....	16	55	23	22	58	10	3	1	189
1900.....	6	31	43	14	11	5	1	12	2	125
1901.....	20	43	20	13	24	16	24	1	2	1	164
1902.....	17	47	19	15	10	10	2	1	1	1	123
1903.....	27	107	89	204	100	4	14	2	1	1	1	550
1904.....	10	16	12	15	10	1	2	1	68
Total No.	137	473	246	331	307	67	45	14	131	7	7	1,765
Per cent.	7.8	26.8	13.9	18.8	17.3	3.8	2.6	0.8	7.4	0.4	0.4	100.0

The number of strikes, strikers, and working days lost for the period are shown, by results, in the following table:

STRIKES, STRIKERS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY RESULTS, 1895 TO 1904.

Strikes which—	Strikes.		Strikers.			Working days lost.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Average number per establishment.	Total.	Average per striker.
Succeeded.....	498	28.2	116,629	27.1	234	447,456	3.8
Succeeded partly.....	384	21.8	84,069	19.5	219	437,170	5.2
Failed.....	802	45.4	222,679	51.6	278	1,138,761	5.2
Result unknown.....	81	4.6	7,877	1.8	97	46,021	5.8
Total.....	1,765	100.0	431,254	100.0	244	2,079,408	4.8

A little over one-fourth of the strikes resulted favorably to the employees, about one-fifth in compromises, and about one-half in favor of the employers. In case of the other strikes the results were not reported.

The table following shows the results of strikes, for strikes and strikers, for each year from 1895 to 1904:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Strikes which—						Strikes the results of which were unknown.		Total strikes.
	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Number.	Per cent.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.			
1895.....	37	54.41	19	27.94	12	17.65	68
1896.....	26	22.03	8	6.78	77	65.26	7	5.93	118
1897.....	44	30.35	15	10.34	84	57.93	2	1.38	145
1898.....	49	22.79	113	52.56	52	24.19	1	.46	215
1899.....	31	16.40	27	14.29	131	69.31	189
1900.....	31	24.80	36	28.80	56	44.80	2	1.60	125
1901.....	67	40.85	33	20.12	64	39.03	164
1902.....	37	30.08	16	13.01	69	56.10	1	.81	123
1903.....	146	26.91	100	19.82	225	40.91	68	12.36	550
1904.....	28	41.13	8	11.76	32	47.06	68
Total.....	498	28.21	384	21.76	802	45.44	81	4.59	1,765

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904—Concluded.

Year.	Strikers in strikes which—						Strikers in strikes the results of which were unknown.		Total strikers.
	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Number.	Per cent.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.			
1895.....	12,497	40.06	13,560	43.47	5,138	16.47	31,195
1896.....	4,995	16.92	1,392	4.71	23,094	78.21	46	0.16	29,527
1897.....	22,529	37.63	12,911	21.57	24,415	40.78	15	.02	59,870
1898.....	12,175	28.22	8,992	20.84	21,839	50.61	144	.33	43,150
1899.....	11,563	20.11	12,128	21.09	33,807	58.80	57,496
1900.....	5,873	19.09	10,613	36.11	11,603	39.48	1,300	4.42	29,389
1901.....	11,981	37.19	2,660	8.25	17,577	54.56	32,218
1902.....	6,550	17.86	5,026	13.71	25,060	68.34	35	.09	36,671
1903.....	25,086	28.89	14,807	17.05	40,602	46.76	6,337	7.30	80,832
1904.....	3,380	13.57	1,980	7.95	19,544	78.48	24,904
Total.....	116,629	27.04	84,069	19.49	222,679	51.64	7,877	1.83	431,254

In the following table the number and per cent of strikes which succeeded, succeeded partly, and failed are shown for the period, by causes:

STRIKES, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, 1895 TO 1904.

Cause or object.	Strikes which—						Strikes the results of which were unknown.		Total strikes.
	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Number.	Per cent.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.			
For increase of wages.....	137	18.2	237	31.4	302	40.1	78	10.3	754
Against reduction of wages....	60	46.9	30	23.4	38	29.7	128
Methods of wage payment.....	116	61.4	23	12.2	50	26.4	189
Total.....	313	29.2	290	27.1	390	36.4	78	7.3	1,071
For reduction of hours.....	69	24.3	65	22.9	150	52.8	284
Against increase of hours.....	26	63.4	5	12.2	10	24.4	41
Arrangement of working hours.....	27	45.0	6	10.0	27	45.0	60
Total.....	122	31.7	76	19.7	187	48.6	385
Against imposition of fines..	6	23.1	2	7.7	18	69.2	26
Dissatisfaction with foremen, superintendents, etc.	21	27.3	11	14.3	45	58.4	77
Dissatisfaction with quarters and board.....	18	64.3	1	3.6	8	28.5	1	3.6	28
Total.....	45	34.3	14	10.7	71	54.2	1	.8	131
Miscellaneous and sympathetic.....	18	10.1	4	2.3	154	86.5	2	1.1	178
Grand total.....	498	28.2	384	21.8	802	45.4	81	4.6	1,765

Combining the strikes that succeeded with those that succeeded partly, it appears that strikes in resistance to lower wages and longer hours resulted more favorably to employees than those for higher wages and shorter hours.

The report also contains data as to disputes, accompanied by extraordinary measures and occurrences. Since the Russian factory law of 1886 requires two weeks' notice by either party for a dissolution of

the contract of employment, most strikes lasting fewer than fourteen days do not constitute a dissolution of a labor contract, and hence do not result in dismissal of the strikers. Dismissals of part of the employees occurred in 190 cases and dismissals of all the workers in 137 cases. Arrests and deportations of strikers to their homes (the legal residence of factory workers being usually some village) took place in 269 cases, destruction of property took place in 71 cases, and the military forces were called out in 340 cases. Both destruction of property and use of the military forces occurred frequently during the strikes of 1903. The conflicts were most numerous in the metal industry and in the oil industry of the Caucasus.

The following table shows the number of strikes that were accompanied by extraordinary measures and occurrences:

STRIKES, ACCOMPANIED BY EXTRAORDINARY MEASURES AND OCCURENCES, BY YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Strikes resulting in—		Strikes accompanied by—		
	Dismissal of part of the employees.	Dismissal of all of the employees.	Arrests or deportations to workmen's homes.	Use of the military.	Destruction of property
1895.....	12	2	10	4	4
1896.....	39	3	24	2	7
1897.....	22	12	34	20	4
1898.....	20	11	19	8	4
1899.....	15	12	87	30	3
1900.....	17	10	12	8	1
1901.....	13	12	27	31	14
1902.....	20	11	22	23	2
1903.....	29	53	19	211	32
1904.....	3	11	15	3
Total.....	190	137	269	340	71

DECISIONS OF COURTS AFFECTING LABOR.

[Except in cases of special interest, the decisions here presented are restricted to those rendered by the Federal courts and the higher courts of the States and Territories. Only material portions of such decisions are reproduced, introductory and explanatory matter being given in the words of the editor. Decisions under statute law are indexed under the proper headings in the cumulative index, page 1037 et seq.]

DECISIONS UNDER STATUTE LAW.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—SUPERINTENDENT ACTING AS LABORER—CONTINUING DUTY—PARENTS' RIGHT TO SUE FOR LOSS OF MINOR'S SERVICES—*Jordan v. New England Structural Company, Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, 83 Northeastern Reporter, page 332.*—There were two cases under this title before the court on appeal from the superior court of Suffolk County. A minor, T. F. Jordan, was suing by his next friend to recover damages for injuries received while in the employment of the company, and his father was suing for loss of services. Judgment was for the plaintiffs in both cases in the court below. On appeal, however, it was held that the "Fellow-servant law," under which alone the action could be brought, did not give the father a right to sue. The judgment in behalf of the son was affirmed.

The facts appear in the opinion, which was delivered by Judge Knowlton and is in the main as follows:

In the defendant's shop there was a large crane, estimated to weigh about 20 tons, which passed in and out upon an iron track nearly 20 feet above the ground, which track was supported by girders. The track and girders were taken down and replaced by new ones. While the work was going on and before the old track was entirely removed, the crane ran in and out over that part which was in position, and as soon as the new track was in place and safely supported it began to run in and out occasionally over that. The minor plaintiff was an iron worker. He was sent with another man to put in a bracket underneath the girder, between the pillars that supported it, and in doing the work he stood upon a narrow piece of iron and steadied himself by taking hold of the track above the girder with one hand. His companion went away temporarily, and John Flynn, a foreman who directed the work, came up to take his place, standing in a similar way, with one of his hands holding the rail of the track. The crane came along over the track and cut off the ends of two of the plaintiff's fingers.

There was ample evidence to warrant a finding that Flynn was a superintendent within the meaning of the statute. The jury might well find that it was a part of his duty to warn workmen, who were in exposed positions of the coming of the crane, if they were where they would not be likely to see it. There was testimony that he had given such warnings repeatedly during the progress of the work. It appeared that the place was very noisy, and that the plaintiff could not hear nor see the approach of the crane while he was working below the girder. His back was towards the crane as it approached, while the superintendent was facing it. There was testimony that the superintendent could have seen the crane as it was coming, although this was disputed. The superintendent was not relieved from the obligation to use due care for the safety of the employees by his taking the place of the plaintiff's companion, temporarily, to assist in the work of putting in the bracket. It was a question for the jury whether the superintendent was negligent in failing to discover the approach of the crane and to warn the plaintiff of his danger. It was also a question for the jury whether the plaintiff was in the exercise of due care. In this case the defendant's exceptions must be overruled.

The claim of the father presents a different question. This, like the other, is brought under the employer's liability act, and no negligence is charged except that of the superintendent. At common law neither of the plaintiffs could recover, as the only negligence complained of was that of a fellow-servant. The employer's liability act cannot be availed of by the father to recover for loss of service or for expenses, inasmuch as this statute gives a right of action only to the employee or his legal representatives, or, if he is instantly killed or dies without conscious suffering, to his widow or next of kin. (Rev. Laws, c. 106, secs. 71-73.) "The employee or his legal representatives shall * * * have the same rights to compensation and of action against the employer as if he had not been an employee," etc. If he is a minor, this enlargement of his rights at common law does not extend to his father, suing in his own right.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—SUPERINTENDENT ACTING AS LABORER—
QUESTION FOR JURY—*Gallagher v. Newman, Court of Appeals of New York, 83 Northeastern Reporter, page 480.*—Annie Gallagher sued to recover damages for the death of her husband, caused, as alleged, by the negligence of one Brady, who was Newman's foreman. Judgment was for the plaintiff in the trial court and the appellate division of the supreme court, but was reversed on further appeal and a new trial ordered.

It appears that the foreman called on the deceased and a fellow-workman to assist in replacing a belt that had slipped from its place, and that while they were so employed, Brady, with the apparent purpose of furthering the undertaking, threw on the power at such time as to inflict the injuries that caused Gallagher's death. The instructions by the trial judge were held not to have properly submitted to

the jury the question of the nature of the act of Brady, whether he was at the time a superintendent, so that the employer was bound by his action, or whether the act was one of mere coservice and so not within the provisions of the employers' liability law of 1902, under which the suit was brought.

The construction of the law adopted by the court of appeals is set forth in the following excerpt from the opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Hiscock:

The employer's liability act provides for a recovery by the administrator of a deceased employee the same as though the intestate had not been an employee where the injury was caused "by reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer intrusted with and exercising superintendence, whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence." As was said by this court in *Harris v. Baltimore Machine & Elevator Works*, 188 N. Y. 144, 80 N. E. 1028, this statute "gave an additional cause of action; because it prescribed that a master shall be liable for the negligence of the superintendent, or the person acting as such. * * * At common law such a liability was not recognized, unless the superintending servant was the alter ego of the master with respect to the work." This court may be regarded as having formulated under this act the principles that an employer is not liable for the negligent act of an employee simply because the latter ordinarily is engaged in discharging duties of superintendence, nor, on the contrary, is the employer exempted from liability for such act simply because it is one which may be described in some sense as "a detail of the work;" but the employer is liable or not accordingly as the negligent act is one of or pertaining to superintendence, or is one which is the subject of performance by ordinary, subordinate employees, and including no element of superior duty, supervision, or command.

These principles were last discussed and approved by this court in the case of *Guilmartin v. Solvay Process Company*, 189 N. Y. 490, 82 N. E. 725. In that case some of the defendant's employees were engaged in readjusting a belt on a pulley. One Mullin was the foreman of the shift or gang to which the plaintiff belonged, and had power to stop the machinery in case of accident or emergency. On being informed of the accident, he caused the movement of the engine to be slowed down, and then directed the plaintiff with other workmen to cut the lacing of the belt, he personally joining in the work. After the belt was cut he directed one of the workmen to throw the loose end on the floor. The shaft pulley being relieved from the strain of the taut belt again revolved with the shaft and caused the loose end of the belt to strike and injure the plaintiff. The plaintiff recovered a judgment in the trial court, which was reversed by the appellate division, on the ground that the negligence of Mullin in failing to stop the engine, if negligence it was, was the negligence of a fellow-servant in a detail of the work for which the master was not liable. Judge Cullen, writing in behalf of this court, for a reversal of the decision of the appellate division, said: "To render the master liable, the negligence must not only be on the part of the person who is acting as superintendent, but also in an act of superintendence. But if the act be of that character the fact that in a sense

it is a detail of the work will not relieve the master from liability. In the prosecution of many, if not most, works, superintendence is a detail of the work, in the accurate use of that term. It is often so denominated in the older cases, and properly so, because, before the statute, it was unnecessary to distinguish between negligence of a superintendent and that of a colaborer of the same grade as that of the person injured so far as any liability of the master was involved. The statute has changed this. In the *McHugh* case, 179 N. Y. 378, 72 N. E. 312, the defendant was held liable for the negligence of a train dispatcher in starting a train. The dispatcher performed that act, doubtless, scores of times a day, and its performance was a mere detail of his ordinary day's work. Therefore the question in any case brought under the statute is not whether the negligent act is a detail of the work, but whether it is a detail of the superintendent's part of the work, or of the subordinate employees and servants. In the present case had the foreman Mullin attempted to stop the engine himself, and so carelessly done the work as to cause injury to the other employees, that might very well be deemed the negligence of a coservant for which the master would not be liable, but the determination of the question whether the machinery should be stopped before the men were put to work on it was of a very different character. None of the other workmen could direct the engine to be stopped. He alone had that power. His direction in reference thereto or failure to direct was an act of superintendence. At least the jury was authorized to so find."

In the present case the act of Brady which resulted in the intestate's death is doubtless near the border line which separates superintendence from mere employment and manual labor. If, without taking any part in the actual adjustment of the belt on the pulleys, he had superintended the operation, and had directed the shifting of the lever which put the shaft in motion and injured intestate, there could be little doubt as to the character of his act as being one of superintendence. That, however, is not the case. He took actual part with the others in the manual labor directed toward the readjustment of the belt, the others working at one end of it and he at the other, and, as we have already said, it seems permissible to infer that his act in putting the shaft in motion was a mere continuance of his labor for the purpose of permitting the belt to be still further rolled onto the pulley. It fairly may be contended, in the language of Judge Braley, in *Meagher v. Crawford Laundry Co.*, 187 Mass. 586, 73 N. E. 853, that he was "engaged with the men in a common task of manual labor," and we think that the appellant was entitled to have the jury say whether his act in moving the lever was comprehended within the lines of his duty as superintendent or was the act of an ordinary employee engaged with others in a common joint attempt to readjust the belt.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN—HOURS OF LABOR—DELEGATION OF LEGISLATIVE AUTHORITY—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Burcher v. People*, *Supreme Court of Colorado*, 93 *Pacific Reporter*, page 14.—Frank Burcher and others were convicted of employing a woman in

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violation of the act of 1903 (chapter 138), which limits employment to eight hours per day in certain designated industries and in other employments "at the discretion of the court." The constitutionality of the act was attacked on various grounds, but two of which were considered by the court, as on both of them the law was held to be unconstitutional.

The first ground related to the agreement of the title and the body of the law, and need not be considered. As to the second, Judge Campbell, who gave the opinion, referred to the following provision of the constitution:

"The general assembly shall provide by law, and shall prescribe suitable penalties for the violation thereof, for a period of employment not to exceed eight (8) hours within any twenty-four (24) hours (except in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger), for persons employed in underground mines or other underground workings, blast furnaces, smelters; and any ore reduction works or other branch of industry or labor that the general assembly may consider injurious or dangerous to health, life, or limb."

He then said:

The second assignment we think is well laid, and it matters not whether the source of the power of this legislation is to be found in the express command contained in the constitutional amendment, or is inherent in the police power of the State. The question as to whether the general assembly by this amendment is given any greater power in making regulations concerning the unenumerated branches of "industry or labor" than that body theretofore and always has possessed as a part of its general legislative power, and certain other questions argued by counsel, we find it unnecessary to determine upon this review. And upon all questions not included in the two assignments determined, and as to the enforceability, meaning, scope, and applicability of this constitutional amendment, we withhold expression of opinion until a cause involving them is before us. If the power to enact such legislation as this reposes in the amendment, or is inherently a part of the general legislative power belonging to the general assembly, it is entirely clear that the power itself must be exercised, in the first instance, by that lawmaking body. With the ultimate authority of the courts, as was held in *re Morgan*, 26 Colo. 415, 58 Pac. 1071, 17 L. R. A. 52, 77 Am. St. Rep. 269, to determine as to the validity of the exercise of the police power, both as to the subject selected and reasonableness of the regulation, we are not now concerned. But it is unquestionably true, and can not be, and is not, controverted, that the legislative branch of government alone has the authority, and is charged with the duty, of enacting such regulations, and can not relinquish or delegate it to either of the other great coordinate departments of government. That this is the correct doctrine is declared by all the cases, and by every author and jurist who has spoken on the subject. The amendment recognizes this doctrine when, after specifying particular occupations in which the period of employment is prescribed, it adds, "or other branch of industry or labor that the general assembly may consider injurious or dangerous

to health, life or limb." Here we have, as to unnamed branches of industry and labor, the express limitation that regulations concerning hours of employment in them must be restricted to those which the general assembly may consider injurious or dangerous to health, life, or limb. We look in vain to find that the general assembly in section 3, or in any part of this, or any other, act, has considered or declared the laundry business, or even labor therein of any kind, either injurious or dangerous. The mere general prohibition of employment in harmless occupations beyond, or in excess of, specified hours, is not the equivalent of a solemn finding and declaration of the general assembly that such occupations are injurious or dangerous. The amendment contemplates that not until after the general assembly has considered and enacted that they are of that character can regulations of employment therein, and prohibition of labor beyond a certain time, be made effective, or violations thereof punished as a crime or misdemeanor.

In marked contrast with this act is the act of the fifteenth general assembly, found in Sess. Laws 1905, p. 284, c. 119. In that act the general assembly was evidently intending to carry out the mandate of the constitutional amendment that is here invoked. That title is: "An act to declare certain employments injurious and dangerous to health, life and limb; regulating the hours of employment in underground mines and other underground workings, in smelters and ore reduction works, in stamp mills, in chlorination and cyanide mills, and employment about or attending blast furnaces, and providing a penalty for the violation thereof." The occupations named in section 1 of the act of 1905, which include all of those expressly enumerated in the constitutional amendment, and several others assumed by the general assembly to be of similar character and hence within the language of the amendment "any other branch of industry or labor," are by the general assembly expressly "declared dangerous and injurious to health, life and limb," and this declaration is immediately followed by a provision that the period of employment for all persons employed in such occupations shall be eight hours per day. Here we find that the general assembly conceived that its duty under this amendment was, first, to declare certain occupations to be dangerous or injurious, and then to make the desired regulations concerning the hours of employment. This method was entirely ignored in the act which we are considering. Reading the act of 1903 in its entirety, it is plain that our general assembly did not purport to say, and did not intend to declare, what occupations were, in its judgment, dangerous or injurious, and therefore occupations of such a character as to justify regulations of hours or labor therein, for in section 2 it said: "All paper mills, cotton mills and factories where wearing apparel for men and women is made, ore reduction mills or smelters, factories, shops of all kinds and stores may be held to be unhealthful and dangerous occupations within the meaning of this act at the discretion of the court." It must be borne in mind, as the attorney-general must concede, that under our constitution the right of contracting for one's labor is reserved and guaranteed to every citizen. It is subject to no restraint, except where the public safety, health, peace, morals, or general welfare demands it, and then only where the legislative department of the State government, in the exercise of its police power,

selects a proper subject for its exercise and prescribes reasonable and appropriate regulations. In the absence, therefore, of a legitimate exercise by the general assembly of this power by a declaration to the contrary, the defendants might lawfully by contract require a woman to work more than eight hours per day in their laundry. Yet here is an attempted relinquishment by the lawmaking body of that very power of legislation, and a futile effort to confer upon the courts the authority to make such laws, by saying, in their discretion, and in the first instance, and with no previous declaration on the subject by the general assembly, what occupations are unhealthful and dangerous. This is a palpable evasion of duty, coupled with an abortive attempt to give to the courts legislative power to make crimes and misdemeanors out of the acts which are not in violation of any valid legislative enactment. It is manifest, therefore, that, as to section 3, at least one essential condition precedent to the validity of enactments of this kind is lacking, namely, the considering or finding by the general assembly that the occupation in question is of a character concerning which only can it, in any event, adopt such regulations as are assumed to be contained in this act. If this, however, were not so, this judgment must be reversed; for, if the courts have the power which section 2 ineffectually tries to give them, the laundry business must be considered healthful, for counsel themselves, in their stipulation of facts, on which the record shows the cause was decided, are in accord that such occupation is healthful. Upon the two grounds discussed, we hold section 3 to be unconstitutional and void.

EXAMINATION AND LICENSING OF BARBERS—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*State v. Walker, Supreme Court of Washington, 92 Pacific Reporter, page 775.*—This case was before the supreme court on appeal from the superior court of Pierce County, in which the law (chapter 172, Acts of 1901) requiring barbers to be examined and procure a license before practicing their trade was declared unconstitutional. The supreme court reversed this ruling, holding the law to be constitutional, with the exception of a single provision, as appears from the following quotation from the opinion of the court, as delivered by Judge Mount:

The only question in the case is whether the act is valid under the State and Federal constitutions. In the case of *State v. Sharpless*, 31 Wash. 191, 71 Pac. 737, 96 Am. St. Rep. 893, the validity of this act was questioned upon several grounds, and we there held that the act was not unconstitutional upon any of the grounds claimed. Respondent now seeks to justify the ruling of the lower court upon the ground that the act is an abridgment of the liberty and natural rights of the citizen, which point was not passed upon in the *Sharpless* case. The case of *State ex rel. Richey v. Smith*, 42 Wash. 237, 84 Pac. 851, 5 L. R. A. (N. S.) 674, 114 Am. St. Rep. 114 [see Bulletin No. 67, p. 875], with the authorities therein cited, is relied upon as supporting the ruling of the lower court. That was a case where we were considering an act to regulate plumbing in certain cities of the

State. We there said: "The power of the legislature to make all needful rules and regulations for the health, comfort, and well-being of society can not be questioned, but there are certain limits beyond which the legislature can not go, without trenching upon liberty and property rights which are safeguarded by the State and Federal constitutions." We also said: "Acts of similar import, but relating to different professions, trades, and occupations, have often been before this court. Thus in *State v. Carey*, 4 Wash. 424, 30 Pac. 729, an act regulating the practice of medicine and surgery was sustained. In *State ex rel. Smith v. Board of Dental Examiners*, 31 Wash. 492, 72 Pac. 110, and *In re Thompson*, 36 Wash. 377, 78 Pac. 899, a similar act regulating the practice of dentistry was upheld. In *State v. Sharpless*, 31 Wash. 191, 71 Pac. 737, 96 Am. St. Rep. 893, involving the validity of the act regulating the business of barbering, a similar ruling was made. But in *re Aubrey*, 36 Wash. 308, 78 Pac. 900, 104 Am. St. Rep. 952 [see Bulletin No. 58 p. 994], an act regulating the business of horseshoeing was declared unconstitutional, and without the police power of the State. Some of the acts considered in the above cases were manifestly needful and proper for the protection of the public health; others were on the border line." By these last words the writer of that opinion evidently referred to the act relating to barbering. After further discussing the authorities and particularly considering the case before us, we concluded as follows: "We are satisfied that the act has no such relation to the public health as will sustain it as a police or sanitary measure, and that its interference with the liberty of the citizen brings it in direct conflict with the Constitution of the United States." We adhere to the rule and reasoning of that case. But there is a clear distinction between that case and this. The business of plumbing only remotely affects the public health. The skill or cleanliness of the plumber himself does not immediately affect the public any more than the skill or cleanliness of the ordinary scavenger affects it, because the business of plumbing does not bring the plumber in personal contact with the public. But the physician, the surgeon, the dentist, and the barber operate directly on the person, and therefore affect directly the health, comfort, and safety of the public. We think this marks the principal distinction between that class of trades, professions, or callings which may be regulated by law for public health, comfort, and safety, and that class which can not be so regulated without depriving a citizen of his natural rights and privileges guaranteed to him by fundamental law.

Respondent further takes the position that the act is void because it is manifest therefrom that the same was not passed as a measure to insure the public health, but solely to create a monopoly of barbers in this State; and, as supporting that position, our attention is called to that part of section 10 which provides, as a prerequisite to obtaining a certificate of registration, that the applicant "has studied the trade for two years as an apprentice under or as a qualified and practicing barber in this State or other States." It is claimed that this provision was made to destroy schools where barbering was taught in this and other States, and permitted practicing barbers to limit the number of applicants by refusing to receive apprentices. This provision, no doubt, gives strong color to the charge made; but we

think it is not of itself enough to avoid the whole act. The legislature or the board of examiners when authorized so to do may make and enforce reasonable rules and regulations in order to determine the qualification of applicants to practice that occupation. Unreasonable, arbitrary provisions can not be enforced. We think the provision quoted is both unreasonable and arbitrary. What the public is interested to know is that the barber is competent. How he has acquired his skill or knowledge is of minor importance. If he has qualified himself by attendance upon some school for that purpose, or by his own efforts unassisted, or by having served an apprenticeship under some qualified barber, or in some other equally efficacious way, that is all that can reasonably be required of him. To limit the qualifications to one particular way or to one particular place, where there are many universally recognized as equally good, and provide that none others need apply, is no doubt unreasonable. The result is that this requirement of the act is void. But that does not render the whole act void. In order to sustain the judgment in this case, it is necessary to avoid the whole act, which we can not do.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—STATUS OF UNINCORPORATED ASSOCIATIONS—SUIT FOR DISSOLUTION—UNLAWFUL ORGANIZATIONS—*Kealey et al. v. Faulkner et al.*, *Court of Common Pleas of Cuyahoga County, Ohio, 18 Superior and Common Pleas Decisions, page 498.*—This case was first heard on the demurrer to the petition of John A. Kealey and his associates, representing the flatteners and cutters, members of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America, who asked for a dissolution of the association. The defendants were members of the same association. The plaintiffs claimed that they had not received fair treatment from the hands of the organization; that the organization itself was illegal, and that there were funds on hand in excess of \$100,000 to which they had contributed. They asked that the association be dissolved and a receiver appointed and that the fund be distributed among the members of the organization according to their respective rights. The defendants demurred first on the ground that they were not sufficient parties to the action. The plaintiffs represented a large portion of the members, although a minority whose interests were identical with their own, while the defendants named were representatives of a class of persons too numerous to be individually present or make parties to the suit. The court discussed this question first and decided that under the laws of Ohio, Revised Statutes 5008, the parties' interests were properly represented, the statute providing that where a question is one of common or general interest of many persons and it is impracticable to bring them all before the court one or more may sue or defend for the benefit of all. The court held that the interests were properly represented by the parties before the court; that the defendants named had control of the funds of the association, and that making

them parties as was done in the suit was sufficient notice to the whole membership. The second demurrer was based on the substance of the petition. The petition claimed that the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America is in its purposes and methods a menace to the public welfare and should be dealt with as an organization that is opposed to the public policy of the country. Judge Phillips, before whom the case was heard, stated that before passing on this point it would be necessary to consider the principles upon which such a petition should be based and to discover as far as possible the true standard by which to determine a question of public policy. Among other things, he said:

One of the chief reasons for the creation of government, and therefore one of the chief functions of government, is to prevent extortion and oppression, and to foster a productive industry by maintaining a just division of the fruits of industry.

Every one is perfectly free to bring his capital, or his labor, into the market on such terms as he may deem best. This is a fundamental postulate, and as an inseparable corollary therefrom, no one may, of right, impair or impinge upon this individual freedom to use one's labor or capital.

This individual freedom as to the marketing of one's labor or capital belongs equally to an aggregation of labor or of capital; and the duty not to impair or impinge upon this freedom of labor and of capital rests equally upon any aggregation of men. In other words, the right is not enlarged, nor is the duty lessened, by the association. Stated differently again, this right and this duty do not arise from the coming together of men; they inhere in, and attach to, the individual, as a member of the community. And when labor or capital is united, for the advantageous marketing thereof, this individual right of freedom, and this individual duty to desist, attach to the aggregation, whether it be of capital or of labor.

I read an extract from an opinion in *Purvis v. United Brotherhood of Carpenters & Joiners*, 214 Pa. St. 348, 357 [63 Atl. Rep. 585; 112 Am. St. Rep. 757]:

"The right of a workman to freely use his hands and to use them for just whom he pleases, upon just such terms as he pleases, is his property, and so in no less degree is a man's business in which he has invested his capital. The right of each—employer and employee—is an absolute one, inherent and indefeasible, of which neither can be deprived, not even by the legislature itself. The protection of it, though as old as the common law, has been reguaranteed in our bill of rights. 'All men are born equally free and independent, and have certain inherent and indefeasible rights, among which are those of enjoying and defending life and liberty, of acquiring, possessing and protecting property and reputation, and of pursuing their own happiness.' * * * 'The principle upon which the cases, English and American, proceed, is that every man has the right to employ his talents, industry, and capital as he pleases, free from the dictation of others; and if two or more persons combine to coerce his choice in this behalf, it is a criminal conspiracy. The labor and skill of the workman, be it of high or low degree, the plant of the manufacturer, the equipment of the farmer, the investments of commerce are all, in

equal sense, property.' * * * A person's business is property, entitled under the constitution to protection from unlawful interference. Every person has a right, as between his fellow-citizens and himself, to carry on his business within legal limits, according to his own discretion and choice, with any means that are safe and healthful, and to employ therein such persons as he may select."

This right of commercial freedom, and this correlated duty to forbear, and the origin, the scope, and the purpose thereof, must be kept well in mind, for the due consideration, and the safe determination, of the questions that here confront us. If I may venture a modest criticism, it was failure to properly advert to these considerations that led some of the courts, in the earlier cases, to make announcements that have come to be regarded as of doubtful authority.

The Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America is composed of skilled workmen—artisans, men trained to dexterity in the making of window glass. Because these men are skilled in the manufacture of an important article of commerce, they are able to contribute, in a special way, and in special measure, to the productive industry of the community. Therefore the community has a special interest in the industrial freedom of these men, and each of them. One of these men could not obligate himself not to work at his trade. He might, of choice, decline to pursue his trade; but he could not obligate himself not to work at his trade; and if he should enter into a contract never again to work at his trade, the courts would not enforce the contract. Such contract would be against public policy. It would impair the industrial freedom in which the public is interested, and which it is the duty of government to protect and promote. It is this indicium, the impairment of industrial freedom, that discriminates and vitiates such contract.

Our supreme court has said of such engagement, that it tends to oppression by depriving the individual of the right to pursue a trade with which he is most familiar and by depriving the community of the services of a skilled laborer; and it tends indirectly to affect the price of such things as would be produced by his labor.

And for the same reasons that one man may not, by contractual obligation, impair or limit his industrial freedom, any number of men may not. And the individual may not, by union with others, surrender his right of industrial freedom to the association. The tendency of such impairment of the right of industrial freedom is against the general welfare, and is therefore against the public policy which is promotive of the public good.

Chief Justice Wilnot said (I read a quotation found in Crawford v. Wick, 18 Ohio St. 190, 203 [98 Am. Dec. 103]):

"Whatsoever a man may lawfully forbear, *that he may oblige himself against; except where a third person is wronged, or the public is prejudiced by it.*"

In the light of what has been said, and in the light of the authorities to be referred to, let us see what is the legal character and status of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America.

It is clear that the thing that vitiates a contract, under a principle of the law which we call "public policy," is not an intent to injure the public, but a *tendency* to the prejudice of the public. Actual injury is never required to be shown; it is the tendency to the prejudice of the public good, which vitiates contractual relations.

Within the limitations I have stated, men may combine and cooperate, for the advantageous marketing of their skill and labor, or their capital. But this right is limited to an advantageous marketing of labor or capital, and it is limited by the right of the public to have industrial and commercial freedom maintained and promoted. Whatever of purpose or of method transcends these bounds, if in its tendency it is opposed to the public welfare, is under the ban of the law and its administration.

The undoubted trend of modern business is for the combination, both of capital and of labor. Combinations of capital have become a necessity. The great business undertakings of these times could not be carried on without it. And most of the labor is now employed in large aggregations of men. There is as much right, and I think as much reason, for laborers to combine for their protection and benefit, as for capital to combine. This inevitable tendency to combine can neither be ignored or repressed, nor should it be.

There is no law to compel a man or a body of men to work, and there is no law to prevent a man or a body of men from refusing to work. If there were such law, it would violate fundamental property rights. Any man, and any body of men, may work for, or refuse to work for, whom they will. And the same freedom belongs to the employer of labor. These are fundamental principles, recognized in all the decisions that are authoritative.

It is noticeable, that nowhere do the by-laws of this organization state, in terms, its aims and purposes. These are to be gathered from the several provisions, and the general trend of the by-laws, and from the averments of the petition, which, for the purposes of this demurrer, are admitted, so far as they are well pleaded.

I think the leading general purpose of the association is, to protect and promote the interests of such window glass workers as may be members of the association,—a purpose that is not only lawful, but commendable, if the auxiliary purposes, and the methods to be employed, are likewise lawful.

First. It is one of the auxiliary purposes of this organization to prevent any one not a member thereof, or an apprentice authorized thereby, from working at the trade of window glass blower, gatherer, flattener or cutter. And I read from the by-laws that are made a part of the petition, sec. 2, page 18, of the copy that has been furnished me:

“No one not a member of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America shall be allowed to work at any of the four trades, excepting our own apprentices.”

Of course, this policy, if enforced, would promote the individual advantage of the members of the association. But how as to the other side of the equation? If this policy is enforced, the right of industrial freedom is thereby limited and impaired, and the public is deprived of the right it has in the full and free enjoyment of industrial freedom by every member of the community.

Second. This organization undertakes to limit the number of glass workers in this country. And I read from pages 8, 9 and 10, secs. 3, 4, 5, 13 and 20:

“Sec. 3. That aside from sons and brothers, not to exceed an additional 10 per cent of apprentices, per actual pot capacity in opera-

tion, shall be granted to learn the trade of gathering, for blast of 1906-07.

"Sec. 4. That not to exceed 10 per cent of the membership of flatteners shall be granted to learn to flatten, for blast of 1906-07.

"Sec. 5. That not to exceed 10 per cent of the membership of the cutters shall be granted to learn to cut, for blast of 1906-07.

"Sec. 13. Any member attempting to learn either of the four trades, or making application, without the proper permission and papers, shall be fined \$25.

"Sec. 20. No apprentice certificate shall be granted to any one who is not a white male, and has not attained the age of fifteen years, and must be of good moral character and able to read and write."

Judge Phillips then read an extract from the opinion in the case of *Gray v. Building Trades Council*. 91 Minn. 171, 97 N. W. Rep. 663, the last sentences being:

"Labor may organize, as capital does, for its own protection and to further the interests of the laboring class. They may strike, and persuade and induce others to join them, but when they resort to unlawful means to cause injury to others with whom they have no relation, contractual or otherwise, the limit permitted by the law is passed, and they may be restrained."

He then said:

Now, the provisions that I have read, reach beyond the membership of this organization. They undertake to prohibit others outside of its own membership from learning the trade of glass worker. That is interfering with fundamental rights. It is against the public policy, because it is for the public good that all men should be free to select, adopt and learn whatever trade they may desire, and then to pursue it. Now, interference with that is unlawful because it is against the public interest.

Then this organization places restrictions upon the labor of its own members. And I read several sections on that point. Page 10, sec. 25:

"No member of Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America shall be allowed to work at any nonunion works. For the violation of this law, they shall be subject to a fine at the discretion of the executive board."

Page 19, sec. 7:

"Any member signing an agreement of any kind to secure employment, shall be fined \$25 for first offense, \$50 for second offense, and be suspended from membership for third offense."

Page 21, sec. 20:

"No member of this association shall work for monthly wages, unless it be for guarantee to secure himself against loss or to retain himself in an undesirable position."

I read a short extract from a case in 2 Law Reports 622:

"Every workman is entitled to dispose of his labor on his own terms; but that right is conditioned, by the right of every other workman to do the like. In particular, each employee is, as I think, at liberty to decide for himself whether he will or will not work along with another individual in the same employ."

Page 25, sec. 18:

"No blower or gatherer shall work faster than at the rate of nine rollers per hour, excepting in case of roller falling off or pipes breaking. No blower or gatherer shall be allowed to start on the ninth roller until fifty minutes are up; this to also apply to the D. S. blower and gatherer according to their limit per hour, and that a fine of \$10 be imposed on any and all preceptors for the nonenforcement of this law."

Page 27, sec. 31:

"No cutter shall be allowed to cut for more than 3½ pots of S. S. and 3 pots of D. S."

Page 32, sec. 68:

"Any blower or gatherer working more than forty hours per week, shall, for the first offense, be fined \$50, and for the second offense be expelled from the organization."

I read from the case of *O'Brien v. People*, 216 Ill. 354, 372 [75 N. E. Rep. 108]:

"Every man has a right under the law, as between himself and others, to full freedom in disposing of his own labor or capital according to his own will, and any one who invades that right without lawful cause or justification commits a legal wrong, and, if followed by an injury caused in consequence thereof, the one whose right is thus invaded has a legal ground of action for such wrong. * * * It is now well settled that the privilege of contracting is both a liberty and a property right. Liberty includes the right to make and enforce contracts, because the right to make and enforce contracts is included in the right to acquire property. Labor is property. To deprive the laborer and the employer of this right to contract with one another is to violate sec. 2 of art. 2 of the constitution of Illinois, which provides that 'no person shall be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law.' It is equally a violation of the fifth and fourteenth amendments of the Constitution of the United States, which provide that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, and that no State shall deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, 'nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.'"

On pages 29 and 30, secs. 45 and 58, are other restrictions which have, by some courts been held to be lawful, but by the majority of decisions held to be illegal; I will not take time to read them.

On page 30, sec. 53, this organization places limitations upon its members as to working in factories where machinery is used:

"That no member of this association will be allowed to assist or try to operate any iron man, machine or invention, for the purpose of making window glass, except it be under the protection of the executive board or with the consent of the same. For violation of the above a member or members shall be fined, suspended or expelled from the association, as the executive board may decide."

The use of machinery, when it multiplies the products of labor, is in the interest of labor, and is in the interest of the general welfare; any provision, any contractual obligation which stands athwart this principle stands athwart the policy that the law enforces for the public welfare.

I have heard it stated,—I do not know how true it is,—perhaps approximately right,—that the machine energy in use in the United States amounts to one hundred millions of horsepower, doing the work of eight hundred millions of men, and that this machinery is operated by twenty millions of men. So that, by the use of machinery one man is enabled to do the work and make the production of forty men without machinery. This is in the interest of everybody, because it augments the fund total, that is the product of labor.

Then this organization undertakes to control the manufacturers. I read sec. 9 on page 4 of the by-laws:

“Every manufacturer engaging members of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America, shall sign the agreement of the association before the member will be allowed to work.”

Page 27, sec. 36:

“Each manufacturer shall be compelled to employ a boss cutter; and said boss cutter to be a member of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America, and he shall divide and distribute the orders among the cutters.”

Every manufacturer is compelled to employ a boss cutter who is to be subject to the direction of this association. And on page 28, secs. 40 and 41:

“Any manufacturer introducing into his flattening house, blow furnace, tanks, or pots, new inventions, supposed improvements, shall, so long as said inventions or improvements continue to be an experiment, or until it shall have been demonstrated that it will not be a loss to the workmen whose work is, or may be, affected by said machine or invention,” etc.

Sec. 41:

“All ten-pot furnaces shall be required to employ three flatteners, and no flattener shall flatten more than four pots, unless the president and executive board deem it absolutely necessary.”

Now, these provisions, if enforced, would impair the right of the employer to conduct his business according to his own notion of fitness. And it impairs the commercial freedom that belongs to the employer just as industrial freedom belongs to the individual laborer. This is outside of the membership of this association, and beyond any legitimate purpose that it can have, to wit, the benefit of its membership.

I have noted, and intended to read from, but I will not take the time to do so, *Curran v. Galen*, 152 N. Y. 33, 36, 38 [46 N. E. Rep. 168; 37 L. R. A. 802; 57 Am. St. Rep. 496]; *Erdman v. Mitchell*, 207 Pa. St. 79, 80 [56 Atl. Rep. 327; 63 L. R. A. 534; 99 Am. St. Rep. 783]; *Picket v. Walsh*, 192 Mass. 572, 580 [78 N. E. Rep. 753].

The by-laws of this association contain a multitude of provisions, not referred to by me because it would take too long, that give the organization absolute control of every member as a glass worker, and places him in complete servility to it. Every member of this body has surrendered his individuality, and his industrial freedom, and is no longer a personal factor in the industrial world. This is violative of fundamental personal rights, and of public rights, and is therefore unlawful.

This association undertakes to exclude all glass workers not members, and to limit manufacturers to employment of none but its members. This is deemed to constitute a monopoly.

On the basis of these considerations Judge Phillips ruled in favor of the contention of the plaintiffs, holding that by its express purposes and its conceded methods the association exerts an influence and has a tendency against the public policy of the State and is therefore an illegal organization.

The question then arose as to the rights of the plaintiffs who were members of the organization and had subscribed to its by-laws and joined in the actions which were condemned by the court. Judge Phillips stated in this connection that "it is too plain to require comment or the citation of authorities that the plaintiffs are *in pari delicto*, and that they do not come into court with clean hands." On this point Judge Phillips said further:

Such attitude of plaintiffs does not commend them to the court; and if the scope of this case is limited to the granting of relief to the plaintiffs they must go out of court, and must be left to bear the ills which their own wrongs have helped to bring upon them.

But it is claimed that inasmuch as this action is not to enforce an illegal contract, but is in disaffirmance of an executory contract, the court should entertain the action, not for the benefit of the plaintiffs, but in the interest of the public.

Anomalous and paradoxical as it would seem to be, to require actions to be brought in the name of the real party in interest, and limited, as to parties, to those who are interested in the subject of the controversy, and limiting the judgment to the parties that are before the court—I say anomalous and paradoxical as it would seem to impose these requirements, and then, finding that the parties to the action are not entitled to relief, to carry on the action in the interest of the public, I think it is a well-settled principle of judicial procedure, and of equity jurisprudence that this may be done in proper cases.

I read an extract from an opinion in *Congress & E. Spring Co. v. Knowlton*, 103 U. S. 49, 58 [26 L. Ed. 347]:

"And this distinction is taken in the books that where the action is in affirmance of an illegal contract, the object of which is to enforce the performance of an engagement prohibited by law, clearly such an action can in no case be maintained, but where the action proceeds in disaffirmance of such a contract, and instead of endeavoring to enforce it presumes it to be void and seeks to prevent the defendant from retaining the benefit which he derived from an unlawful act, then it is consonant to the spirit and policy of the law that the plaintiff should recover."

I think the case made in this petition comes within that doctrine. It stands as an exception to the general rule that parties *in pari delicto* can not have relief in a court of justice. This contract is still executory; the whole thing is in *feri*—the wrongs that may be committed against public policy are still to be committed; it is to be perpetuated; it is executory. And this action is not based upon any right of these plaintiffs as members of this association, it is not to perpetuate or to recognize or enforce this contract between the members of a society; it is in disaffirmance of a contract. It is to accomplish its destruction and thereby relieve the public, as well as these

plaintiffs, from the consequences of a continuation of this society and the perpetuation of the wrongs against the public that its provisions would work.

While these plaintiffs can not have relief in favor of their individual rights, I think that the court may, in a case of this kind, and in this case, grant that relief because thereby the public good may be promoted. I think it is an organization of such scope, such character, that the court when it gets jurisdiction of the organization and its membership, it should, in the interest of the public, entertain the action and grant such relief as will promote the public good—protect the public, even though it results in giving to these plaintiffs relief that as plaintiffs they are not entitled to.

Now, just what relief may be given under this petition—what relief ought to be given, what decree, or judgment, ought to be rendered in the case I do not think I am called upon, in the consideration of this demurrer, to determine. The court that tries the case will have that question, if the action is entertained, and I leave that question for the court when the case is tried, if it shall be tried.

For these reasons the demurrer, in both branches, is overruled.

At a later date the case came on for trial, the plaintiffs moving for judgment on the petition. No defense was submitted, so that the only questions that arose were as to the effect of the decree on the organization itself, and, second, as to the funds in its treasury. Judge Phillips decided that dissolution was necessary and that a receiver should be appointed for the distribution of the fund. The grounds of these conclusions appear in the following extracts from his opinion:

It is claimed on behalf of the defendants that all that the court is interested in, and all that the court is authorized to do, looking now to the public interest, may be accomplished by eliminating the illegal features of this contractual relation, by injunction, and leaving the society intact.

At the former hearing certain provisions of the by-laws were pointed out as illegal, and as giving character to the whole contractual relation—not all that were held to be illegal or found to be illegal were adverted to at that time, and need not be now. Of course, there are provisions in the articles of amalgamation, and there are provisions in the by-laws, that are entirely legal. It is suggested that if these provisions be left standing, and only the noxious provisions be eliminated by enjoining the society from operating under them, or any of them, that will accomplish all that is now sought to be accomplished by a decree.

I do not think this can be done, and for several reasons. I think it would be in effect the making by the court of a new contract for the members of this organization. A contract expurgated in that way would not be the contract that they entered into. There would then stand only a fragmentary part of the contract that was agreed to. It would lack the consent of the members, which is an indispensable prerequisite to a contract. No member of this organization has consented to enter into the contractual relations that would then exist; they could not be bound by it as their contract. The only jural relations these members have is a contractual relation, arising from the terms and conditions contained in the documents to which they have

consented. I think it would destroy the contract, and what would remain, as I have said, would lack the indispensable contractual element of consent of the parties. The court is never authorized to make a contract; the court may enforce a legal contract; the court may undo an illegal contract; and that is as far as it can go.

Another objection to such form of decree would be, that there is no legal and valid part of this contract. The contract was entered into as an entirety. All the documents, resolutions, etc., adopted and agreed to, enter into it and form the contract; on all of them rests the contractual relation among the members of this association. The illegal features, the illegal provisions in this entire contract are so numerous, and they so permeate the whole contract that the entire contract is vitiated. It can not be said that some of these things make a valid contract. There never has been, and there is not now, any legal contract or part of a contract existing. There is no legal contractual relation here to be left undisturbed. There was no legal contract in the beginning; *ergo*, there was no contract in the beginning, and there is therefore no contract to leave in force. If any material part of this contract should be eliminated by injunction, then there is nothing left to which the members have consented; there is nothing left that ever had in law any validity. You can not inspire this contract with validity by eliminating some parts of it. If such disposition of the case could be made, if I believed it could be made, I would be glad to leave such portions of the contract as are not vulnerable, stand, and leave the organization intact, resting upon such parts of an attempted contract. I can see no ground upon which that can be done legally. It is not the illegal features of the contract that the law condemns, it condemns the contract relation, because of its illegal features. As I said, these illegal features permeate the whole contract, and give to it its illegal character.

So I do not see how I can do otherwise than to dissolve this organization. I would not make such decree if I did not feel compelled to do it. Taking the view of this case that I have taken,—and I have arrived at it after full argument and careful consideration,—I think it is the only decree that can be made. Nothing short of this will maintain the law; nothing short of this will promote public policy in this instance.

Then, subject to the hearing of proof, and if the proof shall support the material allegations of the petition, the decree will be that this organization is dissolved.

There remains the disposition of the funds found within this organization, if they are to be dealt with. This is a matter to which I have given much less consideration than to the other questions.

One of two courses must be taken. Either the court must take possession of this fund and dispose of it, or it must be left in the hands of whomsoever may now have the possession of it.

In the last analysis, what, in fairness and reason, ought to be done with this money? The banks have no right to keep it; the officers have no right to keep it. The only persons who can have any right to it are the persons who paid it in. And such right does not arise by virtue of any legal effect that the organization ever had; it is outside of that. They are not entitled to it because they are members or were members of the society, when it was dissolved; that is not the basis of their right. The basis of their right is, that they have con-

tributed to it. It was their money. It was paid over in good faith, but for a purpose that is found now to be unlawful.

I have no doubt there may be obligations in favor of persons who have a legal right to payment out of this fund. What the character of such obligations may be, I do not know. But there may be obligations that have a right to payment out of this fund. Then, whatever is left ought to be distributed to the people who produced it, in some equitable proportion; probably in the ratio in which they contributed to it.

Whether this is a proper case for the allowance of attorneys' fees out of this fund, I do not decide; it is not necessary now to decide that.

If the proof to be offered shall sustain the material averments of the petition, there will be a decree dissolving this organization, for reasons that ought to be stated, of course, in the decree, and appointing some person to take charge of the fund in the hands of the society, and to make disbursements therefrom and distribution thereof under order of the court.

Upon the hearing of evidence, the organization was dissolved, and a receiver appointed.

DECISIONS UNDER COMMON LAW.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—ACTS OF VICE-PRINCIPALS—SCOPE OF EMPLOYMENT—*Compher v. Missouri & Kansas Telephone Company, Kansas City Court of Appeals, 106 Southwestern Reporter, page 536.*—In this case Eva Cook Compher had recovered a judgment for damages against the company on account of personal injuries inflicted by her superior while she was in the company's employment. She was serving as telephone girl and had turned away from the board in a moment of unemployment in violation of the foreman's orders. These had been transmitted a little time before by means of a note passed down the line of operators which the plaintiff, being busy, did not see. The injury was caused by the foreman angrily whirling the chair in which the plaintiff was sitting and causing her knees and body to strike against the lower part of the switchboard. The judgment of the lower court was affirmed on this appeal on grounds which appear in the following quotation from the opinion of Judge Johnson, who, having stated the facts, said:

It is conceded that the chief operator was the vice-principal of defendant for the purpose of maintaining discipline in the room, but it is denied that he had authority, either express or implied, to employ physical force to secure obedience to the rules of the company; and it is argued that since defendant, as plaintiff's master, had no right to resort to physical chastisement for the enforcement of its orders, it could not delegate such right to its vice-principal, and, consequently, that the excessive act of the chief operator must be regarded as his own, and not as one for which the master should be held liable under the rule of respondeat superior. We agree with defendant that the ancient rule of the common law which permitted

a master to chastise his servants has no place in the jurisprudence of an enlightened civilization and is not recognized by American courts. But it does not follow, as defendant appears to think, that the absence of any right in defendant to assault plaintiff for the purpose of coercing her into obeying its orders relieves it from liability for the tortious act of its vice-principal in employing physical force. Old cases are to be found in England and a few in this country where a master has been held not to be liable for the torts of his servant, in the absence of proof of an express direction or sanction by the master of the wrongful act; but no principle is now more firmly established than that which holds the master responsible for the torts of the servant committed within the scope of his employment and as part of his service. The principle is based on the maxim that "what one does by another, he does himself," and we find the rules by which it should be applied to the facts of a given case to be most aptly expressed in the following quotation from Wood on the Law of Master and Servant, sec. 307: "It is not necessary, in order to fix the master's liability, that the servant should, at the time of the injury, have been acting under the master's orders or directions, or that the master should know that the servant was to do the particular act that produced the injury in question. It is enough if the act was within the scope of his employment, and, if so, the master is liable, even though the servant acted willfully and in direct violation of his orders. A master can not screen himself from liability for an injury committed by his servant within the line of his employment by setting up private instructions or orders given by him and their violation by the servant. By putting the servant in his place, he becomes responsible for all his acts within the line of his employment, even though they are willful and directly antagonistical to his orders. The simple test is whether they were acts within the scope of his employment; not whether they were done while prosecuting the master's business, but whether they were done by the servant in furtherance thereof, and were such as may fairly be said to have been authorized by him. By 'authorized' is not meant authority expressly conferred, but whether the act was such as was incident to the performance of the duties intrusted to him by the master, even though in opposition to his express and positive orders."

The test to be applied in the present case is to ascertain whether the tortious act of the vice-principal was one which reasonably and fairly may be said to have been an act of superintendence, and not one which was so disassociated from the duties of the position of chief operator that it should be regarded as prompted alone by the malice or willfulness of the actor. We are of opinion that the act clearly was one of superintendence, and therefore within the scope of the chief operator's employment; and we find this conclusion to be sustained abundantly by the authorities in this State and elsewhere. [Cases cited.]

It follows that the learned trial judge committed no error in refusing defendant's request for a peremptory instruction, and accordingly the judgment is affirmed.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—FELLOW-SERVANTS—DEPARTMENTS OF SERVICE—EVIDENCE—EXCESSIVE DAMAGES—*Louisville & Nashville Railroad Company v. Brown, Court of Appeals of Kentucky, 106 Southwestern Reporter, page 795.*—This case was before the court of appeals on appeal from the circuit court of Hopkins County in which the railroad company named had been held liable in damages in the amount of \$10,000 for injuries received by Harry Brown while acting as brakeman in the employment of the company. The injury was inflicted by the collision of the freight train on which Brown was employed and a work train which was standing at the time on the main track of the road. The question of fellow-service and the admission of photographs as evidence are points of interest that were presented. There was also a contention that the amount of damages awarded was excessive inasmuch as it did not appear that the injury was a permanent one. Other grounds of appeal were offered, but it was only on the last one named that the decision of the lower court was reversed. The principal points in the opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Carroll, are reproduced herewith. After making a statement of the facts in the case the court said:

The conductor and engineer were in control of the work train, and were charged with the duty of taking every possible precaution to see to it that timely warning was given to the approaching freight. They, as well as the brakeman [who was ordered to flag the train], were guilty of gross negligence, although the company would be liable to appellee if they, or the brakeman alone, had only been guilty of ordinary neglect. Neither the conductor nor engineer on the work train, or the brakeman who participated in their negligence and equally with them was guilty of a failure to discharge his duty, were fellow-servants of appellee in the sense that appellee could not recover for their negligence. It has been frequently ruled by this court that a servant for injuries not resulting in death can not recover from the master for the ordinary negligence of his superior officers. But this doctrine is limited in its application to cases in which the servant is injured by the negligence of the superior officer who has immediate control of or supervision over him. To illustrate: If appellee had been injured by the negligence of the engineer or conductor on his train, he could not recover damages against the company unless they were guilty of gross neglect. The reason of this rule is that the servant, when he engaged to work, undertakes that he will assume the ordinary risks incident to the employment, and will not hold the master liable for the ordinary negligence of those employees with whom he is engaged, whose actions and conduct he can observe and, if necessary, guard against.

This doctrine of assumed risk by the servant has been further extended by this court until now it is well established that a servant can not recover from the master for injuries inflicted by the negligence of a fellow-servant in the same grade of employment engaged in the same field of labor, and associated or working with the injured servant, however gross the negligence of the fellow-servant may be. Hence, if appellee had been injured by the negligence of a fellow-

brakeman on the train he was working on, without any fault on the part of the conductor, or engineer, or other superior, or breach of duty on the part of the company, he could not recover in this action.

But when the servant is injured by employees of the same master, who are not directly associated with him, and with whom he is not immediately employed, and whose qualifications for the place they occupy he has no means of knowing, and in whose selection he has no voice, and over whose conduct and actions he has no control, and against whose negligence and carelessness he can not protect himself, he may recover damages from the master for injuries received through their negligence, whether it be ordinary or gross, and without any reference to the position or place the servant causing the injury holds. And so appellee, whose injuries were directly caused by the negligence of the employees on the work train, may recover from the company, without regard to which one of them was guilty of the neglect that resulted in his injuries.

Appellee was permitted to testify that, while he was pinioned in the debris of the wreck, he knew it was on fire and was fearful that he would be burned to death before he could be extricated; and other witnesses were allowed to say that they saw the fire burning close to him. In our opinion it was competent to permit appellee to testify as to the mental anguish and pain that he suffered while he was fastened in the wreck. If he had not sustained any physical injury, he could not recover at all for the mental suffering he endured, as was said in *Morse v. C. & O. Ry. Co.*, 117 Ky. 11, 77 S. W. 361: "Damages can not be recovered for mental suffering alone in an action for personal injuries based on negligence, unaccompanied by some direct contemporaneous injury to the person." But where there is a physical injury there may be a recovery for it, as well as the mental pain and suffering occasioned by and accompanying it. Mental as well as physical suffering directly caused by an injury is a part of the compensation to which the injured person is entitled; and in the cases, without exception, that have come under our notice, the jury have always been instructed that they might compensate for mental as well as physical pain. (*Alexander v. Humber*, 86 Ky. 565, 6 S. W. 453.) As it was competent for appellee to describe fully and accurately his pain and suffering after he was extricated from the wreck and during the time the cure was being affected, and in fact up to the time of the trial, we are unable to understand upon what theory it can be maintained that it was not competent for him to relate the torture he endured when under the wreck and in momentary danger of being burned to death. In our opinion it is not at all material or important whether the mental suffering is contemporaneous with the reception of the injury or subsequent to it, if it is the direct result of it. In the able and exhaustive opinion in *Denver & Rio Grande R. Co. v. Roller*, 100 Fed. 738, 41 C. C. A. 22, 49 L. R. A. 77, this question was fully covered, and the conclusion reached that evidence of this character is competent.

It was also admissible for appellee, as well as those who saw him under the wreck, to describe the surroundings and conditions that existed, so that the jury might know all the facts and circumstances of appellee's situation when injured. The accuracy of the photographs was testified to by the person who took them, and they furnished to the jury a more complete and realistic picture of the wreck

of the colliding engines than could be obtained from any other source. The wreck could not be seen by the jury, nor could it be accurately described by the witnesses; but from an inspection of the photographs the jury could obtain a more correct impression and a better understanding of the situation than in any other way. (Denver & Rio Grande R. Co. v. Roller, *supra*; 11 Am. & Eng. Ency. of Law, p. 539; 17 Cyc. 414.)

Although there was no error in the admission of evidence or the instructions given by the court, we feel constrained to reverse the judgment upon the ground that the verdict is excessive. If there was sufficient evidence to show appellee's injuries were permanent, we would not interfere with the finding of the jury upon this point; but there is not. That he sustained severe injury, not only to his foot but other parts of his body, there is no doubt; but, whether they are permanent or not is another question.

After reviewing the evidence, the court said:

It will be observed that the physician who testified for appellee made only one examination, and that without using the X-rays, and his conclusion that the foot was permanently injured was based on the fact that in his opinion the bones of the foot were diseased; while the physicians who treated him for the injury, and who examined his foot frequently and with the X-rays, say that the bones are not injured, and that in time the foot will be restored to its normal condition.

We are not aware of any case in which the court has sustained a verdict as large as this one unless the injuries were permanent. The fact that the negligence was gross, and that punitive damages were allowed, and that appellee was entitled to more than mere compensation for his mental and physical suffering, does not imply that a jury are at liberty, unrestrained, to award by way of punitive damages any amount, however large it may be. This court has the same power and discretion to set aside a verdict, when excessive, in cases involving punitive damages as it has where only compensation is recovered. In every case, if the verdict appears to have been given under the influence of passion or prejudice, a new trial will be granted.

It will readily be conceded that it is peculiarly within the province of the jury to fix the amount of damage that a person is entitled to for mental and physical suffering, and will also be agreed that there is no rule by which the amount that should be awarded can be measured. For these reasons this court has always been reluctant to interfere with the finding of a jury upon the question of damages, and especially is this true when the injury is permanent, or of such a character as to disable the injured person from pursuing his usual occupation or employment, or one that will cause him to suffer serious pain probably through life. But, if appellee's foot should be fully restored, and there is a complete recovery, and he is placed in the same physical condition as he was before the injury, it appears to us at first blush that the verdict is too large. The future effect of the injury should be shown with reasonable certainty to authorize damages upon the score of permanent injury.

For the error in the amount of damages, the judgment must be reversed, with directions for a new trial.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—INFECTION FROM DISEASED ANIMAL—GOVERNMENT INSPECTION—DUTY OF EMPLOYERS—*O'Connor v. Armour Packing Company, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Fifth Circuit, 158 Federal Reporter, page 241.*—This case was before the court on appeal from the circuit court for the southern district of Texas, in which O'Connor had sued to recover damages for injuries received, as alleged, while employed in the defendant company's slaughterhouse. Recovery was denied in the circuit court, but the court of appeals held that the case should go to the jury and remanded it for a new trial.

The injury was alleged to be the result of handling a carcass that conveyed anthrax infection, causing serious disease and suffering. The duty of the employer was held to be the same as in furnishing safe places and appliances, and the court ruled that he would not be allowed to offer the inspection by the United States Department of Agriculture as evidence of a discharge of this duty.

The opinion of the court was delivered by Judge Shelby, Judge Pardee dissenting. Judge Shelby spoke in part as follows:

It may be stated as a general rule that a master is bound to take ordinary and reasonable care not to subject his servant to unreasonable or extraordinary dangers by putting him to work in dangerous buildings, on dangerous premises, or with dangerous tools, machinery, or appliances. If the master fails in his duty in this respect, and the servant in consequence of such failure is injured, without fault on his part, and without having assumed the risk of the master's negligence, he may recover damages of the master. (4 Thompson on Negligence, sections 3759, 3986.) The same principle is applicable where the servant is put to work on material that is dangerous to his health or life. The duty of the master in this respect is primary and unassignable; that is he becomes responsible for the negligence or inexperience of anyone to whom he delegates the performance of it. (4 Thompson on Negligence, section 3988.) Thompson says that:

"No general definition of negligence can be of much value in the practical administration of justice."

The same observation is true as to the definition or statement of the degree of care required of an employer in protecting his employees from injury. It may be stated generally, however, that he is required to adopt all reasonable means and precautions to provide for the safety of his servants while in the performance of their work; and that he is required to exercise such care as an ordinarily prudent man would exercise under the circumstances. He is not an insurer of the safety of his servant, but is required to exercise ordinary and reasonable care for his safety. (1 Labatt on Master and Servant, section 14, and notes.)

The defense relied on by the defendant is that he did exercise reasonable and ordinary care, and that, if it be true that the plaintiff became infected as alleged, it was not by reason of negligence on the part of the defendant. There was no inspector of cattle or meats at the defendant's plant in Galveston. The evidence tends to show

that the calf which the plaintiff claims was infected was slaughtered at the defendant's plant in Fort Worth, and shipped to Galveston to be skinned, sold to butchers, and by them sold by retail to consumers. The defendant contends that it exercised ordinary and reasonable care, in that all cattle slaughtered in May, 1905, at its Fort Worth plant was inspected by men employed by them to purchase cattle, and especially that the United States Government inspectors inspected all cattle purchased and slaughtered at its plant in Fort Worth. The contention is that this evidence of inspection is such that it shows without conflict the exercise of reasonable and ordinary care, and therefore the absence of negligence. The evidence of inspection on the part of the defendant's agents is not urged as being in itself sufficient. J. E. McCarthy testified that he had been defendant's cattle buyer at Fort Worth for four years. "They are examined carefully. * * * We aim to buy something that will make good veal or beef, and, if it looks at all doubtful, we buy subject to Government inspection. If the animal seems to have anything at all the matter with it, we buy it separate, and it is held separate and the Government man takes it, etc. If it is all right, it is passed, and, if not, it is tanked. When it is tanked, it is boiled up and goes into grease for fertilizing." His plan was not to reject cattle, although it might seem to be diseased, but he would let it take its chance to pass the Government inspectors.

The contention of the plaintiff is that the defendant has negligently failed to perform this duty, and the contention of the defendant is that the inspection by the Government was all that could be required, and that, under the circumstances, the master was not chargeable with the duty of making any inspection. It was not denied that the doctrine requiring inspection was applicable to the case, but the contention is that the inspection provided was sufficient, as matter of law, to relieve the defendant of the charge of negligence.

The object of the Federal statutes requiring inspection was to provide additional safeguards against the traffic in spoiled or diseased cattle and meats. They should not be so construed or applied as to deprive anyone injured or damaged by the negligence or wrongdoing of a dealer in or a vendor of cattle or meats any remedy which he had under laws existing when the statutes were enacted. We are not of opinion that the inspection by Government officials of a place, machinery, instrumentality, or material necessarily and as matter of law releases the master from his duty to make such examinations and inspections as are required of him by the rule which demands that he exercise ordinary and reasonable care for the safety of his servant. This duty of the master is absolute and inalienable. He can not transfer it to another so as to avoid responsibility. (4 Thompson on Negligence, section 3791.) It would seem to follow that the court, in the absence of a statute requiring that course, can not permit another to assume the responsibility for him. In *McGregor v. Reid*, 178 Ill. 464, 53 N. E. 323, 69 Am. St. Rep. 332, it was held that inspection of freight elevators by city officers and indemnity companies did not as matter of law relieve the owner of the elevators from liability for their defective condition. Commenting on the effect of the inspection of others than the proprietor himself, Labatt says:

"It is difficult to admit that the fact of an appliance having been pronounced sound by an official inspector should be deemed to pre-

clude the jury from considering whether his inspection was really an adequate one. Such an inference seems to be unwarrantable without assuming the possession by such inspectors of a much larger measure of skill and diligence than can be fairly credited to any class of employees."

And the learned author adds:

"Another objection to holding the master not liable as matter of law is that the doctrine of nondelegable duties is virtually ignored." (1 Labatt on Master and Servant, section 165. See also 3 Thompson on Negligence, section 3700.)

Granting the contention of the defendant that, to show the exercise of reasonable and ordinary care, it may avail itself of the inspection proved to have been made under the supervision of the Government, it must of necessity follow that the defendant is burdened with the deficiencies, if any are shown, of such inspection. The defendant can not ask more than that the case should be examined as if the Government inspectors were its own inspectors. It is clear that the master's entire duty is not performed when he employs competent and skillful inspectors. That is only the first step necessary to secure the reasonable safety of his servant. There must be a reasonably careful and skillful inspection. Although the master may have engaged competent and skillful inspectors, if a servant is injured in consequence of a defect which would have been discovered by a reasonably careful and skillful inspection, but was not discovered, the master will be liable.

Was there evidence in the case from which the jury might have concluded that no inspection of the calf in question was made; or, if made, that it was made unskillfully and negligently? Dr. W. A. Knight, a witness called for the defendant, testified that anthrax would not necessarily be discovered by an inspection of the animal on foot. It might escape detection if it had not "broken out," but that after the animal is slaughtered, and a post-mortem examination is made, "the entire relations would be such that it could not possibly slip an inspector." The witness gives a full description of the effects of the disease in enlarging the organs of the animal and in causing "hemorrhagic spots." No one can read the description and fail to see that a reasonably careful inspection by a reasonably skillful inspector would easily discover the existence of disease.

INJUNCTION — GROUNDS — PROPERTY RIGHTS — INTERFERENCE —
Sailors' Union of the Pacific v. Hammond Lumber Company, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 156 Federal Reporter, page 450.—
 In the circuit court of the United States for the northern district of California an injunction had been granted against the Sailors' Union of the Pacific, prohibiting interference with the business of the Hammond Lumber Company. The injunction was granted on representations of acts of violence committed by the union in furtherance of its purpose to secure an increase in rate of wages followed by a strike. A strike committee had been organized, consisting of members of the

Sailors' Union of the Pacific, Pacific Coast Marine Firemen's Union, and the Marine Cooks' and Stewards' Association. This committee had the services of two launches which were used as picket boats, and the water front was also picketed by strikers. Threats of bodily injury, use of profane, insulting, and obscene language and the commission of brutal assaults upon crews, firemen, cooks, and stewards were alleged in the evidence and specific dates given: The union appealed, making various contentions as to the legality of form of the injunction and the power of the court to issue the same. The injunction was sustained by the circuit court of appeals in an opinion which was delivered by Judge Gilbert, the principal parts of which are as follows:

It is urged that the injunction was violative of the rights of the appellants; that the defendant unions and their members had the right to endeavor to improve their condition and to organize for that purpose, and had the right to communicate their desires to others, whether they were in the employment of the appellee or not, and to explain the differences that existed between their former employers and themselves; and that, if it became necessary to employ launches to carry out these purposes, they had the legal right to do so, as the waters of the bay of San Francisco are free to all. Conceding that the appellants had all of these rights, the argument ignores the salient facts brought to the attention of the court by the bill and the affidavits. It was not to prevent the exercise of any of such rights that the injunction was sought or obtained. Its purpose was to prevent acts of lawlessness, of violence, of insult, and of intimidation. No one can read the affidavits without arriving at the conclusion that members of the unions went far beyond the peaceful communication of their rights, their attitude toward their former employers, their purpose of self-protection, and the objects of their combination. It may be true, in the present case, as in many others of a similar character, that the disorders of the strike were deprecated by the officers and leaders of the unions, but that fact does not relieve the appellants of responsibility, nor render the court powerless to deal with them in their collective capacity for the violent acts which in the present case are shown to have been committed, and which, according to the affidavits, were threatened to be continued.

It is contended that the court erred in issuing the injunction for the reason that the appellee had no property right in that in which the court protected it, and it is argued that, while the appellee had a property right in its vessels, it had none in the labor of its employees, as the latter could leave its employment as they saw fit. To sustain that contention, *Northern Pacific R. R. Co. v. Whalen*, 149 U. S. 157, 13 Sup. Ct. 822, 37 L. Ed. 686, is cited. In that case the court held that the only ground on which, independently of an express statute, a court of equity could grant an injunction in a private action for nuisance, is special injury to property. The court said:

"No employer has such a property in his workmen, or in their services, that he can, under the ordinary jurisdiction of a court of chancery, maintain a suit as for a nuisance, against the keeper of a house at which they voluntarily buy intoxicating liquors, and thereby get so drunk as to be unfit for work."

This language of the opinion is especially relied upon, but the distinction between that case and the case at bar is elsewhere clearly stated in the opinion, where the court pointed to the fact that the defendants had not conspired or intended to injure the plaintiff's property or business, or to prevent the plaintiff's workmen from performing their contracts of service. The bill in the case at bar alleges, and the affidavits prove, that the appellants had conspired to injure and destroy the appellee's business and to prevent its workmen from performing their contracts of service. The appellee's property is not only its vessels, but the business of carrying freight and passengers, without which the vessels would lose their value. The right to operate vessels, and to conduct business is as much property as are the vessels themselves. All the rights which are incident to the use, enjoyment, and disposition of tangible things are property. "Property is everything that has an exchangeable value." (Mr. Justice Swain, in *The Slaughterhouse Cases*, 16 Wall. 127, 21 L. Ed. 394.) "Property may be destroyed, or its value may be annihilated. It is owned and kept for some useful purpose, and it has no value unless it can be used." (In *re Jacobs*, 98 N. Y. 105, 50 Am. Rep. 636.)

But it is said that the injunction goes further than the law permits, in that by its language it prohibits the appellants from doing that which they have the lawful right to do. By the order of the court the appellants are enjoined "from in anywise interfering with the crews, foremen, cooks, stewards, seamen, or either of them or any of the servants or employees of the said steam schooners or steamship or either or any of them, without due process of law; * * * from in anywise interfering with the business of the said steam schooners and said steamship except by due process of law, with the business of complainant or orator of and concerning the said steam schooners and the said steamship; * * * and from in anywise conspiring, colluding or confederating together for the purpose of preventing the said steam schooners and steamship from receiving and discharging freight and passengers." It is said that under this injunction the appellants would be in contempt if they asked one of their relatives not to go as a passenger on one of the appellee's steamers, or if they made complaint of the violation of navigation laws of the appellee's vessels, or if they exercised their right to discriminate against the appellee by shipping cargo on other vessels than those of the appellee. The language of the injunction, however, is to be interpreted in the light of the allegations and prayer of the bill, and these may make an otherwise indefinite order sufficiently specific. (*Hamilton v. State*, 32 Md. 348.) It is the acts set forth in the bill that the appellants are enjoined from doing.

It is urged that there is no showing that the alleged damage is irreparable, but that, on the contrary, the showing is that, if the appellee was suffering any damage for which the appellants were liable, it was easy of estimation and could have been recovered in a single action against any of the appellants, who are abundantly able to respond in damages. It is true that the answer to the bill alleges that the appellants are not insolvent, and that they possess \$150,000 in cash in bank. But it may be said, in general, that ground is presented for injunctive relief whenever there is actual and threatened

injury to property, coupled with facts bringing the case within one of the recognized grounds of equitable jurisdiction, and showing that there is no plain, adequate, or complete remedy at law.

Said the court, in *Walla Walla City v. Walla Walla Water Co.*, 172 U. S. 1, 19 Sup. Ct. 77, 43 L. Ed. 341:

“The remedy at law, in order to exclude a concurrent remedy at equity, must be as complete as practical, and as efficient to the ends of justice and its prompt administration as the remedy in equity.”

One ground of equitable jurisdiction in cases of continuing trespass is the fact that the measure of damages is exceedingly difficult of ascertainment. In such a case the solvency or insolvency of the wrongdoer is an immaterial fact. (*Kellogg v. King*, 114, Cal. 378, 46 Pac. 166, 55 Am. St. Rep. 74.) And relief by injunction may be invoked as a remedy for the destruction of one's business, if in such a case no action at law would afford as complete, prompt, and efficient a remedy. (*North v. Peters*, 138 U. S. 271, 11 Sup. Ct. 346, 34 L. Ed. 936; *Watson v. Sutherland*, 5 Wall. 74, 18 L. Ed. 580.) It is made sufficiently clear by the allegations of the bill and the facts proven that, notwithstanding that the appellants may possess \$150,000, the remedy at law is not as complete, prompt, and adequate as the remedy in equity. The remedy at law would involve a multitude of suits and delay, pending which the injury to the appellee's business might proceed to ultimate destruction. The question of withholding or granting the injunction was one which rested in the sound discretion of the circuit court. We find no ground for saying that there was abuse of that discretion.

INTERFERENCE WITH EMPLOYMENT—MALICIOUS PROCUREMENT OF DISCHARGE—DAMAGES—*Gibson v. Fidelity and Casualty Company*, *Supreme Court of Illinois*, 83 *Northeastern Reporter*, page 539.—This was an action by Jacob N. Gibson against the company named for damages for wrongfully procuring his discharge from employment. A judgment for \$1,200 was given him in the circuit court of Cook County, which was affirmed by the appellate court and again by the supreme court. The defendants had asked the trial judge to direct a verdict of not guilty, and afterwards to give an instruction to the same effect, and it was the refusal to do this that was complained of in the appeals.

The position of the trial court was sustained for reasons that appear in the opinion of the court, which also states the facts. This was delivered by Judge Cartwright, and is as follows:

The plaintiff was a die maker in the employ of the Union Drop Forge Company, at \$2.65 a day. He met with an injury to one eye on August 26, 1897, from which he was laid up about thirteen weeks. After recovering he returned to his work, and on August 2, 1899, he brought a suit against his employer, the Union Drop Forge Company, for damages on account of the injury. On October 21, 1899, he was discharged by William G. Holbrook, the president and treasurer of the company. At the time he had been working for the company

about ten years; but his employment was at the will of the parties, and he had no contract for future employment. He was without employment until the first part of December, 1899, when he secured work elsewhere. In his suit he claimed \$10,000 damages, and the Union Drop Forge Company was insured by the defendant against accidents and injuries of the character for which the suit was brought. By the policy of insurance the defendant had agreed to defend against such claims and would be liable to the amount of \$5,000 in case of recovery. The controverted question of fact was whether the defendant caused the discharge of the plaintiff, and the only evidence tending in any manner to connect the defendant with the discharge, or to prove that it induced the Union Drop Forge Company to discharge the plaintiff, consisted of testimony that John A. Post, the general manager of the defendant in Chicago, and Holbrook, made statements or admissions to that effect. The plaintiff belonged to a labor union, and he went with a committee of that union to see Holbrook. The plaintiff and two members of the committee testified that Holbrook said his company was satisfied with plaintiff's work, and would be willing to put him back at work, but could not do it; that his company had an agreement with the defendant, and if they would get a letter from Post he would reemploy plaintiff. They further testified that they then went to see Post, and Post said that they had caused the discharge and did not intend to let plaintiff work to earn money to fight them with, and that he did not propose to have plaintiff go to work there, or anywhere else, if he could prevent it. There was evidence for defendant, by Holbrook, that when his company was sued he called up Post, the manager of the defendant, and advised with him as to whether it would be necessary or advisable or expedient to keep the plaintiff in their employ under the circumstances; that Post said they could use their own judgment; and that it was on their own judgment and on their own motion that the discharge was made. The letters which passed between Holbrook and Post tended to substantiate that version of the affair, and, of course, it is conceded that the Union Drop Forge Company could discharge the plaintiff whenever it saw fit, because he had brought a suit against it, or for any other reason, or for no reason at all and through malice. If the Union Drop Forge Company discharged the plaintiff because he had brought the suit, or because it did not choose to pay him money with which he could carry on the suit, no cause of action would arise in his favor; but under the doctrines announced in the case of *London Guarantee & Accident Co. v. Horn*, 206 Ill. 493, 69 N. E. 526, 99 Am. St. Rep. 185, there would be a cause of action against the defendant if it procured the discharge of the plaintiff with the motive of injuring him. Post and another witness denied that there was any such admission made by Post as was testified to by plaintiff and the two members of the labor committee. Their evidence was that Post said it did not make any particular difference to the defendant whether the Union Drop Forge Company reemployed plaintiff or not; that he made no statement or admission that he or the defendant had procured the discharge of plaintiff; and that the conversation consisted only of a discussion between him and the committee as to the propriety of an employer keeping a laborer in his employ who had a suit pending against him which the employer believed to be without merit,

and as to what course the members of the committee would themselves take under the same circumstances.

The court was not authorized, in passing on the motion to direct a verdict and the instruction tendered with the motion, to weigh the conflicting evidence and determine on which side the preponderance was. Only the evidence favorable to plaintiff could be considered, and if such evidence, with all the reasonable inferences to be drawn therefrom, would be sufficient to sustain a judgment for the plaintiff, it was the duty of the court to deny the motion, refuse the instruction, and submit the question to the jury. The testimony above detailed, given by the plaintiff and the two members of the committee, of the alleged statements and admissions of Holbrook and Post, fairly tended to prove the cause of action alleged in the declaration, and therefore the court did not err in refusing to direct a verdict. The controverted question of fact as to whether the discharge of the plaintiff was caused by the wrongful act of the defendant has been settled by the judgment of the appellate court.

The next ground of complaint is that the attorney for the plaintiff, in his closing argument, made improper and prejudicial remarks to the jury for the purpose of inflaming their minds and biasing their judgment, and that on objection being made the court overruled the objection. In the course of his argument the attorney for plaintiff said that the defendant, in what it did, was trying to starve the plaintiff into a settlement of his suit against the Union Drop Forge Company. This argument was founded on the testimony for the plaintiff as to statements made by Post, and the attorney was contending that the motive of the defendant was an improper and malicious one. The argument did not exceed the proper and reasonable limits allowed in the discussion of evidence before a jury.

It is also argued that the evidence did not warrant an assessment of exemplary damages. There was no instruction given to the jury which authorized an assessment of exemplary damages, and the question of the amount of actual damage is one of fact, which we are not authorized to review. The evidence was that the plaintiff was only out of employment a very short time, and at the time of the trial was receiving much larger wages than when in the employ of the Union Drop Forge Company, and perhaps the verdict can only be accounted for by assuming that exemplary damages were included. If that is so, there is evidence in the record which, if believed by the jury, would justify exemplary damages.

The judgment of the appellate court is affirmed.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—CAPACITY—LIABILITY FOR VIOLATION OF INJUNCTION—APPEALS—*A. R. Barnes & Co. v. Chicago Typographical Union No. 16, Supreme Court of Illinois, 83 Northeastern Reporter, page 932.*—The firm named was a member of the Chicago Typothetæ, an unincorporated association of employing printers, and had procured an injunction against the defendants forbidding the picketing of their premises and otherwise interfering with their employees in the conduct of their business. From this injunction an appeal was

taken and the proper bond filed, and the members of the union continued to perform acts of the same nature as those complained of. The plaintiffs then began proceedings to procure punishment of the offenders for contempt of court, and a fine of \$1,000 was assessed against the union, which action was affirmed by the appellate court, and, on further appeal, by the supreme court, Judges Scott and Farmer dissenting.

Various points of interest were involved, as the status of the union as a party to an action, the power of the appellate court to punish during the pendency of an appeal and the matter of the collection of the fine. These were taken up in order by Judge Cartwright, who delivered the opinion of the court, and who spoke in part as follows:

The first point made by counsel for the appellant in his argument is that it is neither a natural nor an artificial person, and therefore it could not be made a defendant in this proceeding. The bill of complaint in the suit for an injunction in which the decree was entered alleged that appellant was a labor union organized and existing in the city of Chicago; that it had presented to appellees a contract to be executed by them in which appellant agreed to do certain things; that it had an executive committee, issued circulars, published a directory, exercised control over its members, furnished money to induce employees of appellees' to leave their service, and as an association interfered with their business, and did various acts charged in the bill. The appellant came into court and demurred to the bill and appealed from the decree to the appellate court, giving its bond, and not raising any question as to its legal capacity to be sued or as to its legal status. In this proceeding the appellant came into court and answered as an organization having a legal existence, with a constitution, by-laws, and officers, and doing business to carry out the objects of the organization. The time and place to raise the question by what name and in what manner the association, or the aggregation of individuals of which it was composed, might be made defendant in a suit in equity, was in the original suit. Whether it was no more than a mere partnership, with the rights and liabilities incident to that relation, or whether it had any definite legal status, was a question to be considered then. Joined with appellant were various officers in their capacity as representing appellant, and it does not appear that any objection was made that the association was not properly before the court. If it would not be regarded as a legal entity in the action at law, it does not follow that the decree was a nullity, or that the association could violate the injunction with impunity. It is wholly immaterial in this proceeding whether the decree was erroneous or not, and the association is amenable to the court and the law for any violation of it.

The important question in the case, and the one to which the argument is almost wholly devoted, relates to the jurisdiction of the superior court to entertain this proceeding and punish appellant for violating the injunction after an appeal had been taken from the decree. The law is that an appeal enjoining a defendant from doing an act does not suspend the operation of the injunction, stay it in

any manner, or disturb its operative force. The appeal does not have the effect of dissolving or suspending the injunction and the defendant acquires no right to disregard it by the execution of an appeal bond. The doing of the act enjoined may be punished as a contempt notwithstanding the appeal, and the contempt is a contempt of the court which granted the injunction. The question being by what court the contempt can be punished, the natural answer would be by the court whose order is disobeyed, and whose dignity and authority are defied. And, indeed, it does not seem to be disputed that if the proceeding is in the name of the people, for the purpose of maintaining the dignity and authority of the court, an appeal would present no obstacle to it. Such a proceeding is wholly independent of the appeal or any question to be considered by the appellate tribunal, and we see no substantial distinction between a prosecution for contempt instituted for the purpose of punishing a person for disobeying an order of the court on the ground that its authority or dignity is in question and one which is instituted to enforce the authority of the court in the administration of justice between litigants. The question whether the injunction was properly awarded or whether the decree was erroneous is not involved in either. A defendant can not refuse to obey an injunction, however improvidently or erroneously granted, but he is bound, at his peril, to obey it while it remains in force.

To adopt a rule that the court granting an injunction must stand idly by and see it violated while an appeal is pending, and after the case is reinstated in that court may then proceed to punish, would be attended with evil consequences. All that it would be necessary for a defendant to do to secure immunity until the case should be reinstated in the court would be to pray an appeal and file a bond. If the court should be denied the right to compel obedience to the prohibition of the decree until the original case has completed its rounds through the courts the appellees might lose all the benefits of their litigation and have their business ruined, although the decree should finally be affirmed. We are not prepared to adopt or declare such a doctrine.

By the final order of the superior court imposing the fine, appellant was ordered to pay the same to the clerk of the court, and it was further ordered that, if such payment should not be made, execution should issue for the collection of the fine in the name of the people for the use of the appellees [Barnes & Co.]. The judgment was in proper form, and the court properly ordered execution in default of payment, but the execution should not be in the form directed. If the fine shall be paid to the clerk, an execution will not be necessary; but, if it becomes necessary to issue an execution, it will not be for the use of the appellees, and the order will be modified by striking out that feature. There is no statute in this State which authorizes the appropriation of a fine imposed for a contempt of court to the party injured by the act constituting the contempt or who prosecutes the proceeding for the contempt.

The form of the order for execution being modified, the record is free from error, and the judgment of the appellate court is affirmed.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—TRADE AGREEMENTS—POWER OF COMMITTEE TO CONTRACT—PAYMENT OF STRIKE BENEFITS—CONTROL OF FUNDS BY INJUNCTION.—*A. R. Barnes & Co. v. Berry, United States Circuit Court, Southern District of Ohio, Western Division, 157 Federal Reporter, page 883.*—This was an action brought by Barnes & Co., members of the United Typothetæ of America, against Berry and McMullen, officers of the International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of America, both voluntary associations, to determine the effect of an agreement alleged to exist between the two organizations, and to prevent its violation by the members of the union.

The agreement referred to was one that had been entered into for the purpose of establishing "between the employing printers of the United States and their pressmen and feeders uniform shop practices and fair scales of wages, settlement of all questions arising between them, and the abolition of strikes, sympathetic or otherwise, lockouts and boycotts." Among its provisions was one that looked to the introduction of the eight-hour day on January 1, 1909.

This agreement had been entered into by committees representing the two bodies, and had been ratified by a special convention of the Typothetæ, but was repudiated by the union at its annual convention in 1907, and a referendum vote of its members determined on the inauguration of the eight-hour day on November 18, 1907. The committee of the union had been directed to renew a former agreement which provided for a nine-hour day, at the same time "to strive with all power possible to have some concessions made by the Typothetæ toward having the eight-hour day established within a reasonable time." At the same meeting a special fund was arranged for, to be known as the "Shorter workday fund."

Two questions were involved in the suit, first, as to whether the committee of the union had full and final authority to make the contract; and secondly, whether performance of such contract could be enforced indirectly by enjoining the officers of the union from paying strike benefits, and from doing anything in furtherance of strikes.

The decision of the court, which was delivered by Judge Thompson, was adverse to the contentions of the plaintiffs, Barnes & Co., on both questions, as appears from the following extracts from his opinion. Having discussed in some detail the efforts of the union to secure the adoption of the eight-hour day, Judge Thompson said:

The Typothetæ had theretofore refused to consider the adoption of the "eight-hour day," and the convention of the union had declared in favor of its adoption immediately after the expiration of the existing agreement, unless the two associations could agree upon some reasonable time thereafter, and the directors were instructed to obtain from the Typothetæ a declaration as to whether it would agree to the "eight-hour day;" that is, whether the Typothetæ would con-

sider the demand for it, and at some time agree to it. The directors were not authorized in securing the renewal of the existing agreement to add new terms thereto; nor were they instructed to determine what would be a reasonable time after the expiration of the existing agreement within which to inaugurate the "eight-hour day," nor were they empowered to conclude a new agreement with the Typothetæ. If they succeeded in securing the consent of the Typothetæ to the renewal of the old agreement, with a declaration as to whether or not the "eight-hour day" would be agreed to, the instructions given them would be fulfilled, and their only remaining duty would be to report their action to the next convention. In their report it would have been proper to recommend what action, in their opinion, should be taken by the convention, giving their reasons therefor, but, under the instructions given them, final action could be taken only by the convention. The board of directors exceeded its authority in permitting new matter to be added to the renewal agreement, and in assuming power to bind the union by the agreement entered into by them with the Typothetæ.

As to the second point the court spoke as follows:

If the board of directors were authorized to enter into the agreement on behalf of the union can performance thereof by the men of the union be enforced by injunction? The agreement is not a contract of employment between members of the Typothetæ and men of the union, but is a contract between the two associations for the purposes hereinbefore stated. We are not advised of the terms of the employment of union men by members of the Typothetæ, except as to hours of labor. So far as we are advised by the pleadings and the evidence, they might at any time, without breach of the contract of employment, withdraw from the service of the Typothetæ. It is not shown that they agreed to work for any definite time, nor is there any provision in the agreement between the two associations fixing the time of service, and if, therefore, they should, at any time, with or without cause, withdraw from the service of members of the Typothetæ, they would be within their rights. As heretofore stated, the agreement was repudiated by the union at the Brighton Beach convention, and thereafter the men of the union, by a referendum vote, declared in favor of the inauguration of the "eight-hour day" on November 18, 1907, and its maintenance is now the established policy of the union, and the defendants, its officers, are charged with the duty of carrying it out, and pending the strikes incident thereto may the men employed by the Typothetæ be deprived of the advice and assistance of their officers and of strike benefits? The strike benefit fund is created by moneys deposited by the men with the general officers for the support of themselves and families in times of strikes, and the court has no more control of it than it would have over deposits made by them in the banks, and the attempt to enforce specific performance of the agreement by enjoining the officers from performing their functions can not be entertained. The court will not by indirect methods compel the men to continue in the service of the Typothetæ and work nine hours a day. The agreement only requires that, if they work at all, they shall work nine hours a day. There is no agreement that they shall continue in the service of the Typothetæ until January 1, 1909.

The bill will be dismissed, at the complainants' costs.

LAWS OF VARIOUS STATES RELATING TO LABOR, ENACTED SINCE JANUARY 1, 1904.

[The Tenth Special Report of this Bureau contains all laws of the various States and Territories and of the United States relating to labor, in force January 1, 1904. Later enactments are reproduced in successive issues of the Bulletin, beginning with Bulletin No. 57, the issue of March, 1905. A cumulative index of these later enactments is to be found on page 1037 et seq. of this issue.]

DELAWARE.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 116.—*Board of immigration—Contract laborers.*

SECTION 3. The duties of said [immigration] commissioners shall be :

First. To contract with and appoint an agent or agents in Europe and elsewhere and subject to the methods as their judgment may direct, invite and encourage immigration to this State. Also to contract, in the name of the State, with laborers in foreign countries for the purpose of bringing said laborers to this State for agricultural purposes.

* * * * *

Approved April 4, A. D. 1907.

MINNESOTA.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 180.—*Free public employment offices.*

SECTION 1. The commissioner of labor of the State of Minnesota is hereby directed to organize and establish in all cities in this State containing fifty thousand (50,000) inhabitants, or more, free public employment bureaus, for the purpose of receiving applications from persons seeking employment, and applications from employers desiring to employ labor. There shall be no fee or compensation charged or received, directly or indirectly, from persons applying for employment, or from those desiring to employ labor through said bureaus. There shall be appointed by the commissioner of labor, for such bureaus, one superintendent, who may be removed by the commissioner for good and sufficient cause, such appointment to be made immediately after this act becomes a law, and thereafter at the commencement of the biennial session of the legislature, the salary of such superintendent shall not exceed (\$1,200) twelve hundred dollars per annum.

SEC. 2. The superintendent of such bureaus shall cause to be received and recorded in books to be kept for that purpose, the names of all persons applying for employment, as well as the name and address of all persons, firms or corporations applying to employ labor, designating opposite the name and address of each applicant the character of employment desired or offered. Such superintendent shall also perform such other duties in the collection of labor statistics, and in the keeping of books and accounts of such bureaus as the commissioner may direct or require, and shall report monthly all business transacted by such bureaus to the office of the commissioner of labor, at the State capitol.

SEC. 3. Every application for employment by employer or employee which is made to the free employment bureaus shall be void after thirty days from its receipt, unless the same be renewed by the applicant. When an applicant for labor has secured the same, he shall within ten days thereafter notify the superintendent of such bureaus upon a notification card provided for that purpose. If any such applicant neglects to notify such superintendent, he or they shall be barred from all future rights and privileges of such employment

bureaus at the discretion of the commissioner of labor, to whom the superintendent shall report such neglect.

SEC. 4. There is hereby annually appropriated out of any money in the State treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of ten thousand (\$10,000) dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this act.

Approved April 13, 1907.

CHAPTER 202.—*Safety appliances on railroads.*

SECTION 1. On and after the first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, it shall be unlawful for any railway company or common carrier, in moving freight between points in the State, to haul or permit to be hauled, or used on its line, any car not equipped with couplers, coupling automatically by impact, and which can be uncoupled without the necessity of men going between the ends of the cars.

SEC. 2. On and after the first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, it shall be unlawful for any railway company or common carrier, in moving freight between points in the State, to use any car that is not provided with secure grab irons or hand holds in the ends and sides of each car for the greater security to men in coupling and uncoupling cars.

SEC. 3. Any railway company or common carrier violating any of the provisions of this act shall forfeit to the State one hundred dollars (\$100) for each and every such violation.

Approved April 15, 1907.

CHAPTER 253.—*Hours of labor of employecs on railroads.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any railroad company within the State of Minnesota, or any of its officers or agents, to require or permit any employee engaged in or connected with the movement of any rolling stock, engine or train, to remain on duty more than sixteen consecutive hours, or to require or permit any such employee who has been on duty sixteen consecutive hours to perform any further service without having had at least eight hours' rest, or to require or permit any such employee to be on duty at any time to exceed sixteen hours in any consecutive twenty-four hours: *Provided, however,* That this section shall not apply to work performed in the protection of life or property in cases of accident, wreck or other unavoidable casualty: *And, provided further,* That it shall not apply to the time necessary for trainmen to reach a resting place when an accident, wreck, washout, snow blockade or other unavoidable cause has delayed their train.

SEC. 2. Any officer of any railroad company in the State of Minnesota violating any of the provisions of this act shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction, shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars (\$100), and not more than five hundred (\$500) for each offense, or by imprisonment in the county jail not more than sixty days, or both fine and imprisonment in the discretion of the court.

It shall be the duty of the State railroad and warehouse commission, upon complaint properly filed with it alleging a violation of this act, to make a full investigation in relation thereto, and for such purpose it shall have the power to administer oaths, interrogate witnesses, take testimony and require the production of books and papers, and if such report shall show a violation of the provisions of this act the commission shall, through the attorney-general, begin the prosecution of all parties against whom evidence of violation of the provisions of this act is found; but this act shall not be construed to prevent any other person from beginning prosecution for violation of the provisions hereof.

Approved April 19, 1907.

CHAPTER 276.—*Safety appliances on railroads.*

SECTION 1. Whenever in the judgment of the railroad and warehouse commission it is necessary for the public safety, said commission may require, at all railroad crossings, junctions and drawbridges in said State, the establishment of interlocking devices, or such other safety appliances as are necessary for the protection and safety of the traveling public.

Where two or more railroad companies are interested, the division of the expense of installing, maintaining and operating said interlocking plant or safety device shall be agreed upon by the respective companies required to install the same; in case they can not agree, then such division shall be determined by the railroad and warehouse commission after a hearing.

SEC. 2. The commission may require any railroad company on any part of its line or lines operated in this State, to install and operate a "block signal system" or any other devise [device] or appliance that in its judgment will best promote the public safety.

SEC. 3. Any railroad company neglecting to comply with any order of the commission made under this act, shall be liable to a penalty of twenty-five dollars (\$25) for each day such neglect shall continue, to be recovered in a civil action in the name of the State and paid into the general fund of the State treasury.

Approved April 22, 1907.

CHAPTER 290.—*Accidents on railroads.*

SECTION 1. Section 1, chapter 122, General Laws of 1905, is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Section 1. It shall be the duty of every railroad company operating a line of railroad in this State to report all accidents, wrecks or casualties occurring in this State to the railroad and warehouse commission. This is intended to include all accidents, wrecks or casualties occurring in the operation of trains or engines on said line or lines of railway within this State, and all other accidents or casualties of whatever nature as may be required under rules adopted by the commission. Any reports to the commission herein required shall not be for public inspection.

All accidents or wrecks occurring in the operation of trains or engines involving loss of life or personal injury, shall be immediately reported to the commission by telegraph or telephone message, and the company shall forthwith send a written report in detail giving full particulars available in such form as the commission may require. All other accidents, including accidents resulting in personal injury or death, other than train accidents, shall be reported to the commission on the first day of each month, covering the preceding month.

SEC. 2. Section 2, chapter 122, is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

SEC. 2. Whenever any report is made to the commission involving a wreck, accident or casualty, and the commission deems it necessary, it shall forthwith examine into the causes and circumstances of the same, and it shall thereupon be the duty of the commission to order such railroad company to comply with any reasonable requirement prescribed by the commission, calculated to prevent the recurrence of any such wreck, accident or casualty, and it shall be the duty of the commission to report to the legislature biennially a summarized statement of all wrecks, accidents or casualties reported, together with a recommendation of such additional legislation as it deems proper for the greater protection of passengers and employees of railroad companies.

Approved April 22, 1907

CHAPTER 293.—*Cooperative associations.*

SECTION 1. Any cooperative association may be formed for the purpose of selling and otherwise disposing of any product of any manufacturing or agricultural cooperative association, organized under the provisions of section 3073, Revised Laws, 1905, or chapter 276 or 313, General Laws, 1905, and any amendments thereto. Its certificates of incorporation shall be filed for record with the secretary of state, and thereupon it shall become a corporation. A majority of the incorporators thereof shall be residents of this State, and its duration, without renewal, shall not exceed twenty years.

SEC. 2. Every such association shall have a president, a treasurer and not less than three directors, who shall together constitute a board of managers and conduct its business. Such officers shall be chosen annually by the stockholders, and shall hold their offices until others shall be chosen and qualified. The association shall make its own by-laws, not inconsistent with the law, and may herein provide for any other officers deemed necessary, and the mode of their selection. It may amend its articles of incorporation at any general

stockholders' meeting, or at any special meeting called for that purpose, upon ten days' notice to the stockholders. The amount of capital stock shall be fixed by the articles of incorporation, which amount and the number of shares may be increased or diminished at a stockholders' meeting, specially called for that purpose, but the whole amount of stock shall never exceed one hundred thousand dollars. Within thirty days after the adoption of the amendment increasing or diminishing its capital stock, it shall cause the vote so adopting it to be recorded in the office of the secretary of state. No share shall be issued for less than its par value, and no member shall own shares of a greater par value than one thousand dollars, or be entitled to more than one vote. It may commence business whenever 20 per cent of the authorized stock has been subscribed for and paid in, but no certificate of shares shall be issued to any person until the full amount of such subscription therein has been paid in cash, and no person shall become a shareholder therein except by the consent of the managers. If such board of managers, or the directors or officers having control of such association, for five consecutive years after its organization shall fail to declare a dividend upon its capital or shares, five or more stockholders, by petition, setting forth such fact, may apply to the district court of the county, wherein is situated its principal place of business in this State, for its dissolution. If, upon hearing, the allegations of the petition are found to be true, the court may adjudge a dissolution of the association. The profits on the earnings of such association shall be distributed to those entitled thereto by its by-laws and in proportions and at the times therein prescribed, which shall be as often as once in twelve months. Every corporation organized under the terms of this act shall, on or before December 30th, in each year, make a report to the State dairy and food commissioner; such report shall contain the name of the corporation, its principal place of business in this State, and generally a statement as to its business, showing total amount of business transacted, its profits and losses.

SEC. 3. Any corporation heretofore or hereafter organized under the provisions of section 3073, Revised Laws, 1905, or chapters 276 or 313, General Laws, 1905, is hereby authorized, in addition to those other powers to it granted, upon an affirmative vote of a majority of its stockholders, had at any regularly called annual or special meeting, to subscribe, through its officers, to the capital stock of any corporation organized under the provisions of this act, pay for the same and thereafter, in like manner, vote the same and exercise all the usual powers of a stockholder in a corporation, subject to the limitations hereinbefore set forth.

Approved April 22, 1907.

CHAPTER 299.—*Employment of children—General provisions.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 724-727.)

CHAPTER 356.—*Bureau of labor industries and commerce.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 888, 889.)

CHAPTER 368.—*Employment offices.*

SECTION 1. Section one thousand eight hundred and twenty-five (1825) of the Revised Laws of Minnesota, is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 1825. Any person desiring to conduct an employment bureau or agency, and to receive compensation for his services, shall be entitled to a license therefor upon compliance with the conditions of this section; but this subdivision shall apply to the employment of males only. Application for such license shall be made to the council of the city or village in which the agency is to be established, or, if outside a city or village, to the county board, and the applicant shall pay into the treasury a fee of \$100.00 (one hundred dollars). He shall also deliver to such council or board a bond to the State in the sum of two thousand (\$2,000) dollars, conditioned for the payment of all damages sustained by any person engaged by the obligor to labor for others, by reason of any authorized act, fraud or misrepresentation of the obligor or any of his agents or servants. The bond shall be filed with the city clerk, village recorder or county auditor, as the case may be. So long as the licensee continues to reside or maintain his office at the place mentioned in the license, he may engage in such business in any part of the State.

Approved April 23, 1907.

CHAPTER 456.—*Factories, workshops, etc.—Female inspector.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 889, 890.)

MISSOURI.

ACTS OF 1907.

Free public employment offices.

(Page 8.)

SECTION 29. * * * A free employment bureau shall be maintained at St. Louis, Kansas City and St. Joseph.

Approved May 13, 1907.

Employment of children—Age limit.

(Page 86.)

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 732-735.)

Blocking of frogs, switches, etc., on railroads.

(Page 181.)

SECTION 1. All companies or corporations, lessees or other persons owning or operating any railroad or part of railroad in this State, are hereby required, on or before the first day of September, nineteen hundred and seven (1907), to adopt, put in use and maintain the best known appliances or inventions to fill or block all switches, frogs and guard-rails on their roads, in all yards, divisional and terminal stations, and where trains are made up, to prevent, as far as possible, the feet of employees or other persons from being caught therein. Any company or corporation, lessees or other persons, owning or operating any railroad, or part of a railroad, in this State, who shall fail to do any act or thing in this section required to be done, or shall cause any act or thing not to be done, or shall aid or abet any such omission, shall be deemed guilty of a violation of this law, and shall forfeit and pay the sum of ten dollars (\$10.00) for every such offense, and each day shall constitute a separate and distinct offense. At every term of a court of record of this State having criminal jurisdiction, the judge thereof shall direct and charge grand juries to make special inquiry as to violation of this law.

SEC. 2. When any employee or other person shall be injured, maimed or killed, by reason of the noncompliance with the provisions of this act, then in any action for damages which may be instituted against any railroad company, corporation or lessee for such injuring, maiming or killing, proof of contributory negligence or carelessness on the part of any employee or other person so injured, maimed or killed, shall not relieve such railroad company, [corporation] or lessee from liability.

Approved February 28, 1907.

Safety appliances on railroads.

(Page 182.)

SECTION 1. From and after the first day of January, 1908, it shall be unlawful for any person, persons, partnership or corporation, operating any line of railroad, in whole or in part, within this State, either as owner, lessee or receiver, for the purpose of moving freight or passengers between points wholly within this State, to use upon such line of railroad any locomotive or engine to move such train of cars over such railroad without [having] such locomotive or engine equipped with power drive wheel brakes and fully and properly equipped with air brake appliances so that the engineer operating such locomotive or engine, shall have the means of fully and completely controlling the air brakes on the cars attached to said locomotive and engine without recourse to hand brakes, except in cases of emergency.

SEC. 2. From and after the first day of January, 1908, it shall be unlawful for any person, persons, company or corporation, operating any line of railroad, in whole or in part, in this State, either as owner, lessee or receiver, to use or permit to be used or hauled between stations within this State, on said line of railroad, any locomotive, tender, car or other vehicle for moving persons or freight, which shall not be equipped with hand holds, grab irons and couplers, coupling automatically by impact, and which can be coupled without the necessity of men going between the ends of the cars for the purpose of effecting such coupling.

SEC. 3. From and after the first day of January, 1908, it shall be unlawful for any person, persons, company or corporation, operating any line of railroad, in whole or in part within this State, whether as owner, lessee or receiver, to use any locomotive, tender, car or similar vehicle for the purpose of carrying persons or freight, on its line of railroad, between stations wholly within the State, unless such locomotive, tender, car or other similar vehicle shall be equipped with standard drawbars; that the standard height of drawbars on all standard-gauge roads shall be thirty-four and one-half inches, measuring from the top of the track rails to the center of the drawbar; and upon narrow-gauge roads such standard drawbar shall be twenty-six inches from the top of the track rails to the center of the drawbar, and the maximum variation from such standard height to be allowed between empty [and] loaded cars shall be three inches, whether or not the drawbars brought together are of the same kind, make or type.

SEC. 4. From and after the first day of January, 1908, it shall be unlawful for any person, persons, company or corporation, operating any line of railroad, in whole or in part, in this State, either as owner, lessee or receiver, to operate any train of cars over such line of railroad between stations within this State, unless at least 75 per cent of the cars composing such train shall be equipped with air or power brakes and [if] any of the remaining twenty-five per centum of such cars composing such train shall be so equipped with such air or power brakes they shall be so associated and connected that brakes thereon can be used, managed and operated by the engineer of the locomotive drawing such train.

SEC. 5. Whenever any person, persons, company or corporation operating any railroad, in whole or in part, in this State, either as owner, lessee or receiver, shall have equipped the locomotives, tenders, cars and similar vehicles used for the carrying of persons and freight between any stations within this State, in the manner and with the appliances and devices prescribed by this act, such railroad may refuse to receive for transportation over its line or lines or road any car or cars from connecting lines which are not equipped in accordance with the provisions of this act, without incurring any liability as a common carrier on account of such refusal.

SEC. 6. The provisions and requirements of this act relating to power drive wheel brakes, train brakes, automatic couplers, grab irons and the standard height of drawbars, shall be held to apply to all trains, locomotives, tenders, cars and similar devices used on or by any railroad engaged in the transportation of persons and freight between points within the State of Missouri: *Provided, however,* That the provisions of this act shall not apply to street railroads nor to tram railroads employed in the transportation of logs.

SEC. 7. Any such person, persons, company or corporation operating any railroad, in whole or in part, within this State, whether as owner, lessee or receiver, who shall violate any of the provisions of this act, shall be liable to the State of Missouri in a penalty of not less than one hundred nor more than five hundred dollars for each offense, and such penalty shall be recovered and suit therefor shall be brought in the name of the State of Missouri, in any court of competent jurisdiction in any county in the State, into or through which such railway may run, by the attorney-general, or under his direction, or by the prosecuting attorney of any county through or into or out of which trains may be operated by such railroad or by the circuit attorney in the city of St. Louis.

SEC. 8. Any employee of such railroad so operated as aforesaid who may be injured by any train, locomotive, tender, car or similar vehicle in use contrary to the provisions of this act, shall not be deemed to have assumed the risk thereby occasioned, nor to have been guilty of contributory negligence, because of continuing in the employment of such railroad or in the performance of his duties as such employee after the unlawful use of such train, locomotive, tender, car or similar device shall have been brought to his knowledge.

Approved March 19, 1907.

Liability of mine operators for injuries to employees.

(Page 251.)

(See Bulletin No. 74, p. 70.)

Actions for personal injuries—Survival.

(Page 252.)

SECTION 1. Causes of action upon which suit has been or may hereafter be brought by the injured party for personal injuries, other than those resulting in death, whether such injuries be to the health or to the person of the injured party, shall not abate by reason of his death, nor by reason of the death of the person against whom such cause of action shall have accrued; but in case of the death of either or both such parties, such cause of action shall survive to the personal representative of such injured party, and against the person, receiver or corporation liable for such injuries and his legal representatives, and the liability and the measure of damages shall be the same as if such death or deaths had not occurred.

Approved March 19, 1907.

Factory inspectors.

(Page 326.)

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 897, 898.)

Bureau of labor.

(Page 329.)

SECTION 1. Section 10073, Revised Statutes of Missouri of 1899 is hereby amended * * * so that said section, when amended, shall read as follows:

Section 10073. There is hereby established a separate and distinct department in this State, to be known as the "Bureau of Labor Statistics."

SEC. 2. Section 10074, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10074. The object of this department shall be to collect, assort, systematize and present in annual report to the governor to be by him transmitted biennially to the general assembly, statistical details and information relating to all departments of labor in the State, especially in its relations to the commercial, industrial, social, educational and sanitary condition of the laboring classes and to the permanent prosperity of the productive industries of the State.

SEC. 3. Section 10075, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10075. The governor shall, with the advice and consent of the senate, appoint, immediately after this article goes into effect, and every four years thereafter, some suitable person to perform the duties herein required, who shall be known as commissioner of labor statistics, and who shall keep an office in such place as may be designated by the governor.

SEC. 4. Section 10076, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10076. The commissioner shall, annually, on or before the 5th day of November, present a report in writing, to the governor, which shall contain statistical details [relating] to all departments of labor in the State, together with such other information as is contemplated by section 10074.

SEC. 5. Section 10078, * * * is hereby repealed, and the following section enacted in lieu thereof:

Sec. 10078. The commissioner of labor statistics shall be authorized to have printed not to exceed three thousand copies of his annual report for general distribution, and all printing, binding, bulletins, blanks, stationery or map work shall be done under any contract which the State now has or shall have and the expense thereof shall be audited and paid for in the same manner as for similar [work] for the State, out of the appropriation for the purchase of material, printing and publishing documents for the State.

SEC. 6. Section 10079, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10079. Any owner, operator, manager or lessee of any mine, factory, workshop, warehouse, elevator, foundry, machine shop or other manufacturing establishment, or any other employer of labor, or any agent or employee of such owner, operator, manager or lessee, who shall refuse to said commissioner, when requested by him, any statistical or other information relative to his duties which may be in their possession or under their control, shall for every such neglect or refusal, be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall on conviction, be fined in a sum not less than twenty-five nor more than one hundred dollars.

SEC. 7. Section 10080, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10080. The commissioner of labor statistics shall receive an annual salary of two thousand dollars, payable monthly and said commissioner is hereby authorized to employ such assistance and incur such expense, as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this article, such expense to be paid on the vouchers presented by the commissioner: *Provided, however,* That said expenses shall not exceed, in any one year, the amount appropriated therefor; said commissioner shall before entering upon the duties of his office, execute a bond to the State of Missouri, in the sum of twenty thousand dollars, with two or more good and sufficient sureties, conditioned upon the faithful, honest and impartial performance of his duties under this article, which bond shall be approved by the State auditor and filed in his office. Said commissioner shall include in his annual report to the governor an itemized statement of the expenses of the bureau incurred by him.

SEC. 8. Section 10081, * * * is hereby repealed and the following section enacted in lieu thereof:

Sec. 10081. The commissioner of labor statistics is hereby directed to collect any information he may deem necessary to carry out the objects of the bureau as set forth in section 10074, and is hereby authorized to furnish suitable blanks to managers of public service corporations, county, city and township officers, and to the officers of prisons, penal and reformatory institutions, and it shall be the duty of all such managers and officers to furnish such information as the commissioner may require and which may be in their possession with the least possible delay.

SEC. 9. Section 10083, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10083. It shall be the duty of every owner, operator or lessee of any factory, foundry or machine shop or other manufacturing establishment doing business within this State to report annually, on or before the first day of March, to the commissioner of the bureau of labor statistics, the name of firm or corporation and the number of members, male and female, constituting the same; where located; capital invested in grounds, buildings and machinery; class and value of goods manufactured; aggregate value of raw material used; total number of days in operation; amount paid yearly for rent, tax and insurance; total amount paid in wages; total number of employees, male and female; number engaged in clerical and manual labor, with detailed classification of the number and sex of employees engaged in each class, and average daily wages paid to each.

SEC. 10. Section 10084, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section, when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10084. The commissioner of the bureau of labor statistics is hereby authorized to furnish suitable blanks to the owner, operator, manager or lessee of any factory, workshop, elevator, foundry, machine shop or any other manufacturing establishment, to enable said owner, operator, manager or lessee to intelligently comply with the provisions of section 10083 of this article; and any such owner, operator, manager or lessee who shall neglect or refuse to comply with the provisions of this article, or who shall untruthfully answer any question or questions put to him by the commissioner of labor, in a circular or otherwise in furtherance of the provisions of sections 10081 and 10083, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars nor more than two hundred dollars.

Approved March 19, 1907.

Hours of labor of railway telegraphers.

(Page 332.)

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person, corporation or receiver operating a line of railroad in whole or in part in the State of Missouri, or any officer, agent or representative of such person, corporation or receiver, to require or permit any telegraph or telephone operator who spaces trains by the use of the telegraph or telephone under what is known and termed the "block system" (defined as follows): Reporting trains to another office or offices or to a train dispatcher operating one or more trains under signals, and telegraph or telephone levermen, who manipulate interlocking machines in railroad yards or on main tracks out on the lines connecting side tracks or switches, or train dispatchers in its service whose duties substantially, as hereinbefore set forth, pertain to the movement of cars, engines or trains on its railroad by the use of the telegraph or telephone in dispatching or reporting trains or receiving or transmitting train orders as interpreted in this section to be on duty for more than eight hours in a day of twenty-four hours, and it is hereby declared that eight hours shall constitute a day of employment for all laborers or employees engaged in the kind of labor aforesaid: *Provided*, That at stations that are kept open only during the day time where only one telegraph or telephone operator be employed, they may work twelve hours in a day of twenty-four hours, and that the hours of service of telegraph or telephone operators as interpreted in this section shall be consecutive, including one meal hour: *Provided further*, That in case of sickness, death, wrecks or washouts, telegraph or telephone operators may be held on duty not to exceed sixteen hours in a day of twenty-four hours.

SEC. 2. Any person or persons, company or corporation, who shall violate any of the provisions of the preceding section, shall, on conviction, be fined not more than one thousand dollars.

Approved April 12, 1907.

Mine regulations.

(Page 363.)

SECTION 1. Section 8823, * * * [Revised Statutes shall] be amended * * * so that said act shall, when amended, read as follows:

Section 8823. The owner, agent or operator of any coal mine in this State, employing five or more persons, if said mine is worked on the room and pillar plan, shall cause the work in such mine to be prosecuted in the following manner, and none other, to-wit: Two entries must be driven parallel for the ingress and egress of the air, and crosscuts must be made at intervals not to exceed fifty feet apart, and no rooms, entries or other openings shall be allowed to start inside of the last crosscut until the next one be made; and further, that it shall be unlawful for any owner, operator or agent for any person, persons, corporation or company to permit the mouth or mouths [of] worked out or abandoned rooms or entries in any coal mine to remain open for a period exceeding one month from the date of abandonment of any such room, rooms, entry or entries. All such abandoned work as designated must be securely sealed in such manner as will effectually prevent the escape of all gases or other impurities calculated to vitiate the ventilative current of a mine: *Provided*, That the sealing of rooms and entries herein provided for shall only be required in such mines and places therein as the mine inspector shall in his discretion deem necessary for insuring the health and safety of workmen therein.

Approved March 22, 1907.

(Page 364.)

SECTION 1. The State mine inspectors of lead mines, zinc mines and mines other than coal are hereby authorized, empowered and directed to thoroughly inspect all underground excavations in all lead mines, zinc mines and mines other than coal, as often as the inspector may deem proper after the passage and approval of this act, to ascertain the condition of said underground excavations with [respect] to the safety of all employees working in such underground excavations; and, if after such examination, the inspectors shall find that the

safety of the employees engaged in working in such excavations is imperiled by reason of [there] being only one shaft or outlet by which a distinct means of ingress and egress is always available to such employees, it shall be the duty of such inspectors to immediately notify the owner, agent or operator of such mine, in writing, specifying the particular underground excavation so found to be unsafe or dangerous, and direct the owner, agent or operator to, within thirty days after receiving such notice, commence to sink another shaft or outlet for such underground excavation, at [some] point to be agreed to by such inspector, and prosecute the sinking of such shaft or outlet with all due diligence until the same is completed. And the State mine inspectors aforesaid shall have power, if they deem it for the safety of the employees, to order all employees engaged in working in such underground excavations so found to be unsafe or dangerous to quit work until such other shaft or outlet shall have been completed, or until further notified by such inspector.

SEC. 2. The State mine inspectors for lead mines, zinc mines and other mines other than coal are hereby authorized, empowered and directed to thoroughly inspect all underground excavations in all lead mines, zinc mines and mines other than coal, as often as the inspector may deem proper, from and after the passage and approval of this act, and ascertain the condition of such underground excavations with respect to the health of employees engaged in working in such underground excavations; and, if after such examination, the inspector shall find that the health of the employees is impaired by reason of there not being sufficient circulation of air or ventilation for such employees, it shall be the duty of such inspector to immediately notify the owner, agent or operator of such mine, in writing, specifying the underground excavation so found to be unhealthful, and direct such owner, agent or operator of such mine to, within fifteen days after receiving such written notice, commence to drill a sufficient number of air holes for such underground excavation, at some point or points to be agreed to by such inspectors, and prosecute the drilling of such air hole or holes with all due diligence until they are completed. And the inspectors shall have power, if they deem it for the interest of the employees, to order all employees engaged in working in such underground excavations so affected by said notice to quit work until such air hole or holes shall have been completed, or until further notified by such inspector.

SEC. 3. Every person, owner, agent or operator of any lead mines, zinc mines or mines other than coal, who shall violate any of the provisions of this act, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment in the county jail for a term not exceeding six months, or by a fine not less than one hundred dollars for each offense, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Approved March 18, 1907.

Employment of children—School attendance—St. Louis.

(Page 428.)

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 736-738.)

NEBRASKA.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 48.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employeess—Railroad companies.*

(See Bulletin No. 74, p. 72.)

CHAPTER 52.—*Time to vote to be allowed employees.*

SECTION 34. Any person entitled to vote at a primary election shall, on the day of such election, be entitled to absent himself from any service or employment in which he is then engaged or employed, for a period of two hours between the time of opening and closing the polls, and such voter shall not, because of so absenting himself be liable to any penalty nor shall any deduction be made, on account of such absence, from his usual salary or wages: *Provided,*

however, That application for such leave of absence shall be made prior to the day of the primary.

The employer may specify the hours during which the employee may absent himself.

Approved April 3, 1907.

CHAPTER 66.—*Employment of children—General provisions.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 742-747.)

CHAPTER 112.—*Rates of wages on public roads.*

SECTION 2. * * * When necessary in his judgment, such officer [in charge of road work] may, upon one day's notice, written or verbal, communicated in person or by telephone, call out any able-bodied man under fifty years of age, or any team or teams owned by any person in the district, to perform such work upon any road, bridge or culvert in his district as he may direct not exceeding two days at any one time. Going wages to be paid for such men and teams for the time actually worked. * * *

SEC. 3. * * * Such highways [used for rural free delivery mail routes] shall be kept properly drained and dragged and free from all obstructions, including snowdrifts, so as to be at all times in good condition for ordinary travel, and he [the officer in charge of road work] shall pay for the shoveling out of snowdrifts not to exceed 20 cents per hour for one man, and not to exceed 40 cents per hour for a man with team and scraper.

Approved April 6, 1907.

CHAPTER 131.—*Employment of children—School attendance.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 741, 742.)

CHAPTER 154.—*Age of employment of night telegraph operators, etc., on railroads.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any common carrier within this State to put in charge of any telegraph office or signal tower, between the hours of seven o'clock in the evening and seven o'clock in the morning, any telegraph operator or towerman whose duty it shall be to assist in the movement of trains, unless such telegraph operator or towerman shall have reached the age of at least twenty-one years: *Provided*, This act shall not apply when such common carrier is engaged in relieving its tracks of a train wreck, an act of God, or some public calamity.

SEC. 2. Any common carrier within this State who shall violate the provisions of section one of this act shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction by any court of competent jurisdiction, shall be fined in any sum of not less than five nor more than fifty dollars for every night any such minor person is so employed in charge of every such railway station or tower.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 160.—*Exemption of wages from attachment, etc.*

SECTION 1. Section 1529 [Code 531a] of Cobbe's Annotated Statutes of Nebraska of 1903 is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 1529. The wages of all persons who are heads of families, in the hands of those by whom such persons may be employed, both before and after such wages shall be due, shall be exempt from the operation of attachment, execution and garnishee process to the extent of ninety per cent of the amount of such wages: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall be so construed as to protect the wages of persons who have or are about to abscond or leave the State, from the provisions of law now in force upon that subject.

Approved April 9, 1907.

CHAPTER 171.—*Bribery, etc., of employees.*

SECTION 1. Whoever gives, offers or promises to an agent, employee or servant, any gift or gratuity whatever, without the knowledge and consent of the

principal, employer or master of such agent, employee or servant, with intent to influence his action in relation to his principal's, employer's or master's business; or an agent, employee or servant who without the knowledge and consent of his principal, employer or master, requests or accepts a gift or gratuity or a promise to make a gift or to do an act beneficial to himself, under an agreement or with an understanding that he shall act in any particular manner to his principal's, employer's or master's business; or an agent employee or servant, who, being authorized to procure materials, supplies or other articles either by purchase or contract for his principal, employer or master, or to employ service or labor for his principal, employer or master, receives directly or indirectly, for himself or for another a commission, discount or bonus from the person who makes such sale or contract, or furnishes such materials, supplies or other articles, or from a person who renders such service or labor; and any person who gives or offers such an agent, employee or servant such commission, discount or bonus shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and shall be punished by a fine of not less than ten dollars nor more than five hundred dollars, or by such fine and by imprisonment in the county jail for not more than one year.

Approved February 26, 1907.

NEVADA.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 44.—*Accidents on railroads.*

SECTION 30. Every railroad shall, whenever an accident attendant with loss of human life occurs within this State, upon its line of road or on its depot grounds or yards, give immediate notice thereof to the [railroad] commission. In the event of any such accident, the commission, if it deem the public interest requires it, shall cause an investigation to be made forthwith, which investigation shall be held in the locality of the accident, unless, for greater convenience of those concerned, it shall order such investigation to be held at some other place, and said investigation may be adjourned from place to place as may be found necessary and convenient. The commission shall seasonably notify an officer or station agent of the company of the time and place of the investigation. The cost of such investigation shall be certified by the chairman of the commission, and the same shall be audited and paid by the State in the same manner as other expenses are audited and paid and a record or file of said proceedings and evidence shall be kept by said commission.

Approved March 5, 1907.

CHAPTER 180.—*Trade-marks of trade unions.*

SECTION 1. Every person or association or union of workmen or others that has adopted or shall adopt for their protection any label, trade-mark or form of advertisement, may file the same for record in the office of the secretary of state by leaving two copies, counterparts or facsimiles thereof with the secretary of state. Said secretary shall thereupon deliver to such person, association or union so filing the same a duly attested certificate of the record of the same, for which he shall receive a fee of two (\$2) dollars. Such certificate of record shall in all actions and prosecutions, under the following three sections be sufficient proof of the adoption of such label, trade-mark or form of advertisement, and the right of said person, association or union to adopt the same.

SEC. 2. Every person, association or union adopting a label, trade-mark, or form of advertisement, as specified in the preceding section, may proceed by action to enjoin the manufacture, use, display or sale of any counterfeit or imitation thereof; and all courts having jurisdiction of such actions shall grant injunctions to restrain such manufacture, use, display or sale and a reasonable attorney's fee, to be fixed by the court, and shall require the defendant to pay to such person, association or union the profits derived from such wrongful manufacture, use, display or sale, and a reasonable attorney's fee to be fixed by the court, and said court shall also order that all such counterfeits or imitations in the possession or under the control of any defendant in such case be delivered to an officer of the court to be destroyed. Such actions may be prose-

cuted for the benefit of any association or union by any officers or members thereof.

Sec. 3. It shall be unlawful for any person or corporation to imitate any label, trade-mark or form of advertisement adopted as provided in the second preceding section, or to knowingly use any counterfeit or imitation thereof, or to use or display such genuine label, trade-mark or form or [of] advertisement or the name or seal of such person, union, or association, or of any officer thereof, unless authorized so to do, or in any manner not authorized by him or it. Any person violating any provisions of this section shall be imprisoned in the county jail not more than thirty days or be fined not less than twenty-five nor more than one hundred dollars.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 181.—*Arbitration of labor disputes.*

SECTION 1. Whenever a controversy concerning wages, hours of labor, or conditions of employment shall arise between an employer and his employees, seriously interrupting or threatening to interrupt the business of the employer, the governor shall, upon the request of either party to the controversy, with all practicable expedition, put himself in communication with the parties to such controversy, and shall use his best efforts, by mediation and conciliation, to amicably settle the same. He may either exercise such powers of conciliation himself, or appoint a commission for such purpose. If such efforts of conciliation shall be unsuccessful, the governor shall at once endeavor to bring about an arbitration of such controversy in accordance with the provisions of this act.

Sec. 2. That whenever such controversy shall arise between an employer and his employees which can not be settled by mediation and conciliation in the manner provided in the preceding section, such controversy may, with the consent of the parties to the controversy, be submitted to the arbitration of a board of three persons who shall be chosen in the manner following: One shall be named by the employer directly interested; the other by the labor organization to which the employees directly interested belong, or if they belong to more than one, such arbitrator shall be agreed upon and designated by the concurrent action of all such labor organizations. The two thus chosen shall select the third commissioner of arbitration, but in the event of their failure to name such arbitrator within five days after their first meeting, the three arbitrators shall be named by the governor. A majority of said arbitrators shall be competent to make a binding and valid award under the provisions hereof. The submission shall be in writing, shall be signed by the employer and by the labor organization or organizations representing employees, shall specify the time and place of meeting of such board of arbitration, shall state the questions to be decided, and shall contain appropriate provisions by which the respective parties shall stipulate as follows:

First—That the board of arbitration shall commence their hearings within ten days from the date of the appointment of the third arbitrator, and shall find and file their award within thirty days from the date of the appointment of the third arbitrator; and that pending the arbitration the status existing immediately prior to the dispute shall not be changed: *Provided*, That no employee shall be compelled to render personal service without his consent.

Second—That the award and the papers and proceedings, including the testimony relating thereto certified under the hands of the arbitrators, shall be filed in the clerk's office of the district court for the district wherein the controversy arises or the arbitration is entered into, and shall be final and conclusive upon both parties, unless set aside for error of law apparent on the record.

Third—That the respective parties to the award will each faithfully execute the same, and that the same may be specifically enforced in equity so far as the powers of a court of equity permit: *Provided*, That no injunction or other legal process shall be issued which shall compel the performance by any laborer against his will of a contract for personal labor or service.

Fourth—That employees dissatisfied with the award shall not by reason of such dissatisfaction quit the service of the employer before the expiration of three months from and after the making of such award without giving thirty days' notice in writing of their intention so to quit. Nor shall the employer dissatisfied with such award dismiss any employee or employees on account of

such dissatisfaction before the expiration of three months from and after the making of such award without giving thirty days' notice in writing of his intention so to discharge.

Fifth—That said award shall continue in force as between the parties thereto for the period of one year after the same shall go into practical operation, and no new arbitration upon the same subject between the same employer and the same class of employees shall be had until the expiration of said one year if the award is not set aside as provided.

SEC. 3. That the award being filed in the clerk's office of the district court, as hereinbefore provided, shall go into practical operation, and judgment shall be entered thereon accordingly at the expiration of ten days from such filing, unless within such ten days either party shall file exceptions thereto for matter of law apparent on the record, in which case said award shall go into practical operation and judgment be entered accordingly when such exceptions shall have been finally disposed of either by said district court or on appeal therefrom. At the expiration of ten days from the decision of the district court upon exception taken to said award as aforesaid, judgment shall be entered in accordance with said decision, unless during said ten days either party shall appeal therefrom to the supreme court of the State of Nevada. In such case only such portion of the record shall be transmitted to the supreme court as is necessary to a proper understanding and consideration of the questions of law presented by said exceptions and to be decided. The determination of said supreme court upon said questions shall be final, and being certified by the clerk thereof to said district court, judgment pursuant thereto shall thereupon be entered by said district court. If exceptions to an award are finally sustained, judgment shall be entered setting aside the award, but in such case the parties may agree upon a judgment to be entered disposing of the subject-matter of the controversy, which judgment when entered shall have the same force and effect as judgment entered upon award.

SEC. 4. That for the purposes of this act the arbitrators herein provided for, or either of them, shall have power to administer oaths and affirmations, sign subpoenas, require the attendance and testimony of witnesses, and the production of such books, papers, contracts, agreements, and documents material to a just determination of the matters under investigation, as may be ordered by the courts; and may invoke the aid of the said courts to compel witnesses to attend and testify, and to produce such books, papers, contracts, agreements and documents as the courts shall determine to be material and competent evidence.

SEC. 5. That every agreement of arbitration under this act shall be acknowledged by the parties before a notary public or clerk of the district court of the State, and when so acknowledged a copy of the same shall be filed with and recorded by the county recorder of the county in which the arbitration is entered into, and a copy shall also be sent to the governor who shall file the same in the office of the secretary of state, who shall cause a notice in writing to be served upon the arbitrators, fixing the time and place for a meeting of said board, which shall be within fifteen days from the execution of said agreement of arbitration: *Provided, however,* That the governor shall decline to call a meeting of the arbitrators under such agreement unless it be shown to his satisfaction that the employees signing the submission represent or include a majority of all the employees in the service of the same employer and of the same grade and class, and that an award pursuant to said submission can justly be regarded as binding upon all such employees.

SEC. 6. That during the pendency of arbitration under this act it shall not be lawful for the employer, party to such arbitration, to discharge the employees, parties thereto, except for inefficiency, violation of law, or neglect of duty; nor for the organization representing such employees to order, nor for the employees to unite in, aid or abet, strikes against said employer; nor, during a period of three months after an award under such an arbitration, for such employer to discharge any such employees, except for the causes aforesaid, without giving thirty days' written notice of an intent so to discharge; nor for any of such employees, during a like period, to quit the service of said employer without just cause, without giving to said employer thirty days' written notice of an intent so to do; nor for such organization representing such employees to order, counsel, or advise otherwise. Any violation of this section shall subject the offending party to liability for damages: *Provided,* That nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent any employer, party to such arbitration,

from reducing the number of its or his employees whenever in its or his judgment business necessities require such a reduction.

SEC. 7. The agreement of arbitration shall provide for the compensation of arbitrators, and their traveling and other necessary expenses.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 184.—*Examination, etc., of steam engineers at mines.*

SECTION 2. Section one of the * * * act [of March 17, 1905] is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Section 1. In addition to the various other powers and duties provided by law for the boards of county commissioners of the several counties of this State said boards shall have the power, and it is hereby made their duty, to regulate the operation of stationary engines, steam apparatus or other hoisting machinery used for the purpose of hoisting or lowering men or material from a shaft or mine subject to and in conformity with the provisions of this act.

SEC. 3. Section three of the * * * act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Sec. 3. No license shall be granted or issued to any person to operate any stationary engine, steam boiler, hoist, apparatus or machinery, until the applicant therefor shall have taken and subscribed to an oath that he has had at least one year's experience in the operation of steam boilers and machinery, or whose knowledge and experience is not such as to justify the board before whom such application is made in the belief that he is competent to take charge of all classes of steam boilers and other stationary hoisting machinery.

SEC. 4. Section seven of the * * * act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

SEC. 7. Any person operating any stationary engine, steam boiler, hoist or other stationary machinery or apparatus or hoisting machinery used for the purpose of hoisting or lowering men or material from a shaft or mine, where the lives, health or limbs of men may be involved, who has not first procured the license herein provided for, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof in any court of competent jurisdiction, shall be fined in a sum not less than fifty (\$50) dollars nor more than two hundred and fifty (\$250) dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail not less than thirty nor more than one hundred and twenty days, or by both such fine and imprisonment, in the discretion of the court: *Provided*, That nothing in this act contained shall be held to apply to those operating in person their own private apparatus nor to persons operating any stationary engine, steam boiler or other apparatus or machinery for town or city purposes.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 186.—*Hours of labor of telegraph operators, etc., on railroads.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person, corporation or association operating a railroad within this State to permit any telegraph or telephone operator who spaces trains by the use of the telegraph or telephone under what is known and termed "block system" (defined as follows): Reporting trains to another office or offices or to a train dispatcher operating one or more trains under signals, and telegraph and telephone levermen who manipulate interlocking machines in railroad yards or on main tracks out on the lines connecting said tracks or switches, or train dispatchers in its service whose duties substantially as hereinbefore set forth, pertain to the movement of cars, engines or trains on its railroad by the use of telegraph or telephone in dispatching or reporting trains or receiving or transmitting train orders as interpreted in this section, to be on duty for more than eight hours in any twenty-four consecutive hours.

SEC. 2. Any person, corporation or association that shall violate section 1 of this act, shall pay a fine of one hundred dollars for each violation of this act.

SEC. 3. The fine mentioned in section 2 of this act shall be recovered by an action of debt in the name of the State of Nevada for the use of the State, who shall sue for it against such person, corporation or association violating this act, said suit to be instituted in any court in this State having appropriate jurisdiction.

SEC. 4. The said fine when recovered as aforesaid, shall be paid without any deduction whatever, one-half thereof to the informer and the balance thereof to be paid in to the public school fund of the State of Nevada.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 202.—*Rate of wages of laborers on public works.*

SECTION 1. On all public works carried on in the erection of public buildings by or for the State of Nevada, or by any individual, firm, company, or corporation under contract with the State of Nevada, unskilled labor shall be paid for at a rate of not less than three (\$3) dollars per eight-hour day for each male person over the age of eighteen years who shall be employed at such labor.

SEC. 2. Any person or persons, firm or corporation conducting or carrying on any public work, as specified in section 1 of this act, that shall violate the provisions of this act, upon conviction of such violation in a court of competent jurisdiction, shall be fined the sum of fifty (\$50) dollars for each man employed at such labor for not less than three (\$3) dollars per eight-hour day.

Approved March 29, 1907.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 94.—*Hours of labor of women and children.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 748, 749.)

CHAPTER 113.—*Electric railways—Cars to have power brakes.*

SECTION 1. On or before May 1st, 1910, all eight-wheeled or double-truck cars, so called, operated by electric power, for the purpose of conveying passengers, by any street railway in the State of New Hampshire shall be provided with power brakes of a standard of efficiency to be approved by the railroad commissioners.

SEC. 2. Any street railway failing to comply with the provisions of section 1 of this act shall be liable to a fine of ten dollars (\$10) per day for each car operated without such equipment.

Approved April 4, 1907.

CHAPTER 142.—*Barber shops—Inspection, etc.*

SECTION 1. Boards of health of towns and cities are hereby authorized and directed to promulgate the following rules and regulations for the management of barber shops. Barber shops or places where the trade is carried on shall be kept at all times in a cleanly condition. Mugs, shaving brushes and razors shall be sterilized by immersion in boiling water or some sterilizing solution after every separate use thereof. A clean towel shall be used for each person. Alum, or other material, used to stop the flow of blood shall be used only in powdered form. The use of powder puffs and sponges is prohibited. Every barber shop shall be provided with hot water. No person or persons shall be allowed to sleep in any room used wholly or in part for tonsorial purposes nor shall the business of a barber be carried on in any room used as a sleeping apartment. Every barber shall cleanse his hands thoroughly immediately after serving each customer.

SEC. 2. Any person violating any of the rules and regulations prescribed herein, or any other rules and regulations, prescribed by the boards of health for the protection of the public health in barber shops shall be fined not less than ten dollars for each offense.

SEC. 3. From and after the passage of this act it shall be the duty of boards of health in the several towns and cities to regularly inspect all barber shops and prosecute such violation of the rules and regulations as may come or be brought to their notice.

Approved April 5, 1907.

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF LABOR LAWS AND DECISIONS RELATING THERETO.

[This index includes all labor laws enacted since January 1, 1904, and published in successive issues of the Bulletin, beginning with Bulletin No. 57, the issue of March, 1905. Laws enacted previously appear in the Tenth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor. The decisions indexed under the various headings relate to the laws on the same subjects without regard to their date of enactment and are indicated by the letter "D" in parenthesis following the name of the State. Opinions of the Attorney-General on the construction, etc., of labor laws are similarly indexed, and are indicated by the abbreviation "Op." in parenthesis.]

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