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JULY, 1909.

THE WOMEN'S TRADE UNION MOVEMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN.

BY KATHERINE GRAVES BUSBEY, A. B.

HISTORY OF THE MOVEMENT.

In 1827, after the repeal of the Combination Laws, when the Grand General Union of the United Kingdom was being started by the cotton spinners, the women and girls were urged to form separate organizations; and though these organizations did not last, it seems appropriate that one of the earliest indications of women's trade unions should be found in the cotton textiles trade, which on the lines of united enrollment now includes in its membership three-fourths of the organized women of Great Britain. Anyone who has seen a Lancashire demonstration with its audience of thousands of trade unionists and file after file of women and girls among the men's ranks, each wearing the badge of her union—the cotton bud—has had an object lesson in the possibilities of organization among female workers.

In spite of this early effort among the cotton textile operatives and several sporadic attempts in Scotland, it was not until 1874 that a successful attempt was made to organize the women in industries in Great Britain. On September 12 of that year "the first society formed for women," what is now known as the "Women's Trade Union League," was started.

The organizer of this society had worked in the bookbinding trade in London, and out of her experience had come the desire to formulate some scheme to help the working women of England to help themselves. Yet in those days even in England none dared speak openly of trade unionism among women.

To have attempted a militant organization of women wage-earners would have meant disaster, since it would have awakened the fear

of competition in the men's unions, thus incurring their opposition, and would also have aroused public opinion which was averse to women's self-assertion in any form. Furthermore, at that time trade unionism in itself meant to the average person the use of illegal methods, and to the more educated it was an irremissible sin against the inspired ordinances of political economy.

Strangely enough the model for the first women's trade union in Great Britain was found in America. A casual attendance upon a meeting of the Female Umbrella Makers' Union in New York in 1873 revealed to the founder of the British movement the success and force of a body of women workers banded together to accumulate a sick benefit fund, and on her return to England she started an organization under the title of the "Women's Protective and Provident League."

The title, "Women's Protective and Provident League," was considered safe in that it did not suggest to the casual hearer any offensive and defensive character of union, but the decisive tenor of the organization may be gathered from the following resolution adopted at the first meeting:^(a)

"That one of the objects of the association shall be to enable women earning their own livelihood to combine to protect their interests."

And the last resolution offered at this meeting was:

"That it shall be one of the objects of the association to provide a benefit fund for assistance in sickness and other contingencies."

The abstract of rules by which these early societies were governed furnished a more specific disclaimer of any intention to establish a hostile alignment of employers and women workers:

1. Women 16 years of age and upward working at any branch of the trade shall be eligible to become members.

2. After the society shall have been formed 6 months a candidate for membership shall be recommended by two members, who shall vouch that she is a competent workwoman.

3. Entrance fee from 2s. to 1s. [49 to 24 cents], varying in different societies, payable by installments of 4d. [8 cents] per week; and subscription 2d. [4 cents] per week.

4. A member when out of work or in sickness (excepting confinements) shall receive 5s. [\$1.22] per week for not more than 8 weeks in 1 year and for not less than 1 week.

5. If any member be found to have been in any way imposing on the funds of the society, or defrauding an employer, she shall be suspended from all benefits until the next quarterly meeting.

This sick-benefit fund was the salient feature in the propaganda in the different trades, and it was not until 1889 that sufficient courage was gathered to substitute the words "Trade Union" for "Protective," and several years elapsed until "Provident" was abandoned

^a First Annual Report of the Women's Protective and Provident League, 1875.

and the "Women's Trade Union League" became a confessed agency for the cause of industrial organizations for the advancement and defense of female labor.

This league has since its formation in 1874 until the present day supplied the machinery for dealing with the unorganized women wage-earners. Its methods and scope of work will be treated later.

The first effort of the league was to reach out and bind together the women employed in the printing trade. These women had strongly felt the want of a provident society during a trade depression three years before, but the men in the trade refused to admit them in their league because they claimed there was no provision for the admission of women, and also at that time women's wages were seldom more than one-half those of men, and women would have been unable to pay the subscriptions.

The appeal for a separate organization among the women met with a hearty response. Three hundred employed in folding, sewing, and other branches of the bookbinding trade attended the first meeting and 66 immediately enrolled as members with a subscription of 2d. (4 cents) per week, and an entrance fee of 1s. (24 cents). At the end of the first year the membership had increased to 275 with funds amounting to £80 (\$389.32), and this Society of Women Employed in Bookbinding is still extant, while over 20 of the original members, all now over 60 years of age, hold monthly reunions in the rooms of the Women's Trade Union League.

But agitation has never been the policy of the society. It has refused to join with the men in making demands upon the employers; its representatives at trade union congresses and elsewhere have steadily insisted on legal restrictions upon labor; it has not shown itself anxious to seize what the men regarded as opportunities to make itself felt.

Perhaps the union has been too willing to make requests to good employers for better conditions, and too timorous in helping to level up the general conditions of the trade. * * * But this union has never reached that point of strength when it could bring pressure to bear on the trade for the mutual advantage of the good employer and the woman worker. As a consequence the good relations between the men and the woman in the trade have not always been maintained, and there was considerable ill feeling between the two sections during the eight-hours' agitation from 1891 to 1894. It should be noted, however, that the sentiment among the women as a whole was friendly during the eight-hours' agitation, although the society was taking no part in it officially.

At the present moment this society is regarded by both men and women mainly as a benefit club. In this respect it has been most successful and has paid with excellent regularity.^(a)

What Mr. Macdonald says of the society of women employed in bookbinding holds true also of all the other early societies estab-

^a Women in the Printing Trades, by J. Ramsay Macdonald, pp. 37, 38.

lished under the auspices of the Women's Protective and Provident League.^a) They were not fighting organizations, their leaders believing that to attempt too much is to weaken.

Although the unions were often the outgrowth of a grievance on the part of the workers, in the early records of the league there is little evidence of the belligerency having a favorable termination or of being continued after the women had united into a trade society.

In September, 1879, a society having been formed among the cotton operatives in Bristol, the women went out on strike, but the men refused to aid them and they were obliged to return to work at a reduction. In this same year a women's union at the Royal Army Clothing Factory, at Pimlico, was formed to resist a reduction in piecework prices of from 15 to 20 per cent and the withdrawal of home work. A deputation of 1,000 women unionists went to the doors of the House of Commons and several women from the factory gave evidence.

In 1876 the movement had gained such proportions that delegates from three women's trade societies—shirtmakers, women bookbinders, and the upholsteresses' union—were admitted to the Eighth Annual Trades Union Congress held at Glasgow, and at the meeting of the Trades Union Council, in 1879, five women representing unions were not only present, but took an active part in the proceedings. A resolution offered by them for the appointment of additional inspectors, women as well as men, under the factory and workshop act, was approved and carried.

The woman trade-unionist had begun to play her part in the vicissitudes and development of the trade-union movement.

By the early eighties most of the separate organizations of women in large industries had died out, being superseded by co-unionism, and from this period the woman trade-unionist became an economic factor to be reckoned with in trade disputes and labor legislation.

In 1885 the Women's Trade Union League made the first effort to compile a log book with the hope of securing a uniform price for similar work in the trades.

At the trades union congress of 1889 a resolution was offered "that in the opinion of this congress it is desirable, in the interest both of men and women, that in trades where women do the same work as men they shall receive the same payment."

^aAccording to the First Annual Report of the Women's Protective and Provident League there had been five flourishing unions affiliated with the league within the year. A few months after the formation of the women bookbinders' union a meeting of 400 women comprising representatives from dressmakers, milliners, and mantle makers combined into another society. In March, 1875, the women employed in the work of binding, sewing, and trimming men's hats established a society. Next, women in the upholstery trades formed a union and affiliated themselves with the National League. The fifth society formed was of shirt and collar makers.

An equal scale of wages was found impossible of general application because men and women are seldom found doing exactly the same kind of work, and even when apparently the same there is generally a "net advantageousness" about the labor of the male employee;^(a) still the schedule of piecework in the cotton industries of Lancashire is the same for male and female operatives, and this is acknowledged as a triumph for the woman trade-unionists in this stronghold of trade unionism, the total female membership of the Lancashire cotton unions being about 146,000 in 1908, or approximately 75 per cent of the entire membership.

But the Lancashire unions must not be taken as indicative of the strength of women's trade organizations throughout Great Britain. In chronicling this triumph of organization, almost three-fourths of the women trade-unionists are disposed of, and because of the matured condition of trade unionism in this district before the advent of women into industrial organization there is not obtained an adequate idea of the difficulties ordinarily encountered by those attempting to combine women workers not massed in one district.

OBSTACLES TO ORGANIZATION OF WOMEN.

The achievement from the formation of a benefit club of 66 members in the bookbinding trade to the present enrolled membership of over 200,000 women trade-unionists has not been easy for the organizers. A survey of the obstacles encountered explains why stable organization has been so difficult in the great proportion of women's labor.

Certain theories in regard to women in the industrial system handicapped the initial efforts for organization. The recognition that "for good or ill, in spite of the sentimental idea of woman's place being the home, women have come into industry to stay," was slow to come.^(b)

"The gradual influx of women into almost every trade or industry and the consequent lowering of wages which their unregulated competition entails" was necessary before the woman wage-earners could be considered sufficiently important as an economic factor to make protective combination among them practicable.

It is estimated that, outside of agricultural workers, there were, in 1906, 1,600,000 women workers in the trades and industries of Great Britain out of the total of 6,200,000 wage-earners,^(c) and against this numerical strength there can be no absolutely prohibitive opposition to the attempts to solve by organization the problems inevitable to the advent of female labor in the industrial world.

^a Sidney Webb, in the *Economic Journal*, Vol. I, pp. 635 et seq.

^b Mary R. Macarthur, in the *Labor Record*, June, 1905.

^c Ninth Annual Report of the General Federation of Trade Unions, 1908, p. 27.

OCCUPATIONS TEMPORARY.

The greatest difficulty in forming women's trade unions lies with the women workers themselves. While there is no sex inability to recognize the necessity for combination, the probability of marriage as a relief from work in the factory or workshop makes it difficult for the women to see any advantage in organizing, because they look upon their occupations as merely temporary.

The withdrawal from wage-earning on marriage has been found a sufficiently common occurrence to affect the stability of women as a labor class in Great Britain, but the force with which it militates against the facility of their organization is due to the fact that lack of permanence from the workers' point of view discourages the acquiring of technical instruction and lowers the standard of their work. The temporary nature of woman's employment prevents her becoming expert in the higher branches of a trade, and this want of technical training keeps her wages down, and it is in the low wages of women workers that the chief difficulty of effective organization lies. The trade-union leaders, therefore, have to cope with the apparently paradoxical situation of women being frequently poorly paid because they are not organized, and protective organization rendered impossible because they are too poorly paid to afford even the small dues attendant upon combination. An illustration of this appears in the following extract from the annual report of the Women's Trade Union League for 1906:

In June a number of bag makers employed by an East London firm went on strike for an increase in the price offered for certain bank cash bags of exceptionally thick paper. A meeting of the girls was held, an interview with the management obtained, and finally the demand of the girls for an increase of 2d. [4 cents] per 1,000 was conceded. An attempt was made to organize the girls, but owing to their low wages—averaging about 7s. 6d. [\$1.83] weekly—and the consequent difficulty of paying contributions, they were only able to keep together for a few months.

LOW WAGES AND LOW STANDARD OF LIVING.

That the low standard of living necessitated by low rates of pay to women workers is one of the great difficulties of organization among them was set forth by the secretary of the Women's Trade Union League in her testimony before the House of Commons Select Committee on Home Work in 1907:

Q. May I ask you if the general outcome of your experience is to support the evidence * * * that it is very difficult to organize workers of this class, and consequently very difficult to carry on for them or with them an effort to improve their wages and conditions?

A. Yes; and I wish to make clear on that point that the low rates of wages are not confined to the home workers, and that the question

of organization is equally difficult with the similar class of labor in the factory—almost equally difficult when the wages are very low in the factory.

Q. And for the same reasons?

A. For the same reasons, yes.

Q. Which are?

A. Which are that it is difficult for the worker to afford to pay a contribution out of her slender wages; the wages vary so much, and it is difficult to get her to look far enough ahead to see what the benefits will be. * * * So that it is very difficult to form a permanent organization amongst lowly paid women workers, either in the factory or in the home.^(a)

But returning to the question of the extent to which the prospect of marriage has been found to militate against women's organizations, there is a note of optimism in the following opinion on this difficulty:

Any investigator of women's work knows full well that what most handicaps women is their general deficiency in industrial capacity and technical skill. * * * Doubtless it may be said that the men are to blame here; it is they who induce women to marry, and thus divert their attentions from professional life. But though we can not cut at the root of this by insisting, as I once heard it gravely suggested, on "three generations of unmarried women," we can do a great deal to encourage the growth of professional spirit and professional capacity among women workers, if we take care to develop our industrial organization along the proper lines.^(b)

While among labor leaders the anticipation of marriage as a solution to individual labor problems, and the consequent creation of the "casual amateur" class of operatives, is quoted as one of the chief deterrents to the spread of organization among women workers, throughout England married women are entering more and more into the industrial arena, and the fact that a girl is going to marry does not by any means necessarily mean that she is going to give up her occupation. In the centers of textile manufacture, in which the great majority of working women in Great Britain are employed, employment of married women is encouraged. There is a unanimous opinion among the organizers of women's trade unions that the difficulty of effecting concerted action through organization in any industry is greatly lessened where there is a proportion of married women among the employees. In Lancashire there are more women organized than in any other district, and while, according to officials of labor organizations, married women in the industries constitute approximately 20 per cent of the total number of women employed there, it should be borne in mind that in the total of female wage-earners in all England there are about 1,000,000 married women to 3,250,000 unmarried.

^a Report from the Select Committee on Home Work, 1907, Minutes of Evidence, p. 134.

^b Problems of Modern Industry, Sidney and Beatrice Webb, p. 96.

CLASS DISTINCTIONS.

Another great difficulty encountered in a high grade of woman workers is the class distinction adhered to in the different departments of employment. This has made for a long time the organization of such workers as stenographers and typists, clerks, shop assistants, nurses, civil servants, telephone and telegraph operators, and other professional and semiprofessional classes very difficult. For instance, in one public-service system in England, partly state owned and partly a private monopoly, the company has a large staff; but the women employed by the Government, although they are doing exactly the same work as the women employed by the company, regard themselves as superior in the social scale because they are civil employees, and they decline to be members of a society admitting the employees of the private concern.

The same thing is found in other branches of the civil service. Women who have passed a government examination and are employed in a department of the government service consider that a class barrier separates them from the girls who act as telephone clerks, perhaps in the same building.

Among shop assistants this feeling of caste distinction between the gradations of employment under the same roof has presented great difficulties to organization among the women engaged in the distributive trades. For example, the girls who are employed in the showroom of large department stores in London and who, by reason of their occupation as models and exhibitors, wear well fitted, modish dresses, consider that the girls downstairs, who are behind a counter selling handkerchiefs or ribbons, belong to a different social world.

It was not until 1891 that any permanent organization among the shopgirls of England was accomplished. In that year the National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants was formed. This union now has 22,000 members out of the 500,000 engaged in the distributive trades.^(*) The membership in London is 5,500, and only about one-third of the members are women.

There is now a small trade organization in London among the women engaged in dressmaking, but for a long time all attempts to unite these workers for an agreement as to hours of work and continuance of employment during the slack season were combated by the women themselves, who considered that membership in a union would sacrifice their status of gentility. They would accept 20 hours' continuous stretches of work in the rush season, and starvation in the time when the fashionable world was sated with gala garments, rather than have their occupation put in the category with the factory

^{*} These figures are given on the authority of the secretary of the National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks.

workers. But it should be remembered that in England this class feeling is not confined to women, but also has been found a difficulty in the organization of men employed in the highly skilled trades.

LIABILITY TO VICTIMIZATION AND APATHY.

Certain characteristics attributable to sex do, however, augment the difficulty of preserving a stable organization among industrial women. The secretary of the Women's Trade Union League, who has actively pursued the work of propagating women's trade unionism in Great Britain, gives the following as her opinion on this point:

The woman worker is more submissive than the man worker, more inclined to underestimate her own value, and more easily overdone by an unscrupulous employer. It has frequently been experienced that women who join a union, or maybe leading it, are victimized by an employer who would not do so in the case of a man. A valuable example of this may be seen in the case of the * * * trade of * * * . Here, while the masters' association, recognizing the men's union, voluntarily sat around an arbitration table to discuss grievances and agreed to minimum rates of payment and other important questions, they absolutely declined to admit representation from the women workers, also organized, despite the fact that the men themselves tried to get the employers to recognize that women should be included in the agreements. Therefore it may be said that women are more liable to victimization and consequently less likely to form stable organizations.

Another difficulty upon which almost every leader of women's trade unionism throughout the large industries of Great Britain remarks is the apathy of the woman worker toward any change in the condition of labor to which she has been accustomed. This is largely a matter of temperament. In England, except in the sweated industries, the competition of foreign labor is a negligible quantity, and to the mass of native women workers who have, as they say in Scotland, "been born with a hank of yarn in their hands," custom is regarded as law, and unless the infringement upon their wages or mealtime is flagrant they are slow to respond to a call for organization. When combination is effected the management and the paid secretaryship of the union are more often than not given to male unionists, and the female members never think of conducting initiative action. Even among women trade unions where age has lent dignity and stability to their organization this difference is apparent. In one of the towns in Lancashire, where women operatives in the cotton textile manufacture are perhaps as successfully organized as anywhere else in Great Britain, this condition was found.

In going to the office building, where the men executives of the unions from this district have their offices, the writer was impressed with the number of women workers passing in and out in groups. It was in the evening, and the gray shawls and "clogs," that had scurried through the streets to the factories in the morning, had given place to rather well fitting, sometimes mildly ornate clothes. To the secretary of one of the largest unions their appearance was commented upon as a demonstration of the success of the woman factory operative in effective organization.

"Yes," he replied, "they come here to report grievances and collect benefits—for these are precarious occupations and this union pays good benefits. But although the division of membership is the same as it is in the trade, or about nine women to one man, and the women have gained an increase of 50 per cent in wages since the union was started 20 years ago, they are too indifferent to the success of the union to come out to the meetings. And this year they put in such a poor appearance at the annual meeting that the woman who had represented them for 14 years at their trades council was defeated and a man sent in her place."

This woman was interviewed, and her testimony, based on an experience of over 20 years, as to this indifference of the woman worker to the possibility of power in the union to which she belongs, was even more forcible.

"They let the men run the unions," she said, "and then wonder why the legislation they, by the mere weight of their membership in the unions, help the men to secure, is always given an interpretation more favorable to the male operative. There are now in this town posted notices that women touching their machines during meal time are in violation of the factory acts, while the men are allowed to clean theirs and thus gain a half an hour or so in work time. Moreover, according to the standard log worked out between the organized operatives and the employers, men and women are supposed to receive the same pay for mule spinning work, yet there is no woman trade unionist in charge of these machines. They say it is because women would be obliged to turn in the neck of their waists and go stockingless on account of the humidity necessary in these rooms, but if more women asserted themselves at their trade-union meetings with the men the false modesty myth would disappear, I think."

The Bolton and District Power Loom Weavers' Association has 5,800 women members to 520 men, yet the officials of this union are all men. And this leads to a consideration of what has been and what is the attitude of the male trade-unionist toward the women's trade union movement.

ATTITUDE OF MALE TRADE UNIONISTS TO ORGANIZATION OF WOMEN.

Aside from the attitude of traditional superiority with which men would naturally regard any attempt of women to organize, there was economic argument back of their steady resistance to the combination of women workers either in trade societies of their own or as co-members in the men's unions. Women's labor was cheap labor, liable to undersell that of the men in many branches of trade, and the strengthening of this form of competition by any form of organization was looked upon askance. At the first annual meeting of the Society of Women Employed in Bookbinding there was read a letter of cordial greeting to the new society from its brother organization in the trade, but when a similar congratulatory resolution was moved at the London Trades' Council it met with considerable opposition. ^(a)

But the demand for women's labor increased. The introduction of machinery easy of operation in the manufacturing industries was favorable to the employment of women, and "to the factory system, and the consequent growth of the ready-made trade, must also be traced the great increase in the number of girls employed in the tailoring trade," ^(b) and the employment of female labor in the great industry of boot and shoe making greatly increased between 1881 and 1891. ^(c)

In all these trades the women were not brought in direct competition with men in the higher branches, but they were replacing them in different departments at a lower rate of pay, and male trade-unionists realized that a large mass of underpaid, unorganized labor is bound to affect detrimentally the average worker, and that it was clearly to their own interest to induce women to cooperate for a higher wage rather than to compete for lower.

But it is difficult to determine just what the opinion of the male trade-unionist of the present day is in regard to the advantages or necessity of unionism among industrial women. A high official in the General Federation of Trade Unions points to the fact that in the highest branches of cotton spinning in Lancashire, where more care has been devoted to women's organization than anywhere else, men's wages are lower than in Yorkshire, where trade unionism amounts to only a third of that found in the Lancashire district, and he asserts that outside the textile industries women's trade unionism is a negligible quantity. Among the trade union men in Birmingham this same pessimism exists. Here, however, the women workers are

^a Women in the Printing Trades, by J. Ramsay Macdonald, p. 36.

^b Statistics on Employment of Women and Girls, Board of Trade, 1894, p. 11.

^c *Idem*, p. 73.

scattered, a few in each industry, and organization is made impossible.

In Manchester the men trade union leaders are enthusiastic over the work accomplished by the women unions throughout Lancashire. With so many women in the industries here, they say, it is necessary to have their organized support for concurrent action in case of trade disputes, and they point to the great benefit that the maintenance of the log of equal earnings of men and women has wrought in presenting a stable economic condition.

For illustration, take a table of average earnings of highly skilled men and women cotton weavers in Lancashire:

AVERAGE PIECEWORK EARNINGS IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, OF COTTON-CLOTH FOUR-LOOM WEAVERS WORKING FULL TIME.

[From Report of an Inquiry by the Board of Trade into the Earnings and Hours of Labor of Workpeople of the United Kingdom. I. Textile Trades in 1906, pp. 63, 72.]

District.	Average earnings.		Per cent of women of total 4-loom weavers working full time. (a)
	Men.	Women.	
Lancashire and Cheshire:			
Ashton-under-Lyne	\$5.80	\$5.23	83.1
Oldham		5.17	100.0
Bolton	6.04	5.56	95.3
Leigh		4.87	100.0
Manchester		4.87	100.0
Stockport	5.66	5.39	88.9
Preston	6.04	5.62	76.0
Blackburn	6.13	6.02	63.6
Accrington	5.96	5.63	76.4
Burnley	6.31	6.14	59.6
Bacup	5.92	5.60	57.1
Rochdale	5.68	5.50	67.7
All Lancashire and Cheshire	6.10	5.72	63.6
Yorkshire	5.50	5.47	52.3
United Kingdom	6.06	5.70	68.0

* Computed from data shown in original report.

The men trade-unionists in the printing trades have offered serious opposition to the organization of the women. This was particularly expressed by the action taken in 1886 at a conference of the typographical societies of the United Kingdom and the Continent, held in London, which resolved:

That while strongly of the opinion that women are not physically capable of performing the duties of a compositor, this conference recommends their admission to membership of the various typographical unions upon the same conditions as journeymen, provided always the females are paid strictly in accordance with scale.

This resolution was subsequently adopted by the London Society of Compositors, with the result that it became practically impossible for any women to join the society. (a)

^a Women in the Printing Trades, by J. Ramsay Macdonald, p. 23.

The principal reason why women are employed in this highly skilled trade is their cheapness, and if they demanded the same wage as the men they would not be employed, because the labor of the male compositor is more efficient. One woman was able to avail herself of this resolution. She joined the Society of Compositors on August 30, 1892, but she has ceased to be a member. The reason for this determined opposition of the male compositor to admitting women to their unions is that their presence in the trade must always be a menace to maintaining the standard wage. Women compositors are regarded as so inferior to men that only among employers in a small way, doing business on limited capital, where low wages are a great enough advantage to counterpoise the lack of technical skill, can they find employment. In better equipped houses women do only part of the work, the heavier or more technical part being done by men. The men who have served long apprenticeships naturally resent the infusion of women's inferior workmanship, and above all combat trade combination with her generally lower rate of wage. To show how effectively this exclusion has been carried out, it may be stated that in 1901 in the seven unions of men covering the printing trades there were 41,907 members, while the total membership of women's unions was well under 1,000.^(a)

In other occupations than printing, owing to the development of machinery there is a margin of labor where women are called in to take over processes formerly done by men, and in the readjustment, before the men are absorbed in other and higher branches of the same trade or in different industries, there has been friction over the attempted organization of the women. The exclusion of the women from the compositors' union constitutes the only statistical evidence available of what is called "trades-union jealousy." And this, as has been explained, was not discrimination against female members because they were women, but because they presented less skilled labor, underselling the technical skill of the man worker in an immobile trade, where men could hope neither to move out of line to avoid competition nor to raise the women worker's pay. In Edinburgh in 1849 a union of women compositors was formed, but it failed at the end of a year for the same reason that had convinced the men that it did not pay to organize them—that their wages were fixed by their inefficiency, and that any attempt to better them would only displace men workers.

But abrupt and absolute failure has been encountered rarely by the organizers of women workers in England. At the beginning of the women's trade union movement there were many instances of

^a Women in the Printing Trades, by J. Ramsay Macdonald, p. 41.

organizations which were formed and which expired after a feeble life of weeks or months, because trade unionism for women was represented as the solution of all labor troubles. Even now the organizers of the Women's Trade Union League enroll every year thousands of members of women's trade unions, knowing perfectly well that if half the number enlisted is retained it will be perhaps a higher average than usual. An instance of this lapsing in membership on a large scale is seen in the recent organization of the women employed in the boot and shoe trade at Leicester. When this work was started by an organizer in 1904 for some reason the women flocked into the union. The local branch in Leicester sprang up in a few months from a membership of about 400 to as many thousands, but a year later it was found that all these enthusiastic recruits had allowed their membership to lapse. Renewed efforts saved the union from disorganization, and it has now a membership of about 1,000.

The phenomenal desertion in this instance has been attributed to the fact that the officials of the union were men who had also to attend to their men members; that a great deal of work had to be done in enforcing a new minimum rate wage for men; and that in attending to this the women were perhaps neglected. A sufficient number of meetings was not held, sufficient attention was not paid to the collection of contributions, and the result was that a large proportion of members were dropped. A woman official has been appointed secretary of the branch in Leicester, and it is slowly and steadily regaining much of the ground lost. The men are now paying more attention to the women members and are endeavoring to get the manufacturers to recognize the women members of the union in the agreements between the unions and the manufacturers' association.

There are other groups of women in the industries, among whom the spirit of trade unionism seemed to have evaporated, but who appear later in the guise of affiliated strength. For instance, after the several small unions in the miscellaneous clothing trades in and about Oxford had struggled along and suffered the eventual termination of the weak union, through financial handicap and other vicissitudes, there was formed in 1881 the Protective and Provident Society of Women for this district. This revived the various nuclei and combined them under one executive organization. This society, which still survives, never reached even fair proportions, because the trade groups are so limited in membership in this locality; but the same principle of organization was exemplified in the National Federation of Women Workers, established in the latter part of 1906, with headquarters in London and with a woman secretary, which has already secured a membership of over 3,000, with 20 branches. Under

the National Federation of Women Workers appear several isolated unions that had failed, as well as new unions from hitherto unorganized trades, and for the small assessments of from 1d. to 3½d. (2 to 7 cents) weekly besides the 6d. (12 cents) entrance fee, are guaranteed the benefit of a legal department, sick pay, and support in times of trade dispute. Though this federation was organized solely to foster small unions of women, one local branch includes 100 men, which affords the unique spectacle, among all the trade unions in Great Britain, of men organized under a woman unionist executive.

Another type of rehabilitation among apparently extinct unions is found in the women's unions which, wavering upon the verge of dissolution, accepted the form of an auxiliary to a man's society established in the same trade. For example, the Printing and Kindred Trades Federation, organized in 1894, was primarily a militant union composed of women. The attempt at organization arose out of two disputes. In one, the women employed by a certain firm had successfully struck for an increase of wages and against certain conditions of labor; in the second, women had gone out to show their sympathy with the men locked out. In recognition of the women's "courage and loyalty" the men promoted the union. In a month or two its membership stood at 100, and by March, 1896, 350 members had joined. However, the membership began to decline as soon as the stress of militant procedure was relaxed, and in 1902 it had shrunk to 150, and as the reserve fund was under £100 (\$486.65) the society approached the Printers and Stationers' Warehousemen, praying to be recognized as a branch of that union. A ballot of the men was taken, 700 voting in favor of granting the request and 334 against it. The women's society has therefore ceased to exist as a separate organization.

The Liverpool Upholsteresses' Union, which appeared in the early record of the Women's Trade Union League as dissolved on account of "lack of interest, fear of dismissal, possibly the outcome of ignorance," is in a flourishing condition. It reasserted itself in 1891 with 26 members, and has since then come to comprise nearly all the upholsteresses employed in Liverpool.

A case of what might be termed partial wreckage occurred in the Women's Trade Union Council of Manchester and Salford district in 1904, when 6 out of the 14 branch unions which composed the council withdrew to form a new society, thus leaving a divided front in the organization of women in this locality.

Manchester is not now so much a center of large industries as a business center for the industries in the outlying districts—the cotton exchange for Lancashire being there—and the local trade union leaders represent an advanced type of ambitious methods in organiza-

tion. "Direct labor representation for women should be the object of women's trade unionism," they claim. Therefore, while the "Women's Trade Union Council," founded in 1894, accomplished the work of organizing the small trades, and in several instances, notably among the female leather workers,^a materially bettered the condition of women engaged in those trades, a gradual cleavage took place among the leaders on the subject of gaining political power for women, which resulted in the resignation of certain trade union officials and in the formation of the Women's Trades and Labor Council with a different form of constitution, as follows:

In view of the present difficult position of trade unions in the country and also of the low wages and want of industrial status of women in the labor market, the local women's trade union leaders have come to the conclusion that political power is absolutely necessary for the protection of the women workers.

This Women's Trades and Labor Council has, after four years, 10 branches each with more than 300 members, and 1, the Weavers' Association of Beswick, with 1,000 enrolled. And it is doing the same sort of benefit and protective work as the original Women's Trade Union Council, which continues its offices in the next street, with the agitation on political questions quite subservient.

Still the national organizers of the Women's Trade Union League regret this division, since the poverty in great centers demands concentration of effort on the part of those who would unite and organize the women workers there in their struggles for a living wage. It was compared by one woman trade union leader to the women's rights agitation in the sixties, when, with much clash of asserted independence, a show was made of forcing open men's trades to women, while in reality this so-called women's movement was altogether secondary in the accomplishment of women's entrance into the printing and other trades, since the subdivision of labor and the application of mechanical power had created simple processes which made the employment of women natural and desirable.

In the investigation of the causes for the dissolution of several small unions for women in London, principally among the clothing trades and cardboard box makers, the following typical cases were found

^a In one instance an employer, taking advantage of the prejudice of the men workers against female labor, made a reduction of one-half in the pay of the girls. The girls went out on strike supported by the Women's Trade Council, and, finally, after futile attempts to find skilled labor among nonunion women with which to replace his original force, the employer was obliged, in order to meet a rush order, to take back the women unionists at the old rate. This was in 1905, and there has been no reduction since, but, on the contrary, an increase of rates in one line of piecework.

which cover, with variations of detail, about all the failures that were discovered:

In one case the rents demanded in the district surrounding the workshops were so high, 9s. (\$2.19) a week being asked for one room when 4s or 5s. (\$0.97 or \$1.22) a week is the usual rent for the four-room brick houses flanking block after block in the factory towns in Lancashire, that the women were obliged to live a long distance from work, and they were too tired to return in the evening for meetings. Interest flagged, and when the employer, who was opposed to organization because of demands it might enforce as provisions against 6 months' slack time, instituted deductions from the nominal wage and reduced the supply of work of certain leaders in the union, it dissolved without an effort for redress.

Another case was a union among cardboard box makers which was not able to withstand the drain on its slender resources necessitated by strike pay in a dispute with the employers over fines and deductions. This tendency of women's trade unions to undertake a strike in the first flush of enthusiasm, before they are in a position to carry it to a successful conclusion, is given by one writer as a generalization in stating causes of failure of the women's organization throughout England. And yet while few women's unions have been able to survive the expense of an unsuccessful strike early in the life of the organization, a trade dispute has been more often than not the basis of formation of the strongest unions. The most successful organizations recently formed among women have been the result of some sudden encroachment on the rights of the workers.

The failure of a union started among female cigarette makers was attributed to the fact that the majority of its members were young girls whose pay was only contributive toward their living expenses and who looked upon their occupation as more or less temporary. It was given as the opinion of the labor leader interested in this instance that unionism among cigarette makers failed because the work is not conducive to steady, thoughtful habits of women. On the contrary, in another division of the tobacco trade (the female cigar makers) a permanent organization was accomplished in 1889, and the London branch, with a membership of over 1,000, is considered one of the most successful organizations of women.

A general cause for the failure of women's unions throughout the provinces as well as in London is that where the organization is started and managed by men, the women have not been encouraged to take leading parts in the administration of their organizations. They are not as a rule sent as delegates to the trade union congress, and it is the rare exception (though they are eligible) for them to become secretaries of branches, so that they lose interest, fail to make pay-

ments of dues, and finally relax all effort and wait for the conditions of their work and pay to be benefited by their inclusion in any general advance gained by the male unionists.

The case of the textile organizations in Lancashire is an exception to this general rule, for there—although the women are not usually officials nor do they display any great degree of enthusiasm—the fact that the majority of members in these unions are women has acted as a spur on the men officials in seeing that the women workers are looked after and not allowed to relinquish membership through any want of attention. But back of this apparent apathy on the part of the women unionists lies the fact that in Great Britain the women have been temperamentally slow to make trade-unionist members.

One of the most capable and experienced men unionists in the Kingdom said: "England has, of course, a differential advantage over America (^a) and her colonies in the presence of a mass of cheap female labor, but to the labor organizer looking to the protection of workers in the industries which require skill and cultivate independence this character of factory worker presents great difficulties."

GROWTH OF ORGANIZATION AMONG WOMEN WORKERS.

To show the extent of lost endeavor in the women's trade union movement, a statement of the numerical progress of organization among industrial women as compared with that of men throughout the country is necessary.

In 1896, which is the first year for which comparative figures of female trade union membership are available, 149 unions included women and girls as members out of a total of 1,302 trade unions; while the female membership was at that time 117,030, or 7.8 per cent of the membership of all unions. During the years 1896 to 1904 the male membership of all trade unions rose from 1,386,709 to 1,768,767, or a gain of 27.6 per cent, while the female membership during this period accomplished a gain from 117,030 to 126,285, or 7.9 per cent. While the membership of women in the unions is insignificant in comparison with the large enrollment of male trade-unionists, the percentage of gains among male and among female trade-union members since 1904 has been to a large extent reversed. In 1907 the number of organized women had increased to 201,709, a gain from 1904 to 1907 of 75,424, or 59.7 per cent, while the gain in male mem-

^a In 1900, 20.6 per cent of women 15 years of age and over in the United States were engaged in gainful occupations, and in 1901 the corresponding percentage for England and Wales was 34.5 and for Scotland 36.1.

bership of trade unions, although amounting to 436,270 new members, represented a relative increase of only 24.7 per cent.^(e)

This condition as to membership of women in trade unions was stated thus forcibly in round numbers in 1905:

When it is considered that hereditary training and environment have left women far behind men in development, the fact that there are now about 160,000 women organized out of a possible 5,000,000, while there are 2,000,000 men trade-unionists out of a possible 11,000,000, it is not so discouraging as it appears on the surface. Indeed, when these figures were quoted to me by a well-known trade-union leader, whose views on women's organization are notoriously pessimistic, I was struck less by the percentage of women unorganized than by the fact that a great deal still remains to be done in the trade-union organization of men.^(b)

And when it is considered that in 1885 there were only 19 unions admitting women and girls to membership ^(c) and that all the women trade-unionists in Great Britain numbered only a few thousand,^(d) and that as late as 1894 there were signs posted in a mill in the Midlands, where the majority of operatives were women, threatening "instant dismissal to anyone found to belong to a trade union or any kindred organization," the expansion of the movement to 182 unions in 1907, with a female membership of 201,709, seems significant, if not phenomenal.

In 1903 the Women's Trade Union League had an affiliated membership of 40,000 women members. At present its membership approaches 140,000 and includes a large proportion of organized women in the country. Of course these figures do not mean that there are 100,000 more women trade-unionists now than there were in 1903; it means that unionists outside the Women's Trade Union League before have come into line of national organization during the intervening years, and this is considered significant of a desire for a firmer combination of women trade-union power than is afforded by membership in the local branches alone.

^a Figures for 1896 from Report of the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1902-1904, pp. lxi, lxvi; figures for 1904 and 1907 from report of the same department on trade unions in 1905-1907, pp. lxiii, lxix.

^b Miss Mary R. Macarthur in *The Labor Record*, June, 1905.

^c Ten of these unions were in London, which presents a marked contrast to the present preponderance of women's trade unions in the provinces.

^d Annual reports of Women's Trade Union League for 1885 and 1894.

The following table gives the distribution by trades of the women trade-unionists, together with the total membership of all unions:

NUMBER AND FEMALE MEMBERSHIP OF TRADE UNIONS WITH FEMALE MEMBERS AND NUMBER AND TOTAL MEMBERSHIP OF ALL UNIONS, BY TRADES, 1904 AND 1907.

[From Report by the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1905-1907, pp. xx, lxi, 2-79.]

1904.

Trades with which unions are connected.	Unions with female members. ^(a)			All unions.	
	Number of unions.	Female members.		Number.	Total membership.
		Number. ^(a)	Per cent of total.		
Textile trades:					
Cotton preparing and spinning.....	17	22,343	17.7	18	68,520
Cotton weaving.....	57	75,727	60.0	123	123,516
Woolen and worsted manufacture.....	6	1,034	.8	26	7,777
Linen and jute manufacture.....	7	9,704	7.7	16	14,814
Hosiery.....	3	1,464	1.2	11	4,950
Other textile trades.....	7	817	.6	62	26,896
Total textile trades.....	97	111,089	88.0	256	246,473
Boot and shoe manufacture.....	2	1,037	.8	12	30,809
Tailoring.....	5	370	.3	12	19,997
Hat and cap manufacture.....	3	2,290	1.8	6	6,655
Other clothing trades.....	4	506	.4	8	1,137
Printing, paper, and allied trades.....	5	895	.7	41	62,428
Food and tobacco trades.....	4	2,366	1.9	29	17,873
Shop assistants.....	4	3,747	3.0	5	30,402
Other trades.....	19	3,056	2.4	760	1,414,820
Employees of public authorities.....	5	929	.7	59	64,458
Grand total.....	148	126,285	100.0	1,188	1,895,052

1907.

Textile trades:					
Cotton preparing and spinning.....	19	38,834	19.3	20	97,480
Cotton weaving.....	66	109,834	54.4	128	173,644
Woolen and worsted manufacture.....	5	2,425	1.2	24	12,234
Linen and jute manufacture.....	10	14,467	7.2	20	22,884
Hosiery.....	5	1,826	.9	12	4,965
Other textile trades.....	8	4,734	2.3	59	43,220
Total textile trades.....	113	172,120	85.3	263	354,427
Boot and shoe manufacture.....	2	997	.5	13	35,393
Tailoring.....	8	1,326	.7	11	22,701
Hat and cap manufacture.....	3	3,302	1.6	6	8,994
Other clothing trades.....	4	420	.2	10	1,722
Printing, paper, and allied trades.....	5	1,749	.9	39	68,221
Food and tobacco trades.....	6	2,447	1.2	33	18,447
Shop assistants.....	4	5,076	2.5	6	46,117
Other trades.....	30	9,582	4.8	714	1,761,331
Employees of public authorities.....	7	4,690	2.3	78	89,393
Grand total.....	182	201,709	100.0	1,173	2,406,746

^a In unions which admit both male and female members the exact numbers of each sex are often not known, but the numbers stated in the table are approximately correct.

A comparison of the figures for 1907 with those for 1904 reveals the greatest growth in the number of female members to have been in the textile trades, a gain of 61,031 being recorded. But it should be

remembered in this connection that there are 654,782 women in the textile industries, or 39.8 per cent of the total of female workers in all industries in the United Kingdom.^(*) And on the other hand it may be noted that women trade-unionists in all the branches of the clothing trade increased by less than 2,000 between 1904 and 1907, and that the total female membership in these unions in 1907 was only 6,045, or only slightly over 1 per cent of the total number of female workers (478,509) engaged in the various grades of clothing manufacture in 1904, which is the latest year for which total figures are available^(*)—and this includes only those working in factories or workshops, not the outworkers who are supposed to clog organization in the clothing trades. Therefore it will be seen that the women's trade-union movement has not as yet made more than a slight appreciable headway in this branch of industry, where, according to the census of 1901, a little over 60 per cent of the employed are women.

As regards individual trades, the only group worthy of note as having shown a substantial rise in membership is that of the shop assistants' unions, whose female membership rose without a break from 327 in 1896 to 1,609 in 1901, and to 3,747 in 1904, while in 1907 it reached 5,076. The difference in totals of membership is further accounted for by a slight general increase all along the line, also by the fact of the formation of the National Federation of Women Workers and by the increase of female membership in unions of employees of public authorities from 929 in 1904 to 4,690 in 1907.

At every factory where inquiry about the disposal of the nonunion element among organized operatives was made the same answer was received: No very radical measures are taken to eliminate or convert the nonunionist, and yet the cases of disturbance or of nonunion labor in case of strikes are exceedingly rare. If organization be started in a trade, generally the majority of the workers are swept along on the wave of enthusiasm, and the others are won over gradually. In the event of a nonunion worker entering the factory after the formation of a trade union, pressure of organization both in the factory and after hours at home is brought to bear for conversion, with few instances of failure.

In one mill the refusal of the men workers to help adjust the machinery of nonunion women as they were accustomed to do for the trade-unionist sisters led several operatives to join the union, for on piecework loss of time is coincident with loss of the shilling, and the good will and the helping hand of the fellow-worker is worth more than the trade union levy. In some places there is a nonunion mill

^{*} Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops, 1907, p. 190.

in the midst of an otherwise organized trade community. The scale of pay at this nonunion mill in one place was the same as at the other mills where the women were members of mixed trade unions. "But," said a staunch trade-unionist, "although they get the benefit of our uniform list of prices for piecework, because no employer cares to advertise that he cuts under what is accepted by the manufacturer's association for this district, those workers get fines and deductions enough practiced on them to cover the tax any union could make."

How long this pacific attitude toward the nonunionist will continue is hard to tell.

A significant statement was made by the secretary of an important association which has over 100,000 members, a large proportion of whom are females. According to this official, appeals to nonunionists to join the association had met with indifferent success, and the failure of negotiations for an advance of wages was, in his opinion, traceable to the knowledge possessed by the employers that a fair proportion of their employees were outside the association. He claimed that the nonunionists had shared in the benefits obtained through the union without incurring any responsibility, and in times of difficulty had deserted the union and had even gone so far as to band themselves together to defeat the aims of their coworkers, and that it was impossible to fight with much chance of success if every three organized workers were compelled to find funds for two unorganized workers who were without funds. The conclusion had been reached, therefore, that if the nonunionists would not voluntarily share in the cost and work involved in trying to improve their condition of labor and their wages the association would have to take steps to compel them to do so.

RESULTS OF ORGANIZATION OF WOMEN WORKERS.

AID SECURED THROUGH LEGAL PROCEEDINGS.

While the weakness of numbers in women's organizations is conceded by the most optimistic of women trade-unionists, the record of the organizations along lines of benefit to the workers, not merely included in sick benefit and strike pay, is excellent. The secretary of the National Federation of Women Workers stated that after they had succeeded in organizing the operatives in a branch of the tin box manufacture, the girls would come to the meetings with hands mutilated or with evidence of minor flesh cuts, and not one of them had any idea of their claim upon the employer for compensation. Their inclusion under the British Workmen's Compensation Act had to be explained to them, and while it was beyond the time limit for

instituting proceedings in most of the cases of injuries,^(a) the legal department of the Women's Trade Union League took up several of the cases and, in two instances, obtained compensation for the loss of fingers, the firm preferring to settle rather than suffer the notoriety incident to lawsuits based on the disregard of the Workmen's Compensation Act in such a precarious trade as theirs.

Among the workers in certain ammunition factories, too, there was found to exist at the time of the organization of the women workers absolute ignorance of the interpretation of the compensation act, and representatives of the Women's Trade Union League have since successfully conducted legal proceedings for them when necessary.

The National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks has a legal department of its own, and its effective operation demonstrates some benefits that union affiliations can bring to the woman worker.

Following is a summary of the cases dealt with by the legal department of this union as shown by the report of the union covering the year 1907:

CASES DEALT WITH BY THE LEGAL DEPARTMENT OF THE NATIONAL AMALGAMATED UNION OF SHOP ASSISTANTS, WAREHOUSEMEN, AND CLERKS, 1907.

Subject.	Number of cases.	Method of handling and result.	Number of cases.
Agreements.....	74	Given to solicitors:	
Breach of contract.....	5	Won in court.....	1
Compensation.....	29	Taken to court and lost.....	3
Defamation of character.....	4	Paid into court.....	10
Deductions and fines.....	4	Withdrawn after investigation.....	9
Miscellaneous.....	60	Solicitor's advice given.....	4
Notice.....	36	Not settled.....	4
References.....	19		
Shortage and guaranty bond.....	15	Total given to solicitors.....	31
Wages during illness.....	16		
Wages (or commission) withheld or reduced.....	43	Dealt with at central office:	
Wages in lieu of notice.....	53	Withdrawn by members.....	10
		Withdrawn after investigation.....	33
		Satisfactorily settled.....	40
		Advice given.....	240
		Not settled.....	4
Total.....	358	Total dealt with at central office..	327
		Grand total.....	358

RECENT LEGISLATION.

In 1902, by parliamentary pressure and popular agitation, the Shop Assistants' Union secured the passage of the Shop Seats Act.

^a Proceedings for the recovery under this act of compensation for an injury shall not be maintainable unless notice of the accident has been given as soon as practicable after the happening thereof and before the workman has voluntarily left the employment in which he was injured, and unless the claim for compensation with respect to such accident has been made within six months from the occurrence of the accident causing the injury, or, in case of death, within six months from the time of death.—British Workmen's Compensation Act, 1906, section 2.

It is estimated that by the provision of relief from constant standing on the part of sales clerks thus obtained the forms of ailment which are greatly aggravated by such work as shop assistants have to do have been lessened one-third.

In 1904 the union drew up and presented through its parliamentary representative the shop hours bill, which provided for a 72-hour maximum of weekly labor for all shop assistants. This bill also contained provisions regarding the Sunday closing of shops, the prohibition of employing children under 14 years of age, sanitary conditions, ventilation, and sanitary conveniences, and was in short designed to give to persons in shops some of the protection which existing laws had thrown about persons employed in factories and workshops.

The act, which is known as the Shop Assistants' Charter, became a law, but the hours clause has been found defective in operation, since the nature of the distributive trade is such that there is no economic advantage to the employer in opening the shop earlier than 8 a. m. or 8.30 a. m., and therefore the closing hour was pushed further and further along until without really violating the weekly limit of hours of labor the employer was keeping his shop assistants at work late into the night. The union leaders again appealed to Parliament for more stringent regulation of the closing hours for shops, and on May 1, 1907, the labor member representing them submitted the following notice in the House of Commons: "That in the opinion of this House, more drastic legislation with regard to the closing of shops and the hours of shop assistants is required;" and the home secretary, in his reply to this motion, stated that "a case had been made out for an amending bill." This bill is drawn on the same general lines as the Shop Hours Act of 1904, except for two corrective principles:

1. The first of these principles is the demand for a 60-hour maximum. The reasonableness of this demand is evident in a glance of comparison with the regulation of the working week under the factory acts. The period of employment for young persons and women in nontextile factories and workshops is limited by the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, to the hours between 6 a. m. and 6 p. m., or 7 a. m. and 7 p. m., or 8 a. m. and 8 p. m. In textile factories 2 hours must be allowed for meals (one of them before 3 p. m.), and work must not be carried on for more than $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours without an interval of one-half hour for meals. In nontextile factories and workshops $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours must be allowed for meals (one of them before 3 p. m.), and work must not be carried on for more than 5 hours without an interval of one-half hour for meals. In textile factories, when the period of employment begins on Saturday at 6 a. m., that period

must cease at 12 m. as regards employment in any manufacturing process if not less than 1 hour is allowed for meals and at 12.30 p. m. as regards employment for any purpose whatever. If less than 1 hour is allowed, manufacturing processes must cease at 11.30 a. m. and employment for any purpose at 12 m. When work begins at 7 a. m. manufacturing processes must cease at 12.30 p. m. and employment for any purpose whatever at 1 p. m. In nontextile factories and workshops the hours of employment on Saturday may be between 6 a. m. and 2 p. m., or 7 a. m. and 3 p. m., or 8 a. m. and 4 p. m. In every case an interval of not less than one-half hour must be allowed for meals. The maximum is 55½ hours per week for textile and 60 hours for nontextile factories.

2. The second corrective principle is the determination of the latest closing hours for each day, although the local authority is left free to distribute the particular closing hours over the different days of the week.

This bill was given a second reading in May, 1908, and the home secretary pledged the Government to introduce legislation in 1909.

Public sentiment, awakened through the efforts of the Shop Assistants' Union, has already taken up the battle and helped the union to specific success on behalf of the female shop assistant.

It is interesting to note that in the cases of two adjacent drapery houses in London, one closing from 6 to 6.30 p. m. and the other keeping open until 8 p. m. and after, when the assistants in the late-closing shops were out on strike, the employers conceded a uniform early closing for all the days in the week and explained that they were forced to the concession by the attitude of their customers, "who affected by the undue excitement over shop legislation," would go elsewhere and buy rather than accept service maintained for "their convenience during the evening hours."

CRUSADE AGAINST LIVING-IN AND TRUCK SYSTEMS.

The crusade conducted by the National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks against the living-in system is so important to the cause of the female worker that a brief explanation of the Truck Act, which deals with this feature of shop life, may be permissible.

Prior to 1831 payment in "truck"—i. e., goods—instead of in money was commonly practiced by employers of labor in Great Britain, and the "tonny shop" or wage-trading exchange was an adjunct of the factory or mill. The abuses to which this system of payment was open are obvious. The employer might pay in inferior goods or in goods overcharged or supply goods in excess of wages

due and so run the worker into debt. The worker handed over the control of his purchasing power and had no check on his earnings. The worker discovered these abuses by bitter experiences, and after a period of agitation the act was passed in 1831. This made the payment of "truck" illegal and insured that the worker should not be compelled to spend his earnings in any particular shop. It also regulated fines and deductions.

The act of 1887 made more explicit the application of the law in regard to deductions an employer might make from the wages of a workman, and adopted the definition as given in the Employers' and Workmen Act, 1875, as follows: "The expression 'workman' does not include a domestic or menial servant, but, save as aforesaid, means any person who, being a laborer, servant in husbandry, journeyman, artificer, handicraftsman, miner, or otherwise engaged in manual labor, whether under the age of 21 years or above that age, has entered into or works under a contract with an employer, whether the contract be * * * express or implied, oral, or in writing."

It will be seen that the occupation of shop assistants can not be construed so as to come under these categories, and, as a consequence, the employers of shop labor were able to continue their form of "truck" payment, the so-called "living-in" system, whereby the clerks of an establishment are housed under one roof and a deduction for "rent, victuals, fuel, etc.," made in a lump sum from their wages without, as the Truck Amendment Act stipulates, the agreement for such deductions being in writing and signed by the workman. On the subject of "living-in" an official of the Shop Assistants' Union has written:

Apart from its demoralizing effect on wages, the living-in system has many disadvantages which well-meaning people, who believe it provides a home where the young people are guarded from evil, fail to take into account. Assistants living-in are frequently many miles from home, and dismissal means also immediate loss of shelter; they have very little cash in hand when settling-up day comes, certainly not enough to keep them in lodgings for any length of time; and yet to go home, if they have sufficient money to take them there, is to go probably to some country district where they will have great difficulty in getting situations.

The thought of dismissal brings with it a terror which the poorest worker, who owns a shelter independently of her employer, knows not at all. The sleeping rooms, from the hygienic standpoint, are sadly deficient. The air space varies from 500 to 700 cubic feet per person, but the fireplaces are invariably blocked, the windows at night are either closed entirely or open only an inch or so, and there is no other kind of ventilation.

The atmosphere of such rooms by morning can be better imagined than described.

The washing accommodations are very limited, and there is no privacy in the bedrooms. Except in the best houses no bathroom is provided, and the assistants, too frequently, are content with a weekly washdown in a small hand basin, the daily ablution being confined to face, neck, and hands.^(a)

The primary cause of consumption among female shop assistants is attributed to "industrial dust," with which the atmosphere of the shops becomes thick toward evening from the continual tramp of feet, the trailing skirts, and the fine particles detached from the goods that are being continually tossed about, but the spread of the disease is largely traced to the living-in system.

As regards the food included in truck payment under the living-in system, much depends in quantity and quality upon the ability and good will of the steward or the housekeeper employed by the firm.

The following is a menu for the week in an average business house in London where the amount allowed for the cost of boarding and lodging the employees is 6s. (\$1.46) per head, per week:

BREAKFAST.

Bread and butter or dripping, tea or coffee.

DINNER.

Monday.—Hot roast mutton, potatoes, bread, ale.

Tuesday.—Cold roast beef, potatoes, currant pudding, bread, ale.

Wednesday.—Stew, bread, ale.

Thursday.—Cold salt beef, potatoes, bread, ale.

Friday.—Hot roast beef, potatoes, boiled pudding, bread, ale.

Saturday.—Cold roast beef, potatoes, bread and butter pudding, bread, ale.

TEA.

Bread and butter, tea.

SUPPER.

Bread, cheese, butter, and (twice each week) fried or baked pudding, ale.

Yet in one house where practically this menu was in operation the only protest was that it was monotonous. But the assistants ate their meals heartily and spent only from 6d. to 1s. 6d. (12 to 37 cents) per week in extras for breakfast and supper. In other houses it was claimed that the food was neither good nor well cooked; assistants frequently left the dinner untouched and it was necessary for them to spend from 3s. to 5s. (73 cents to \$1.22) per week to satisfy hunger. However, in either case there was no alternative to accepting the diet as part payment of their nominal wages except unemployment.

In 1895 the union leaders made a strong case against deductions from wages and a plea for the inclusion of shop assistants under the

^a Miss Margaret C. Bonfield, in a paper on "The effect on health of women employment in shops," read before the Royal Sanitary Institute Congress at Glasgow, 1904.

protection of the Truck Act, and they secured the entering wedge to legislation in the specific amendment that provided for shop assistants under the fines clause, which under the general heading of permissible deductions provides for fines, (a) if the agreement for deductions or payment of either be contained in a notice posted up where the workman can easily see it, read it, or copy it, or else be in writing signed by the workman; (b) if such agreement gives a list of the fines that may be imposed, together with a table showing the amount of each fine; (c) if the fine be on account of some act or omission which causes, or is likely to cause, damage to the employer; (d) if the amount of the fine be fair and reasonable, looking at all circumstances of the case; (e) if particulars in writing be given to the workman, whenever he is fined, showing the reason for the fine, and the amount of the fine.

The Shop Assistants' Union is now engaged in a definite campaign against living-in, and in this connection the National Amalgamated Union asks the Government (1) to extend to shop workers the provisions of the Truck Act, by which their wages shall be paid in full in current coin of the realm, and not partly in kind—i. e., in board and lodging; (2) to provide that when the employer desires to contract out in respect of board and lodging (under section 23 of the act of 1831), it shall be not as a condition of employment, but only under a contract in writing, by which the assistant can be assured that the sum deducted from wages for board and lodging shall not exceed the real and true value of the room and board provided, and that the amount so deducted shall be mutually agreed upon by employer and employee.

A conference on this subject was convened in July, 1907, at Toynbee Hall. There were present representatives of the Drapers' Chamber of Trade and of the National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, and the following terse statement was presented and debated:

The union is pledged to the total abolition of the living-in system on the following grounds:

1. It is detrimental to health.
2. It prevents the growth of individuality and self-reliance.
3. The institutional and celibate conditions necessarily imposed conduce to a loose standard of morality.
4. The system is economically unsound.
5. The system excludes the shop workers from the social and civic life of the community; they are voteless.
6. Modern commercialism has outgrown the system; it is unnecessary to the proper conduct of business.

We recognize that a great change of this nature can not take place very rapidly, and that reasonable time must be allowed for the transition from living-in to living-out.

The conference is aware that at the present time the truck inquiry committee are preparing recommendations on the subject. The union

has asked that the Truck Acts should be extended to the shopworkers—i. e., that their wages should be paid in full in the current coin of the realm, and that board and lodgings, if provided by the employer, should not be a condition of employment.

The cumulative effect of this persistent agitation on the part of the unions in the distributive trades is shown in several districts where the unrest has crystallized into a definite demand to “live-out,” in which public opinion has been with the shop assistants.

In 1907, at Longton, New Castle (Staffordshire), Oxford, Bridgent, and Pontypool, the union officials negotiated settlements to “live-out” on satisfactory terms, and several of the largest drapery houses in London have recently abandoned the living-in system.

PROTECTION AGAINST FINES AND IMPOSITION.

Even with legislation secured, the union sometimes has an important part to play in its execution. For instance, the “fines clause” would have been practically inoperative, since there was no provision made for inspection of shops, if the shop assistants, through their union, had not taken action time and again to resist illegal fines or to secure the total abolition of fines. There is constant application to the union by members who want the organization to back their claims for the remission of unjust fines.

In one house a system of cash payments prevailed, and assistants were held responsible, by heavy fines, if customers left without paying. The union officials interviewed the firm and a new system was adopted. The employees in two London houses wished to secure the abolition of fees for house doctor, boot cleaning, and library, which were extra deductions, besides the usual living-in rate. After deputations from the union had waited on the firm the employees, 75 per cent of whom were members of the union, were relieved of the added tax on their wages.

The individual shop clerk, too, who has been fined for untidy stock when an unusual rush of customers was responsible, comes for redress. Indeed, this minute guardianship over its members finds illustration in the women's trade unions in all industries, even in the textile industry, where the workers have their rights so carefully defined by legislative enactment. There are at present only 200 factory inspectors in Great Britain appointed by the State, so that at best each factory can be visited not more than once a year, and at a trades council meeting in 1894 one woman admitted that she had not seen a factory inspector during her ten years' work. Ten of these inspectors have been women, and on the recommendation of the home

secretary to increase the force one writer makes the following statement:

The department was created mainly in the interest of women workers. A principal, assisted by three seniors, organized it. Ten female inspectors had been appointed at wages ranging from £200 to £300 (\$973.30 to \$1,459.95) a year, and valuable services have been rendered, especially in laundries. But there are one and a half million women workers in factories and mills.

What were ten among so many?

These women can not give their whole time to watching factories; much is absorbed in replying to inquiries, drafting reports, and traveling. Being few, they have to cover wide areas and spend no small portion of their working days in railway trains. In 1905 two inspectors traveled nearly 16,000 miles each. Labor laws have been broken and evaded. Fines are unjustly imposed; there is extreme humidity in cotton factories; there is dust in card rooms, causing injury to chest and lungs. Time cribbing is largely practiced; many workers must make their employers a weekly free gift of two hours' labor. Long hours of illegal overtime have to be endured, a wrong that presses with most severity upon young girls.^(a)

The trade union official, with his hand on the pulse of the particular body of workers he represents, can supplement the work of the State in detection of violation or irregularity.

In cases where bad cotton is supplied to the operatives, and the resultant discarding of portions of it is adjudged "willful and deliberate waste of material," or the finished article condemned as bad workmanship, the trade union officials represent the right of the worker in fixing the responsibility.

In almost every book of rules issued by the women's trade unions there is to be found one section devoted to "condition of membership" and one upon the requirements of an "employment register," and on these provisions hangs much of the success of a women's union along the lines of practical accomplishment.

The employment register clause generally reads as follows:

A book shall be left at the office of the secretary, in which the secretary shall enter for the information of the members, free of charge, any vacancies which may come to her notice. Members out of work will also register there.

The condition of membership generally requires some testimony to the competency of the applicant in her trade, or at least evidence that she is working at some trade at the time of seeking membership. Employers are glad to avail themselves of the registry system, because they are able to secure labor of certified ability; also, the system abolishes the old custom of shop-to-shop canvas for work on the part of women wage-earners. Many applications are directed to the

^a William C. Anderson, in *The Woman Worker* for August 17, 1908.

secretary of the Women's Trade Union League in London by managers and employers desiring workwomen.

The officials in charge of the women's trade union movement in Great Britain maintain that the main object of these unions shall be to force up wages and secure a standard rate and other economic advantages to the woman worker, yet they grant that the success of the individual union often depends largely upon the benefits offered. They deprecate the overestimating of the provident side of the union while appreciating that if the provident side can be included, i. e., insurance against sickness or unemployment, it helps to prevent loss of members and the consequent weakening of the union's force for economic action.

If a girl is paying 3d. (6 cents) a week to a trade society and knows that 1d. (2 cents) of the 3d. (6 cents) goes to protect her trade interests, while the other 2d. (4 cents) is invested to meet the out-of-work emergency or the expense of sickness she is not likely to give up her membership and lose benefits for which she has paid. This is equally true of the male trade-unionist. A comparative study of the fluctuations, through a number of years, of the trade union membership in the main groups of trades leads to the deduction "that the unions paying the most varied and liberal scales of benefits suffer least from loss of membership in periods of bad trade."^a

THE MARRIAGE DOWRY.

The Women's Trade Union League also recognizes the institution of the marriage dowry as a possible element of further success in the organization of women. This is to take the place of the death insurance in men's societies. If a woman has paid into a trade union for some years and has not received any monetary benefits during that time, she naturally feels that in case she is leaving the trade on her marriage and terminating her membership with the union she ought to draw what the insurance companies call a bonus, as a kind of commutative value for the money paid in.

The National Federation of Women Workers has included a marriage dowry in its constitution, but the federation is too young to have produced data to prove its success as an auxiliary inducement for membership. The stipulation on this subject reads as follows:

In the event of the marriage of a member, if she has been a full member for 2 years, and has not received out-of-employment or sick benefit during the period of her membership, the central council shall refund 50 per cent of the amount of her contributions, provided she is leaving her trade and terminating her membership.

^a Report of the Chief Labor Correspondent of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions, 1902-1904, p. xx.

The Shop Assistants' Union until recently had a system of marriage dowry payments. In 1907 the union accounts showed £79 8s. 1d. (\$386.42) devoted to this form of benefits, but at a recent conference it was decided to discontinue the marriage benefits. This was done largely because the union's funds were not considered to be in an entirely satisfactory condition, and the marriage dowry was stopped concurrently with a reduction in a number of other benefits and contributions which applied to men and women alike.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Perhaps the most tangible success attributed to the women's trade union movement in the industrial world is the method in which strikes conducted under its supervision have been carried on and the gradual substitution by women unionists of the less openly belligerent process of settling trade disputes by conciliation and arbitration, so that among organized women in Great Britain strikes are now comparatively rare.

THE WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE.

The root of the women's trade union movement is in the Women's Trade Union League; its highest branching is found at present in the affiliation of women's unions with the General Federation of Trade Unions and in representation in the annual trade union congress, composed of delegates from all the large organizations in Great Britain as well as from the American Federation of Labor.

METHODS EMPLOYED BY THE LEAGUE.

A review of the growth of the movement reveals the completeness of mechanism for organization to which the individual union for women falls heir as a consequence of the circle-without-circle perfection of the long-established combinations of male labor throughout the country.

The Women's Trade Union League, although an evolution from the Women's Provident and Protection League founded in 1874, has no strike fund and pays no benefits but exists for the purpose of propagating the principles of trade unionism among women; of organizing the women in industry, and in supplying an executive head for the affiliated unions from the trades in which women are employed. All secretaries of affiliated London trade unions are ex officio members of the league committee, on which are also a certain number of members elected at the annual meeting. There is also a committee of counsel, consisting of leading trade-unionists, usually the men secretaries of unions containing female members, that advises the league, and its members are present at the annual meeting at which

officials for the ensuing year are elected. The officials of the league are a chairman, a secretary, two official organizers (although the chairman and secretary, both women, are also actively engaged in this work throughout the year), and an honorary treasurer. The general committee, which is the administrative body for the league, consists of the executive committee and of ten or twelve additional members chosen from among the students of industrial conditions and from among labor representatives in Parliament. The league from its headquarters in London acts as the agent of women trade-unionists in making representations to government authorities or to parliamentary committees in regard to the legislation required, or in bringing forward specific grievances in individual trades or factories, by means of questions and written forms of presentation by members of Parliament in the House of Commons. Complaints as to breaches of the Factory and Workshop Acts, when sent to the league are investigated carefully and referred to the proper officials for correction or enforcement. Cases under the compensation, truck, and other industrial laws referred to the league are investigated and advice is given by the secretary of the legal advice department or action is taken under the league's legal advisers. But the greatest endeavor on the part of the Women's Trade Union League is to increase the ranks of women trade-unionists. It is prepared at all times to send organizers to the London or to any provincial district to form new or to strengthen existing trade unions. In fact, the payment of the affiliation fee of 2s. 6d. (61 cents) per 250 women members, or 10s. (\$2.43) per thousand, which resolves itself into a theoretical tax of one-half cent every two years to every woman, carries with it the right to have an annual visit from one of the league's organizers for a single meeting or for a week's organization. This visit is free except that the society visited is expected to provide hospitality for the organizer. In case a longer visit is required by affiliated unions outside the London district fees are charged at the rate of 15s. (\$3.65) for a second week, and a fee of 30s. (\$7.30) is charged for a third week. Fares must be paid if more than one visit is paid in the year.

Inside the London district, owing to the entirely different conditions with regard to distance, arrangements must in each instance be made with the league secretary.

In the case of the formation of a new union, a visit will be paid by a league organizer, free of charge, at the request of any men's union or other bona-fide organization which is helping to form the new union.

In the case of a nonaffiliated society applying to the league for an organizer, the charges are 10s. and 15s. (\$2.43 and \$3.65) and expenses for a single meeting outside the London district, and 5s. (\$1.22) and expenses within London. The charges for a week's organizing to such societies is 30s. (\$7.30) and expenses. The committee reserves

the right to remit any part of these charges if good reason for such remission is shown in any special case.

As a rule a union, once organized by the league, prefers an independent management, and calls upon the central society for help only in case a rally to awaken flagging interest in membership is necessary or a trade dispute occurs in which the local union members are involved. There are at present 136 unions or branches of unions affiliated with the league.

Whenever, on the other hand, notice of a strike among as yet unorganized women workers in any part of the country reaches the league, one of the officials immediately proceeds to the locality and, if possible, acts as mediator between the employer and the workers in rebellion. No matter whether a simple agreement is effected, or whether the more complicated process of reference to a committee of arbitration is necessary, as soon as terms are adjusted the league official attempts to form a union among these workers who have so recently experienced the futility of opposing existing conditions without financial backing or the machinery for united action.

Where there has been no crisis in the affairs in the trade but where a desire for better conditions exists the local women interested in the matter apply to the league for the services of an organizer. First there are leaflets^a distributed among the workers as they leave the factory or workshop, explanatory of the advantages of organization. These are followed by cards announcing the date of the addresses by the officials from the Women's Trade Union League, and at the meeting the enrollment of members for the new union is made.

The local union having been formed, it appoints a secretary and draws up its book of rules (constitution), or more often the women thus organized find it acceptable to the men in the same branch of trade to enter under the rules and government of the established male union.

When the organization is but a unit in a large industry, like a branch of the textile manufacture, it joins with the fellow-workers who have been already recruited into unionism from the surrounding

^a The following extract gives an idea of the accepted form of this propaganda by leaflet:

A trade union enables women to make better terms with their employers, to get grievances redressed, and their general conditions of labor improved. Experience proves that a union is badly needed in ——. The workers in other towns are well organized, and consequently wages and conditions are good. Why should we lag behind? If you have never thought of joining a union before, think about it now and become a member. Some women are aware of their great need of organization, but say, "It is no use my joining a union unless my fellow-workers do so too." If such women join the union they set an example which is noticed, and lead others to think seriously of belonging to a union, with the result that after a time there is quite a large number of women in that mill belonging to the union.

factories and becomes a part of the district association. Through this district association all these workers are affiliated with a federation or an amalgamation of societies, having wider geographical scope over unionists in the same branch of trade, stronger financial backing, and pursuing a more militant policy. Then, these federations of local unions, composed of operatives engaged in the same form of industry, are themselves affiliated with the General Federation of Trade Unions, gaining for their members a connection with a national organization.

For example, in Lancashire among operatives in the various processes of weaving one finds a district organization like the Blackburn and District Power Loom Weavers' Association, which had in 1908 a membership of 5,100 males and 11,900 females, or the Burnley and District Weavers, Winders, and Beamers, with 7,438 males and 10,705 females; and each of these associations includes in its membership the organized workers who live within a radius of 5 or 12 miles of the central town.

The rules of these district associations make provision for sick benefit, death payment, and stoppage-of-work pay. Sometimes one benefit is made use of, sometimes another, and in some cases all three.

The Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers, to which the members of the district associations mentioned above (together with over thirty more mixed unions with about the same sex proportions) are affiliated, has as a principal duty the supervision of the wage scale in the trade, and it allows strike pay in disputes arising from efforts to maintain a uniform rate of wage or to resist fines and deductions. This amalgamation is governed by a general council, elected by the district committee, and the representation allowed to each district is, up to 1,000 members, one representative; for 1,500 members, two representatives; and an additional representative for every 1,000 members thereof. This special council elects at its annual meetings a committee of nine, called the central committee, the members of which watch over, direct, and control the general proceedings of the amalgamation, with the restriction that under no circumstances shall they order any weavers out on strike involving more than 5,000 looms before consulting and receiving the approval of at least three-fourths of the members of the council.

Each association of weavers upon joining this association pays an entrance fee of 1d. (2 cents) for each member and an annual levy which is regulated by the general committee in accordance with the state of the emergency fund.

The female trade-unionist does not feel this as a personal tax, since it comes as a lump sum from her district association's treasury, and in case she is included in a dispute sanctioned by the general

council of the amalgamation^(a) she receives her share of the benefits apportioned to her union.

There are no women secretaries among the local unions in the weaving trades and no woman has held a place on the general council or, of course, on the central committee of the Northern Counties Amalgamation. Women members play no active part in shaping the policy or in directing the expenditure of funds of the organization. They pay their dues, report their grievances to men officials, and await their benefits—from payments for temporary accidents or for breakdowns or stoppage of machinery from fire or failure to the fulfillment of the death claim their family shall make.

And if this quiescent attitude of the average female trade-unionist is true in the organized branches of the textile industries, where the women predominate numerically, it is also true of the comparatively few who are affiliated through membership in mixed unions with the great trade councils, where societies from all trades and occupations are linked together for greater effectiveness in defense in labor disputes in any given area.

In the Manchester and Salford Trades and Labor Council, representing a membership of 30,000 there are only three or four representatives of female labor. About 20 of the women's unions in this district are united under the Women's Trades and Labor Council and the Women's Trades Union Council, with women officials. But in the Liverpool and Vicinity Trades Council, with a membership of 33,000, and in the Birmingham Trades Council, with over 35,000 trade-unionists, women have no representation; and even in the trades council for Oldham and Vicinity and in that for Nottingham and District, where female labor is far from being a negligible quantity, there has never been a woman trade-unionist appointed delegate.

Coming to the national organization, the General Federation of Trade Unions, the secretary pointed out that although there were some half dozen societies—out of the 122 affiliated societies—that represented

^a12. Should a dispute arise in any district, or districts, for which the assistance of the amalgamation is required, the local committee, or committees, shall after using every effort to bring about an amicable and satisfactory settlement, lay before the central committee the whole of such grievances, who shall cause full and complete inquiries to be made, and afterwards, if necessary, lay the matter before the general council, which shall be called as early as possible afterwards, to consider the matter in dispute.

13. In the event of any district having a dispute entertained by the general council, they shall receive support in accordance with the number of members entered and payable in this amalgamation. In case of any dispute no person shall receive support from the funds of this amalgamation unless they have been members of the same for the previous thirteen weeks.

32. That before the council undertake any dispute 75 per cent of the work people in the mill, or mills affected, shall be members of the association.—
Rules of the Amalgamated Weavers' Association.

unions with female members, the entire number of female trade-unionists thus allied would amount to less than 1 per cent of the 689,674.

Naturally, with no woman holding an official position in the separate federations, there would be no female trade-unionist sent as a delegate to the general council, the governing body of this national organization.

The unions of small groups of women workers who have organized themselves directly under the National Federation of Women Workers, with a woman secretary, joined the General Federation of Trade Unions only in the third quarter of 1907, and they will eventually have representation in the general council.^(a)

The shop assistants' unions are not affiliated with the General Federation of Trade Unions, but in their own national amalgamation they have a woman assistant secretary, who has been sent three times as a delegate to the trade union congress.

ADVANTAGES OF REPRESENTATION IN THE TRADE UNION CONGRESS.

Representation in the trade union congress marks a most important step toward assertive participation in labor problems on the part of the women's trade union movement; for in this annual congress is elected by ballot the parliamentary committee, the legislative guardians of British organized labor. This committee consists of sixteen members, one from each of the large groups of unions classified according to form of industry, and five representatives of the smaller departments of labor classified as "miscellaneous trades." Women are not elected as members of this committee, and women delegates seldom attempt to speak in the congress, though this, as was pointed out by a labor member, is due to the size of the halls in which the gathering of 531 delegates is now held rather than to any sex prejudice. Five of the trade groups represented on the parliamentary committee have women unionists in their membership, and the resolutions debated in the congress and transferred to the parliamentary committee as a basis for their national legislative action are prepared in the various federations of trades represented and sent in, together with the nomination for the parliamentary committeeman, some months before the annual convening of delegates, thus giving the female trade-unionist an equal opportunity for registering their interests and ambitions.

^a Rule No. 2 of the Rules of the General Federation of Trades Unions provides as follows:

The governing body shall be termed the general council, and consist of one delegate from societies of 10,000 or less, two delegates from societies of over 10,000 and not more than 25,000, three delegates from societies of over 25,000 and not more than 50,000, and six delegates from societies of over 50,000.

The convening of the trade union congress is also used by the Women's Trade Union League as a time for holding a separate conference of all the delegates representing trades in which there are women workers. In 1907 this annual conference was attended by over 250 delegates, and the following resolutions, directly bearing upon the amelioration of labor conditions for women, were passed and laid before the home secretary by a deputation from the committee:

That this conference of trade-unionists, representing trades in which women are employed, condemns the action of the Government by which a weak and confused measure dealing with laundries has been passed into law, and maintains that no amending measure will be satisfactory to labor which does not extend to laundries the full protection accorded to other factories and workshops.

That this conference of trade-unionists, representing trades in which women are employed, in view of the powerlessness of existing truck laws to check fining, and the number of cases in which deductions are made by employers from workers' wages to meet the cost of insurance under the Workmen's Compensation Act, asks for an immediate report from the committee appointed to inquire into the working of the Truck Act.

There is, besides, always a public meeting of women workers of the district in which the congress is held. These meetings are addressed by labor representatives in Parliament and by the leaders of the women's trade union movement, and the result is sometimes the formation of a new union and always a strengthening of membership in the existing organization.

The expense of sending delegates to the trade union congress is inconsiderable and not a drain upon the resources of even so small an organization as the National Federation of Women Workers. The subscription fee is £1 10s. (\$7.30) for every 1,000 or fraction thereof of the numerical strength of the society, with 10s. (\$2.43) for each delegate,^a this representation being based on 1 delegate for every 2,000 members or fraction thereof. The National Federation of Women Workers, with its membership of 3,000, sent two delegates to the last congress (1908) at a cost of £5 10s. (\$26.77).

^a The congress shall consist of delegates who are or have been bona fide workers at the trade which they represent, and are legal members of trade societies; but no person can be a delegate to the Trade Union Congress unless he is actually working at his trade at the time of appointment, or is a permanent paid working official of his trade union. No representative shall be accepted as bona fide other than direct representation from trade unions. The delegate's name, together with the amount of his society's contribution, shall be forwarded to the secretary of the parliamentary committee 14 days prior to the meeting of congress.—Section 3 of the Trade Union Congress standing orders.

ADVANTAGES OF AFFILIATION WITH THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF TRADE UNIONS.

But this expenditure, of course, does not bring any direct monetary benefit as does affiliation with the General Federation of Trade Unions.

This national federation has two scales of contribution. Societies joining on the higher scale pay an entrance fee of 6d. (12 cents) per member, and those on the lower, 3d. (6 cents) per member. Each society pays for 90 per cent of its total membership; each society entering on the higher scale pays quarterly the sum of 4d. (8 cents) per member on 90 per cent; each society on the lower scale pays quarterly 2d. (4 cents) per member on 90 per cent. The benefit payment in strikes is 5s. (\$1.22) per member on the higher scale, and 2s. 6d. (61 cents) per member on the lower. So that, to use again the National Federation of Women Workers as an illustration, because it is the only society composed solely of female members affiliated with the General Federation of Trade Unions, while the entrance fee on the lower scale was £42 17s. 6d. (\$208.65) and the contributions for the two remaining quarters of the year ending March 31, 1908, in which it joined, amounted to £69 (\$335.79), the women in the small unions composing the National Federation of Women Workers have now the financial backing of the £162,210 8s. 6d. (\$789,397.03) in the fund of the General Federation of Trade Unions, should a strike become inevitable.

In the separate women's unions, the usual entrance fee is 6d. (12 cents) with usually two rates of subscription and benefit—2d. (4 cents) per week entitling a member to a grant of 4s. (97 cents) per week for a period of six weeks, if unemployed or sick (confinement cases excepted), in any 52 weeks, and 3d. (6 cents) per week entitling a member to 6s. (\$1.46) per week under the same conditions.

The following variation is also a typical scale of payment:

	Per week.
The subscription is-----	\$0. 0608
Sick benefit:	
For the first 10 weeks-----	1. 4600
For the second 10 weeks-----	. 9733
Out-of-work benefit:	
For the first 6 weeks-----	1. 4600
For the second 6 weeks-----	. 9733

The National Association of Telephone Operators has a still lower scale of contribution of 1½d. (3 cents) weekly, which entitles a member to all the benefits of the association except sick and out-of-work benefits, with the proviso that "the committee shall have power to make a special grant to members under this class, when sick or unemployed, should the circumstances warrant such a course."

The National Federation of Women Workers deals with this class of payments as follows:

Class A (1d. (2 cents) per week) shall entitle to trade protection: (a) Assistance generally in raising wages and improving working conditions; (b) free legal advice; (c) financial support (the amount of which shall be determined by the central council, with due regard to all the circumstances of the case) in the case of a strike or lockout, provided the action of the members affected has been indorsed by the central council of the federation.

In the unions of mixed membership, as in the textile trades, the basis of payment is usually the rate of earnings and the table below, showing contributions and benefits in the Card, Blowing, Ring, and Throstle Room Operatives' Association, of Bolton, is a characteristic arrangement:

CONTRIBUTIONS AND BENEFITS IN THE BOLTON AND DISTRICT CARD, BLOWING, RING, AND THROSTLE-ROOM OPERATIVES' ASSOCIATION.

Basis of payments.	Weekly contributions—		Benefits derived from the association.			
	If working 26 or more hours in 1 week.	If working less than 26 hours in 1 week, after having paid 26 weeks' full contributions	Weekly strike, victim, or lock-out pay.	Weekly out-of-work pay 13 weeks in one year.	Weekly pay on account of failures and fires for 36 working days in calendar year.	Weekly pay on account of break-downs and stop-pages for 36 working days in calendar year.
Males earning 20s. (\$4.87) or more for a week of 55½ hours (a).....	\$0.24	\$0.02	\$2.68	\$2.43	\$2.43	\$2.43
Males earning 20s. (\$4.87) or more for a week of 55½ hours.....	.18	.02	2.68	2.43	2.43
Males earning less than 20s. (\$4.87) for a week of 55½ hours.....	.12	.02	2.43	1.95	1.95
Females earning 12s. (\$2.92) or more for a week of 55½ hours.....	.12	.02	2.43	1.95	1.95
Females earning less than 12s. (\$2.92) for a week of 55½ hours.....	.08	.02	1.95	1.46	1.46
Learners not earning any wage at all.....	.02	.02

Basis of payments.	Benefits derived from the association.					
	Weekly for temporary accident, first 13 weeks.	Weekly for temporary accident, second 13 weeks.	Permanent accident.	Fatal accident.	Ordinary death.	Emigration.
Males earning 20s. (\$4.87) or more for a week of 55½ hours (a).....	\$2.43	\$1.22	\$243.33	\$48.67	\$24.33	\$9.73
Males earning 20s. (\$4.87) or more for a week of 55½ hours.....	2.43	1.22	243.33	48.67	24.33	9.73
Males earning less than 20s. (\$4.87) for a week of 55½ hours.....	1.95	.97	146.00	38.93	19.47	6.30
Females earning 12s. (\$2.92) or more for a week of 55½ hours.....	1.95	.97	146.00	38.93	19.47	6.30
Females earning less than 12s. (\$2.92) for a week of 55½ hours.....	1.46	.73	121.66	29.20	14.60	4.87
Learners not earning any wage at all.....	14.60

* It should be noted that the payment of an additional contribution of 3d. (6 cents) in this class secures, in addition to the other benefits, a weekly out-of-work benefit of 10s. (\$2.43), payable for 13 weeks in one year.

The Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks has an entrance fee of 1s. (24 cents) and a more varied and higher scale of contribution, and the gradations are in regard to the member's age as well as wages.

CONTRIBUTIONS AND BENEFITS IN THE NATIONAL AMALGAMATED UNION OF SHOP ASSISTANTS, WAREHOUSEMEN, AND CLERKS.

[“C” scale open to women who declare their wages to be equal to 25s. (\$6.08) per week.
“D” scale open to men who declare their wages to be equal to 35s. (\$8.52) per week.]

Scale.	Sex.	Age on entry (years).	Weekly contributions.		Benefits in sickness, unemployment, and death.						
					Trade members in unemployment only (per week).			Following 12 weeks in sickness only (per week).	Death benefits.		
			Full benefit.	Trade benefit.	First 4 weeks.	Second 4 weeks.	Third 4 weeks.		Two years and under 5 years.	Five years and under 10 years.	Ten years and over.
Junior.	Men and women.	16 and under 18.	\$0.06	\$0.04	\$1.70	\$1.22	\$0.85	\$0.61
A.....	Women only..	18 and under 20.	.08	.06	2.19	1.70	1.10	.73	\$12.17	\$19.47	\$31.63
	Do.....	30 and under 40.	.10	.07							
	Do.....	40 and under 50.	.12	.08							
B.....	Men.....	18 and under 30.	.12	.08	3.41	2.43	1.70	1.22	19.47	29.20	48.67
	Men and women.	21 and under 30.	.12	.08							
	Do.....	30 and under 40.	.15	.10							
C.....	Do.....	40 and under 50.	.18	.12	5.11	3.65	2.55	1.83	29.20	43.80	73.00
	Do.....	21 and under 30.	.18	.12							
	Do.....	30 and under 40.	.22	.15							
D.....	Men only.....	40 and under 50.	.27	.18	6.81	4.87	3.41	2.43	38.93	58.40	97.33
	Do.....	21 and under 30.	.24	.16							
	Do.....	30 and under 40.	.30	.20							
	Do.....	40 and under 50.	.37	.24							

For the year 1907 there was paid out in benefits by this union £12,218 19s. 3d. (\$59,463.58), but there were two prolonged strikes, which alone necessitated £1,307 6d. (\$6,360.64) in unemployment pay.

Labor disputes between shop assistants and the employers are, however, extremely small as compared with the area of trade affected by a general disagreement as to wages throughout the cotton textile industries of Lancashire, in which, it will be remembered, more women than men are employed.

On November 5, 1892, the spinning companies of Lancashire locked out some 40,000 persons employed in preparing and spinning cotton, and as a result of this stoppage in the spinning department fully 20,000 operatives in the weaving department were also thrown out of work. After a total stoppage of five months work was resumed at a reduction of practically 3 per cent.

From the momentous conference between representatives from the employers' and the operatives' sides and the final all-night sitting which settled the strike came the agreement which has since governed the trade. This is known as the "Brooklands agreement," and

the clauses given below show its forceful provision for conciliatory methods of settling disputes:

That in future no local employers' association, nor the Federated Association of Employers, on the one hand, nor any trade union or federation of trades unions on the other hand, shall countenance, encourage, or support any lockout or strike which may arise from, or be caused by any question, difference, or dispute, contention, grievance, or complaint, with respect to work, wages, or any other matter, unless and until the same has been submitted in writing by the secretary of the local employers' association to the secretary of the local trades union, or by the secretary of the local trades union to the secretary of the local employers' association, as the case may be; nor unless and until such secretaries or a committee consisting of three representatives of the local trades union with their secretary, and three representatives of the employers' association with their secretary, shall have failed, after full inquiry, to settle and arrange such question, difference, or dispute, contention, complaint, or grievance, within the space of seven days from the receipt of the communication in writing aforesaid; nor unless and until, failing the last-mentioned settlement or arrangement, if either of the secretaries of the local trades union or local employers' association shall so deem it advisable, a committee consisting of four representatives of the Federated Association of Employers, with their secretary, and four representatives of the Amalgamated Association of the Operatives' Trade Unions, with their secretary, shall have failed to settle or arrange, as aforesaid, within the further space of seven days from the time when such matter was referred to them, provided always that the secretaries or the committees hereinbefore mentioned, as the case may be, shall have power to extend or enlarge the said periods of seven days whenever they may deem it expedient or desirable to do so.^a

Besides this agreement there is in these textile trades a voluntary board of arbitration called the "Joint Committee of Employers and Operatives in Cotton Weaving Industry in North and Northeast Lancashire," the object of which is to consider in their preliminary stages all trade disputes occurring in the weaving department and coming within the knowledge of the officials of the operatives' amalgamation, with a view to preserving good feeling between employers and operatives; and to recourse to these two tribunals the women workers in cotton industries owe the general peace of wage conditions for fifteen years.

In 1908, however, another acute situation over the cotton spinning wage scale developed in Lancashire and proceedings under the Brooklands agreement were for a time sterile of trade settlement. The operatives offered dogged resistance to the 5 per cent reduction in wages proposed by the employers, and the conciliation conference having ended in failure, there was an army of cotton operatives

^a Report on Rules of Voluntary Conciliation and Arbitration Boards, p. 168. Board of Trade. 1907.

300,000 strong out on strike. The unemployment was a matter of only a few weeks' duration, for the operatives were persuaded to go back to work temporarily at the 5 per cent reduction rate.

The writer of this article was present at the first conference in this dispute, held in Manchester, August 4, 1908, between representatives of the Federation of Cotton Spinners' Associations and representatives on behalf of the Operative Spinners' Amalgamation, the Card Room Workers' Amalgamation, and the Federation of Reelers and Winders' Union. About thirty members of the general committee of the employers' federation and twenty-four representing the operatives' interest were in attendance, and at the dissolution of the first day's session neither side appeared disposed to yield.

The general attitude of the women members of the unions and federations who were interviewed in the mills of the surrounding towns seemed to be one of indifference, or at least one of complete confidence in the ability of the union officials charged with the negotiations to secure a satisfactory adjustment or to provide strike pay should the employees be called out.

The women's trade union organizers interviewed agreed that they faced one of the biggest industrial fights on record, and they stated that they would rather see a compromise effected through an independent mediator than have the disastrous lockout which would follow should both sides remain hard-headed in regard to the proposals each had submitted to the conference. Unemployment occasioned by a prevailing slackness in a trade causes the woman worker to suffer much more than the man, since the men can turn elsewhere and be absorbed by other trades, but women who have been cotton operatives all their lives and are anchored with their families in the settlements about the mills must sit there and look at the closed doors without the opportunity to do anything else.

Except in the textile group of trade unions, and to a small extent in the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, women's organizations have not the benefit of established conciliation boards, which are so important a factor in controlling trade disputes in the great industrial groups in which only men are employed.^(*)

But whenever the Women's Trade Union League officials are appealed to for help in labor difficulties among women workers, the first effort is toward mediation by a deputation to the employer or a petition for the appointment of a board of arbitration.

^{*} Of the 7,248 cases settled by conciliation boards in ten years, 1897-1906, only 92 (or 1.3 per cent) were preceded by a stoppage of work. Most of the boards provide that all their decisions, or the award of their arbitrators, etc., shall be final and binding, and a few boards go further and impose a money penalty for breach of agreement or award.—Report on Rules of Voluntary Conciliation and Arbitration Boards, pp. 236, 237. Board of Trade. 1907.

RELATION OF WOMEN'S TRADE UNIONS TO LOW WAGES AND THE SWEATING SYSTEM.

The greatest endeavor on the part of the women's trade union leaders at the present time is to accomplish the extension of the board of arbitration prerogative to an authoritative institution for legal decision in wage disputes and the establishment by law of a minimum wage in the different trades.

The deplorable condition of female labor has been one of the chief stimuli to attempted organization among the women workers in England, the hope being that the strength of collective demand would automatically adjust the rate of pay to a living wage. But in the small factories and workshops, and above all in the case of work distributed as domestic labor or home work, organization has not flourished or has been found impossible, and the female trade-unionist believes that the law must intervene before these trades can develop sufficient financial and moral strength for a reformation of the bad conditions.

In the last few years the leaders in the women's trade union movement have gone out as personal investigators of the present economic and sanitary demoralization among all classes of home workers, and the results of this study, as given in their testimony before the select committee on home work and proclaimed in addresses during the conference on a minimum wage held at the Guildhall, London, October 24, 25, and 26, 1902, has done much to enlist public sentiment in their cause.

It was the publication of certain distressing cases that gave impetus to the early organization of women. In 1889 a case in Manchester was brought to public notice where the father was disabled through an accident and the mother and a daughter of 15, the oldest of four children, by shirt making could earn only 12s. (\$2.92) a week, 3s. 9d. (91 cents) going for rent. The father finally poisoned himself. This led to the formation of a trade league among women workers.^(a) It was impossible to support organization among the sweated workers here as elsewhere, but the idea of combination spread into the textile trades and contributed greatly to the universality of trade unionism in Manchester.

A comparison between wages and conditions in the small trades before the existence of women's trade unions in England and what exists to-day in the home-work districts of London does not reveal any differentiation in favor of later-day conditions. In fact, it was brought out in the evidence taken before the select committee of the

^a Annual Report of Women's Trade Union League for 1889.

House of Commons that wages in the sweated industries have gone down in the last 10 or 12 years.^(a)

Instances are cited of an equally deranged economic system among home and unorganized factory workers.^(b) Recently at Taunton, in Somerset, which, together with Londonderry, represents the bulk of the shirt and collar industry, in a factory where the average wage was 9s. 6d. (\$2.31), it was found that deductions amounting to 1s. (24 cents), 1s. 3d. (30 cents), and 2s. 3d. (55 cents) per week were made for cotton. The employer, when asked about it, gave as his justification "that a certain amount of the work was done at home, and therefore the cotton went out of the factory, and he was bound to charge for cotton to everybody because some of the workers took cotton out to do the work at home."

In this trade "it is the custom for the worker to take the collars home to do a certain process at home known as creasing. Each collar, from the time it enters the factory as linen until it goes out as the finished product, has to pass through 17 different processes. Three of these processes consist of creasing at different periods, and this," it was discovered, "is very largely done at home with the help of the children. This is, of course, a breach of the factory act, but it is impossible, or almost impossible, to enforce the factory act, because naturally the worker connives with the employer in proving that she has not been doing the same work in the factory during the day, and that the work was really taken out by a sister or relative."

"In Taunton," Miss Macarthur further testified, "I found one woman with six children who earned 16s. (\$3.89) a week. She worked in the factory during the day and at home at night; she told me she worked from 5 in the morning till 8 at home, from 8 till 7 in the factory, and from 8 till midnight at home again regularly. This was confirmed by a large number of other women who were present. I suggested to her that she should give evidence to the factory inspector and that the firm should be prosecuted. She begged me not to give information because her wages would have been reduced to about 9s. 6d. (\$2.31) if she had not been doing home work, and therefore she would have been unable to maintain her children, who, by the way, were helping her with a part of the work."

In Oxford a few weeks later a woman was found working in factories whose average wages were 5s. (\$1.22) a week. On inquiring how she lived, the information was vouchsafed that one of the workers of the factory who earned more gave her dinner every day.

^a Testimony of Mr. G. R. Askwith, Report from Select Committee on Home Work, 1907, p. 203.

^b Testimony of Miss Mary R. Macarthur in Report from Select Committee on Home Work, 1907, p. 134 et seq.

She paid 2s. 6d. (61 cents) a week for rent and the other 2s. 6d. (61 cents) apparently met every other expense.

There was recently a strike in a tin works at Hull because time rates had been substituted for piece rates, and according to a report in the paper the employer stated that the reason he was fixing time rates of 6s. (\$1.46) a week for his workers was that they took advantage of the piecework rates to earn too much, some of the workers making 16s. (\$3.89) or 17s. (\$4.14). This was confirmed by the experience of an organizer from the Women's Trade Union League, who went there immediately.

Another reduction on this order was made by an East London blacking firm, where the girls were employed in filling bottles at piece rates and their wages worked out at 10s. (\$2.43) and 12s. (\$2.92) a week, until one week a notice was put up in the factory that the piecework rate would be reduced by one-half, which meant that their wages would have been reduced to 5s. (\$1.22) and 6s. (\$1.46) per week. There was no organization, but the girls went out on strike, and when a woman organizer sought an interview with the managing director she was told that he had come to the conclusion that since bottles could be filled by girls under 18 years of age he intended to dismiss all the women and in the future employ only girls under that age. The firm was induced not to disturb the existing rates.

The disparity in the rates of pay that unskilled workers receive from employers in the same locality for similar work is indicative of the vicissitude of the unorganized women in trade. In the same district two firms employing women to fill bags with cocoa have different piece rates—in one 1s. 3d. (30 cents) per 1,000 bags being paid, while exactly similar work is done for the other firm for 8d. (16 cents) per 1,000 bags. Then in tea packing, on one side of a street in London there is a firm whose girls are able to earn 14s. (\$3.41) and 16s. (\$3.89) a week in packing tea in quarter-pound and half-pound packets, but they are in constant dread of a reduction because across the street there is another tea-packing firm where the average wage is not more than 7s. 6d. (\$1.83). There may be some difference in the machinery which is used but it is very slight, and the output seems to be about the same.^a Farther down the scale in home work, shirt finishing, and buttonholing, there is a difference of 3d. (6 cents) and 4d. (8 cents) a dozen for the same work, and in trousers finishing there is a noted difference for the same work of 2½d. (6 cents), 4d. (8 cents), and even in some cases 1s. 6d. (37 cents) a dozen. While apart from the variations in the prices paid for the same work the fluctuation in prices at different times is notorious. Firms in East London have lowered the rate of the

^a See Miss Macarthur's testimony in Report from Select Committee on Home Work, July 18, 1907.

"giver-out" from 1s. 6d. (37 cents) to 9d. (18 cents), and it is stated that the same decline has taken place in the price for the making of "uppers" in the boot and shoe trade by women home workers in London.

In all these trades, efforts at organization among the poorly paid workers can get no hold.

The barrier to organization which the less-than-living wage paid to unskilled female labor presents has been instrumental in keeping the women's trade union movement within a certain circumscribed area; for the greater part of the work in which women take part is unskilled. Moreover, the presence of this mass of inadequately paid workers throughout the trades is a distinct drag upon the wages of female labor in general. The trade union leaders in England believe that apart from the humanitarian considerations involved sweating is an economic menace. This is, of course, more forcibly true of the effect of the mere pittance allowed the least efficient, the domestically handicapped, and really physically incapable workers by employers who take advantage of the partial support by charity and distribute work to such workers at the lowest rates of pay, knowing that they can not compete in hours of employment or in strength with the regular worker.

The downward leveling effect of sweated labor upon wages in those trades in which a proportion of women succeeded in organizing and demanding a standard wage is seen in the following comparative table of rates for women's work in the boot and shoe trade, which was prefaced by the remark: "In the nonunion factories very many children are employed at 14, 16, and 17 years of age at a very small wage, consequently outworkers only receive for a great deal of work the same price that is reckoned for the sweated child labor."

SCALE OF WAGES FOR UNION AND NONUNION WOMEN IN THE BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.

Occupation.	Unit of time.	Wages of—	
		Trade union women.	Nonunion women.
Operators on silking machines.....	50 hours.	\$4.62	“ \$1.70
Operators on vamping machines.....	Hour....	.08	\$0.02 to .05
Fitters, on a set wage.....	Week....	\$3.65 to \$4.38 and 4.87	2.19 to 3.41
Machinists[machine workers], on a set wage.....	do.....	3.89 to 4.87	\$2.43 to 3.65 and 3.89
Silkers, on a set wage.....	do.....	3.89 to 4.62	1.70 and 1.95 to 3.16
Vampers, on a set wage.....	do.....	3.89 to 4.87	2.43 to 3.65
Closers, on a set wage.....	do.....	3.65 to 4.38	1.70 and 1.95 to 2.92
Buttonholers, on a set wage.....	do.....	3.89 to 4.38 and 4.62	1.95 to 3.16

* 5½ to 54 hours.

In investigating tailoring work among women there was found proof of another feature apparently incident to absence of organization. In London in a nonunion workshop where women's garments

were being made (there are four of these workshops conducted by the same firm) nearly everything was found to be in compliance with the regulations of the Factory and Workshop Act. There were only 60 machines in a large room where, according to space requirements, there might have been 100. The hours, the forewoman said, were 9 a. m. to 8 p. m. on week days and 9 a. m. to 2 p. m. on Saturday, with one hour for lunch and a half hour for tea in the afternoon. The average earnings—it was piecework—were £1 6d. (\$4.99) a week. There was no list of registered home workers nailed up with a copy of the Factory and Workshop Act as is usual, and the question as to the regularity of employment was met with the slight evasion that “they very seldom had to shut down.”

However, in this district several women home workers who were making garments “given out” by the employers of this workshop were interviewed by the writer, and from them it was learned that the extra work of a rush order is always disposed of in this way; but when trade is dull the firm cuts off all outwork, often disposes of half the inside “machiners,” and gives scant employment to those kept on.

This is not the way a rush of orders is dealt with in the organized trades. The work has to be distributed among the workers that are available, and probably there is some little delay; but a great factor in unemployment is eliminated and the consumer is forced to give his orders in time.

The establishment of a scale of prices, which is effected by the formation of a union, has done much to ameliorate the condition of the women workers.

Curious ignorance on the subject of pay is found in unorganized trades. A strike broke out in a shirt factory in the East End; the quarrel was between the men and their employers, but the women came out in support of the men, and when a trade union organizer tried to take a register of their wages it was found that in two workrooms in that factory, where the women were working upon the very same sort of shirts, cut out by the same people from the same bale of material, there was a difference in wages of between 45 and 50 per cent.

The reason was the difference of attitude on the part of the forewomen. One forewoman had insisted upon keeping up the rates in her workroom, and the other, being more timid, had not done so; but the workers were totally ignorant of this condition until the formation of a union among them brought it out.

The perfection of this enforcement of list prices is found in the equal rates for men and women in the textile organizations of Lancashire; but it is difficult to determine just how much of the advancement in the workers' welfare in this district is directly due to trade unionism. For, while the textile operatives of Lancashire to-day, the

most highly protected and benefited class of labor in which women are employed in England, present a startling contrast to the picture of "the maimed, distorted, and diseased factory hands who paraded before Lord Ashley in Oldham and Blackburn"^(a) sixty years ago, there have been so many economic forces affecting conditions there, and several operating together, that to isolate one phenomenon, like the development of trade unionism, and say what change has been wrought is impossible.

The Factory and Workshop Act, the Employer's Liability Act, the Trade Union Act, and the Workmen's Compensation Act, together with all other legislation for labor, have entered into the regeneration of the textile factory system; and inextricably associated with the origin, the furtherance, and the execution of all these beneficiary measures has been the force of the trade union. And this force has, of course, been greatly increased by the consolidation of the large element of female labor in these industries.

Maintaining a standard wage is perhaps directly attributable more to trade unionism than to anything else, and a comparison of the course of wages in the cotton industries (largely concentrated in Lancashire) between the date of the rise of women's trade unions and recent years with that in other industries much less organized, yet subject to the same benefits of labor legislation during that time, may supply some evidence of the advantageous working of organization for the women workers.

There are no conclusive figures to demonstrate the exact influence of the women's organization upon the course of wages. Indeed, they started from such a low point, 3s. 6d. to 5s. 6d. (85 cents to \$1.34), at the end of the eighteenth century, with the high-water mark of 8s. (\$1.95), that it is quite possible that the wages of the female worker would have increased irrespective of the effect of industrial legislation or of trade unionism.

The anomaly of the female factory worker's wage is that it is still so low. Although there are women weavers in Lancashire who are paid from 24s. to 30s. (\$5.84 to \$7.30) weekly for full time, "the average wage of a manual worker, taking it all the year around and making allowance for sickness and slackness, does not now reach 8s. (\$1.95) per week."^(b)

Women's trade unions, then, would not seem to have demonstrated a high efficiency in a widespread elevation of wages, but as a factor in maintaining a once-established standard of wage the women's trade union movement gives undeniable evidence. The woman worker in the organized centers of Lancashire knows that she can

^a Problems of Modern Industry, by Sidney and Beatrice Webb, p. 117.

^b Interview with Miss Macarthur, August 10, 1908.

not secure preference for employment by offering to put up with worse conditions and less pay than the standard, because the employer, held to the standard by his collective bargain with his employees, will always select the most efficient. She therefore seeks to commend herself by a good character, technical skill, and general intelligence. The result of constant selection of the most efficient has proved a positive stimulus to the whole class of female workers to become more and more efficient; so that women's trade unions may be said to change the form of competition in lowering wages to competition in requirement to secure the higher pay. In securing legislation which has reduced the hours of labor for the workers from ninety to fifty-five and one-half hours a week and in enforcing sanitary precautions and protection trade unions have been a power in the movement.

CONCLUSIONS.

The women's trade union movement in Great Britain is in an immature stage of development or it may be merely transitional, but its development has not been arrested.

Yet women's trade unionism, developing as it has from a central organization (the Women's Trade Union League) without the difficulty of divesting already founded local trade autonomies of executive power, began at once a system of educational and defensive work among female labor which is bound to bear results.

Organizers from the Women's Trade Union League have frequently proceeded to the center of a trade dispute among women workers and as often have developed an angry, hysterical crowd, unanimously demanding the redress of a particular grievance, into a deliberative body of serious women, learning to distinguish between the shortsightedness of violent individual assertion and the wisdom of a calm presentation of the case along the lines of greatest good to the greatest number of all concerned in the revolt.

A great deal is said of the apparent indifference of the woman member to the mechanism of her union after she has once enlisted herself under the male officials, but it is doubtful whether this condition has not its exact analogy in the general apathy among all average members of the great associations of coal miners and cotton operatives, which comprise one-fifth of the total trades union membership of Great Britain.

The first and really great work of the women's trade union movement has been the awaking in women workers of a sense of their relationship to labor problems in general. There was at first great difficulty in obtaining detailed and really trustworthy information concerning those branches of labor in which women were engaged. A foolish squeamishness about disclosing their wages and the conditions

under which their work was conducted had to be dispelled before the women could understand that their position in labor was of public interest and important toward the accomplishment of ameliorated and advanced conditions for all workers. It has also been the work of the women trade unions to convince the woman wage-earner that the absence of regulation does not mean freedom. This was difficult even in Lancashire. But now that unionism is general there the Lancashire woman weaver, whose hours of labor and conditions of work are rigidly fixed and yet who enjoys for this reason more personal liberty than the unregulated laundry woman in Notting Hill, forms an object lesson which has materially helped the growth of women's organization in other trades.

The women trade-unionists of Great Britain are strongly in favor of securing their contentions for the betterment of labor conditions through protective legislation rather than by militant action of their organization. They look upon trade unions as a medium for the suggestion and as an aid in the enforcement of legally formulated rights of the worker.

So the women trade-unionists have made every effort to place the interests of the woman worker before the Government for adjudication. From the public demonstration and mass meeting with resultant petitions or resolutions for organized action through the Labor party (with which most of the organized women are affiliated) and through their unions (to which the women contribute an equal levy with the men), every effort has been made to advance matters of as vital importance to the woman wage-earner as her wages.

The consolidated Factory and Workshop Act of 1901, the Truck Act of 1896, the Workmen's Compensation Acts of 1897 and 1906, and the Trades Dispute Act of 1906 are all comparatively recent legislation which has been passed at the instigation of the trade-unionists and (it is conceded) through the emphasized endeavor of women trade union leaders.

Moreover, women's trade unions have initiated important trade movements on their own account. Among these is the crusade against the use of lead in the potteries. This is a matter which, according to the manufacturers, can not be dealt with legislatively by one nation alone; to abolish lead glazing in the English manufactories would be to annihilate the pottery industry in England, because the English products could not then compete with the highly-glazed foreign products. But the Women's Trade Union League has made every effort to mitigate the evils of lead poisoning among women workers. A potters' fund is devoted to keeping a worker in the potteries who shall report cases of suffering; the fund also provides for the relief of the sufferers. Leaflets explaining the evils caused workers by the use of lead in the manufacture of earthenware and china have been issued by the league and

exhibitions of leadless glazed ware were instituted at centers throughout London to interest consumers in this humanitarian effort. Finally an arbitration committee composed of representative manufacturers in this trade and of trade-unionists (appearing for the operatives) was arranged in 1907, and the provisions agreed upon mark a considerable advance toward the elimination of the disease. By these rules a general standard of 5 per cent solubility (i. e., comparative safety) is demanded in the manufacture of lead glazes. An exemption from the standard is allowed under certain conditions, the most important of which is participation in a complete scheme of compensation for loss occasioned by illness caused by the use of lead, but the home secretary has power to forbid the use of lead altogether in places in which cases of lead poisoning recur or where the provisions of the compensation scheme are broken. As there were 103 cases of lead poisoning and 9 deaths from this cause^(a) in 1907 among the operatives in potteries, it will be seen that the Women's Trade Union League has secured an important reformatory step in this arbitration, and "this experimental scheme for dealing with a disease attributable to the materials in an occupation can not fail to be an invaluable precedent for the extension of compensation in this direction."^(b)

The league also interested itself in the public agitation for the passage of the bill prohibiting the manufacture of phosphorus matches, which causes such horrible disfigurements and suffering as are produced by necrosis of the jaw, etc., among the women workers. The resolution to abolish the use of phosphorus in this trade had been passed by the International Association of Labor Legislation, but it is the opinion of a labor leader in Parliament that "action on the subject was hastened a long stride" by the incentive of a report prepared by the women's league on cases of victims.

Along this line it is interesting to note, as significant of the complete veering of popular opinion toward the women's trade union efforts that when in 1892 an inquiry into factory conditions was made and published the author was successfully sued for libel, while to-day lists of prosecutions with names of firms, violations, and judgments in full are published in the records of all women's trade unions with no fear of legal recourse on the part of the accused employer.

By clause 22 of the act of 1895 the hours of labor in laundries were fixed at 10 in a day and 30 in a week for children; at 12 in a day and 60 in a week for young persons, and at 14 in a day and 60 in a week for women. Violations of even these hours are of most frequent occur-

^aAnnual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the year 1907, p. 308.

^bAnnual Report of Woman's Trade Union League, 1907.

rence, and the 7,362 cases of overtime in laundries registered in 1907^(a) by no means represent the infringements throughout the trade. The Women's Trade Union League has instituted a supervision of the hours of work, the proper guarding of machinery, ventilation, air space, and general sanitation which has so supplemented the factory inspector's work that conditions of work in this occupation have improved greatly in the last 15 years.

Laundries not being classed among the "dangerous trades" are not regulated so closely as the trades in which industrial poisoning is a menace, and not having any "common rules," such as exist in the textile industries for the regulation of the amount of humidity in the weaving sheds, etc., there is great need of outside help in improving conditions for the women, girls, and boys working long hours in this trade. The Women's Trade Union League has proved an effectual legal agent in many cases discovered among these workers.

It has proved impossible to preserve stable organization among laundry workers because of the long hours and low rates of pay, but whether organized or not organized the Women's Trade Union League has always fought in their interest and has given them some of the benefits accruing to women workers in the well-organized industries.

In summing up it may be said that the women's trade union movement has in some instances been directly responsible for increase of wages, though in this line of endeavor it is realized that the legal recognition of a minimum wage is necessary before widespread organization and raised pay and standard of living can be maintained. Women's trade unionism has, however, added most successful pressure to the initiation and furtherance of protective legislation.

The women trade-unionists, their individual resources reenforced through affiliation with large district and national federations, have been an element in the fight and have shared the victories, while the Women's Trade Union League has, through enforcing prescribed conditions, accomplished much toward the conservation of health and the promotion of safety among local workers, where little or no local organization can yet be effected.

The opinions of two leading captains of industry in England give as emphatic an exposition of trade union work and achievement as can be procured. The first deals with trade unionism in general, and the second is an excerpt from a letter written by the proprietor of one of the largest cocoa and chocolate works in England and a leading propagandist for the women's trade union movement of which he writes.

^aAnnual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for 1907, p. 303.

Mr. W. Mather, in the *Contemporary Review* for November, 1892, has declared:

We employers owe more than, as a body, we are inclined to admit to the improvement of our methods of manufacture due to the firmness and independence of trade combinations. * * * The energy and pertinacity of trade unions have caused acts of Parliament which would not otherwise have been promoted by employers or politicians, all of which have tended to improve British commerce. * * * Every intelligent employer will admit that his factory or workshop, when equipped with all the comforts and conveniences and protective appliances prescribed by Parliament for the benefit and protection of his work people—though great effort, and it may be, even sacrifice, on his part has been made to procure them—has become a more valuable property in every sense of the word, and a profit has accrued to him owing to the improved conditions under which his work people have been placed.

From Mr. Edward Cadbury, October 7, 1908, was received the following expression in regard to women's trade unions:

From my own point of view as an employer I advocate the formation of trade unions among women for the following reasons: A supply of intelligent workers who are satisfied with their remuneration and with their condition of work is an indispensable requirement of proper and efficient management, and such labor will always compete successfully in every respect with that of the underpaid worker who is dissatisfied and physically inefficient. Wages are the foundation of efficiency, as the feeding, clothing, and housing of the workers must depend upon their adequate remuneration. From my own experience I have found that an eight-hour day is long enough for the average girl; if she works longer hours, she begins to flag and her output tends to fall off. The question of hours, wages, and just treatment should not be left to the arbitrary decision of an employer or manager, no matter how good his intentions may be, and if the workers are to maintain their rights a well-managed organization, composed of a large majority of the employees, is necessary. Trade unionism also tends to a sense of self-respect and esprit de corps among the workers. It promotes a spirit of independence, foresight and fellowship, and its educational effect can not be overestimated. It is only just, too, that the employees should have the most skilled assistance they can command in order to state their case when grievances as to hours, pay, discipline, etc., arise, just as an employer is entitled to be assisted by his staff in the consideration of the matter; otherwise the workers are unfairly handicapped in dealing with an employer who is so assisted. It is often found that unorganized girls act on impulse and stop work without the slightest deliberation, and without recognizing the damage they may do to themselves or their employers, and trade unionism would stop this and do away with the friction caused by petty complaints and ill-considered strikes.

It would be well both for men and women if the men workers would be less selfish and take a deeper and more enlightened interest in the work of women. Experience seems to suggest that when men and women do the same quality of work it would be to the advantage of

both if they could find some common basis of union and action. With the help of the men, with capable organizers, and with an enlightened public opinion more might be done to organize even the unskilled women workers, and the results already attained among the skilled and better class women workers give promise of a great advance in the future. It is doubtful whether organized labor yet fully realizes that one of the weakest links in its chain of organization is the condition of women's labor, and I think it will be admitted that one of its main tasks should be to undertake to raise the standard of life of wage-earners as a whole. It is most probable that the low standard of women's work does ultimately react upon the standard of life of all classes of labor, for it must be remembered that labor as a whole stands or falls together.

This optimistic exposition of the value of women's organizations would seem to hold true—even in the experience of Mr. Cadbury—only in industries where the employment of women is extensive enough to force the attention of the male operatives to the advantage of organizing their coworkers. In Birmingham, where 23 per cent of all the married women and widows are wage-earners and where, instead of the equal log as maintained for man and woman in Lancashire, the level of women's wages is 10s. or 12s. (\$2.43 or \$2.92) per week—about one-third or one-half that of the men's wages—women's trade unionism has failed. And Mr. Cadbury's analysis of the adverse conditions there discloses accurately and succinctly the present limitations to the organization of women employed in small numbers either by themselves or with men, but not doing the same work, and is as follows:

In the original investigation we made in Birmingham with regard to women's work and wages, we endeavored to ascertain to what extent the physical, mental, and moral conditions of the workers were being helped or kept back by the present industrial and social conditions. We had personal interviews with upward of 6,000 working women and 400 trade union secretaries, managers, and foremen of works employing women, and also interviews with employers and correspondence with various agencies, and among the various other questions we made inquiries as to the extent and scope of the organization of women.

We found that the want of independence and foresight and the narrow outlook of women makes organization an almost impossible remedy for the conditions of their work, except in the case of the most skilled workers. Girls look forward to marriage and do not expect to be life workers and therefore they do not consider they would gain any ultimate personal advantage by joining a union, and the want of mobility among them makes unionism to a great extent ineffective. The work of women, generally speaking, is practically unskilled, and in case of dispute the places of organized women could always be filled by large numbers of unemployed.

Attempts have been made in Birmingham to organize the women in many trades, including bedstead, bookbinding, pinafore, tailoring,

leather, and pen trades, but these attempts have failed in some cases partly from want of experience of the organizers, but in all cases more because of the apathy of the workers and the opposition of the masters. Some attempts are being made at the present time to organize the women workers in Birmingham, and an organizer from the Women's Trade Union League is working in the district. She has been successful in forming a small union of chain makers, who work almost entirely in domestic workshops. There is also in Birmingham a union under the name of the Birmingham and District Lady Clerks' Society, which is well organized and offers to its members the usual advantages, but the membership is not large. There is also a local branch of the National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, but the number of organized women shop assistants is exceedingly small. Attempts are being made at Cradley Heath to organize the women in the chain-making trade. A union in this industry was formed in 1886, but the women became apathetic, and only about 200 out of at least 1,000 women were in the union until recently. The men workers in this trade are more or less indifferent to the organization of women, though they themselves belong to an association and their wives and daughters work with them. Employers generally take the conditions and wages of women's work for granted and are usually antagonistic to the formation of trade unions among their workers. Many foremen and forewomen seem to think that unions for women are unnecessary and not worth the trouble. Men workers generally are indifferent or opposed to women's unions, and the work of the latter in most trades is so well marked off from that of the men that the men do not concern themselves as to the conditions and wages of the women's work. The women themselves when asked for their views as to unionism almost invariably said that they did not know anything about it or had not thought of it. Occasionally, when a conflict with the employers is brought about, the workers may be induced to organize while the excitement lasts, but when ordinary conditions again prevail the members fall off in payments to the union, partly because their wages are so low that the few pence per week can not be spared and partly because of their ignorance and lack of forethought, and also because their places can be so readily filled by those outside the unions. (*)

On the other hand, Mr. Cadbury has consistently encouraged trade unionism among the women workers in his factory, and has said that trade unionism for women workers and the ensuing improved conditions were neither magnanimity nor philanthropy on the part of the employer, because "there is 5 per cent in it."

* See *Women's Work and Wages*, by Cadbury, Matheson, and Shann, p. 253 et seq.

But this indorsement does not find echo in the verdict of several employers whose opinions were obtained. One of these spoke impatiently of Mr. Cadbury's theory, and added: "It does not pay to train women, either in trades or organization; they would leave us before we got the same return for our trouble as we get from men."

Another, in whose factory there are unions among both the male and the female operatives, was inclined to decry the efforts being made to organize women. "They are like a lot of sheep," he said. "Women much above them in class organize them and then hand them over to pay their subscriptions into the treasury of the men's unions, and I doubt very much whether they know what they are doing or get very much out of it."

If there is anything in this accusation that unions effected by official organizers outside the trade bring no enlightenment to the average worker, it was answered for the future by a woman trade union leader, who said:

One of the most hopeful signs of the women's trade union movement at the present time is the development of many women leaders from the ranks of the workers themselves—women who, imbued with the justice of the "cause," and realizing the great issues involved, have become enthusiastic missionaries, preaching the gospel of combination to their fellow-workers in the factory, mill, and workshop.

The London Times, in commenting upon a labor demonstration of 1907, says:

But quite as impressive to our thinking is the case which the spokeswomen of the Lancashire textile operatives presented in Trafalgar Square. Some of them could boast that they had served fifteen or twenty years in a cotton mill, and, despite that drudgery, they spoke with a fluency, a firmness of logic, and a skill in the choice of words that showed exactly the same ability to rise above the handicap of conditions which one may note in the speaking men like Mr. Burt or Mr. Hardie.

It would seem, then, as in the cotton textile districts where the woman trade-unionist is an accepted economic factor, the development industrially and mentally of these workers as a class must be largely the test of the women's trade union movement throughout Great Britain. Considering the primary evils of the casual and unsettled nature of all women's work before any effort to steady it and make it more effective was attempted, men trade union leaders admit that the advance of the female trade-unionist gives evidence that the woman worker herself, through persistent combination for the sake of collective bargaining with employer and urgent petitioning to obtain special protective laws, may greatly improve her industrial condition in the near future.

While the women trade union leaders concede that the progress of organizing women workers has been slow, it has been restrained by

the necessary preliminary of attempting to adjust a mere living standard of pay over a large area of female labor.

A successful organizer among women said:

The differences between the whole standard of men's work and women's work and men's and women's wages could not possibly be swept away except by generations of legislation and women trade-unionists. In Lancashire this is so near accomplishment that it has been possible to get much nearer the ideal of women's work, but everywhere else it is customary for a woman to have less pay, and it is the custom because she has acquiesced in it. She has allowed the employer to believe she has no one but herself to support, and that she can live on bread and butter and tea, while a man must eat beefsteak and is presupposed to have a family to support. Those workers of her sex who have auxiliary support and only need to work for a pocket-money wage intensify the evil, and until we get, on the part of women workers, an insistent demand for a "living wage" and decent conditions of work we shall remain as far from the ideal as ever.

Very few of the unions containing a female membership have failed, and while the total number of women unionists constitutes but a small detachment of the industrial army of British women workers there is no doubt that the women's trade union is an economic force that has come into Great Britain to stay.

APPENDIX.

Statistics of women trade-unionists in Great Britain are given in the following tables. The first table shows in summary form a comparison of the total number of women trade-unionists in 1904 and 1908. This table is followed by tables showing in detail the number of women members in the various unions in 1908, classified according to numerical strength and according to trades. The details were secured in response to circular letters sent to the secretaries of the various unions.

STATISTICS OF WOMEN'S AND MIXED TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1904 AND 1908.

[Figures for 1904 are compiled from the Report of the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1905-1907; those for 1908 are from returns secured in response to circular letters sent to the secretaries of the various trade unions.]

	1904.	1908.
Number of women's trade unions.....	28	30
Number of mixed trade unions (men and women).....	120	151
Number of women in women's trade unions.....	9,223	^a 16,949
Number of women in mixed trade unions.....	117,062	^b 191,830
Total number of women trade-unionists.....	126,285	^c 208,779
Number of men in mixed trade unions.....	204,742	^b 329,189
Number of men in men's trade unions.....	1,564,025	(^d)

^a Including figures for 1907 for 15 unions; no later figures available.

^b Including figures for 1907 for 77 unions; no later figures available.

^c Including figures for 1907 for 92 unions; no later figures available.

^d Figures not available.

The above statistics show that the number of women's and of mixed trade unions increased 2 and 31, respectively, in 1908 as compared

with 1904, while the female membership increased from 9,223 to 16,949, or 83.8 per cent, in women's trade unions and from 117,062 to 191,830, or 63.9 per cent, in mixed unions.

The following table gives in detail the number of women members in women's and in mixed trade unions in 1908 according to the numerical strength of the unions:

WOMEN MEMBERS IN WOMEN'S AND IN MIXED TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO NUMERICAL STRENGTH, 1908.

[Figures are from returns secured in response to circular letters sent to the various trade unions.]

Trade union.	Number of women members.
Oldham Provincial Card and Blowing Room and Ring Frame Operatives.....	12,652
Blackburn and District Power Loom Weavers' Association.....	11,900
Burnley and District Weavers, Winders, and Beamers' Association.....	10,705
Bolton Card, Blowing, Ring, and Throstle Room Operatives.....	8,454
Nelson and District Power Loom Weavers.....	5,939
Darwen Weavers, Winders, and Warpers.....	5,890
Bolton and District Power Loom Weavers' Association.....	5,800
Ashton-under-Lyne and District Weavers and Winders.....	5,259
Preston Power Loom Weavers' Association.....	5,250
Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives.....	5,171
Hyde, Hadfield, Compstall, and Broadbottom Weavers, Winders, and Warpers.....	5,082
Oldham Weavers, Reelers, and Winders' Association.....	4,944
Bury, Radcliffe, and District Weavers' Association.....	4,500
Padiham and District Weavers.....	4,022
S. E. Lancs. Provincial Card and Blowing Room Operatives.....	4,000
Leek Women Workers' Union.....	3,800
Accrington and District Power Loom Weavers' Association.....	3,750
Chorley and District Weavers.....	3,740
National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks.....	3,597
Cole and District Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	3,438
Blackburn Power Loom Weavers' Protection Society.....	3,148
Amalgamated Felt Hat Trimmers and Wool Formers.....	3,086
Textile Operatives of Ireland.....	2,900
Rochdale Weavers, Winders, Reelers, and Beamers.....	2,680
Church and Oswaldtwistle Weavers, Winders, and Warpers.....	2,613
Heywood, Castleton, Nordan, and District Weavers, Winders, and Reelers.....	2,600
Great Harwood Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	2,375
National Federation of Women Workers.....	2,300
Dundee and District Jute and Flax Workers.....	2,247
Rochdale Card and Blowing Room Operatives and Ring Spinners.....	2,224
Rossendale Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	1,873
Postal Telegraph Clerks.....	1,861
Hyde and District Card, Blowing, and Ring Frame Room Operatives.....	1,752
National Union of Gasworkers and General Laborers.....	1,652
Todmorden and District Weavers and Winders' Association.....	1,630
General Union of Weavers and Textile Workers.....	1,600
Haslingden Weavers' Association.....	1,560
Stockport and District Weavers, Winders, Warpers, and Reelers.....	1,500
National Boot and Shoe Operatives.....	1,500
Clietheroe Weavers, Winders, and Warpers.....	1,500
Blackburn and District Card and Blowing Room Operatives and Ring Spinners.....	1,489
Stockport Association of Card and Blowing Room, Ring, and Throstle Spinners.....	1,474
Operative Bleachers, Dyers, and Finishers' Association.....	1,429
Clayton-le-Moors Weavers.....	1,396
Wigan and District Card Room Operatives and Ring Spinners' Association.....	1,337
National Amalgamated Printers' Warehousemen and Cutters.....	1,300
Forfar Factory Workers' Union.....	1,256
Ramsbottom Weavers, Winders, and Warpers.....	1,234
Female Cigar Makers.....	1,215
Radcliffe and District Weavers and Winders.....	1,193
Rishton Weavers' Association.....	1,118
Salford and District Power Loom Weavers.....	1,113
Heywood Card Room Operatives, Spinners, and Ring Frame Operatives' Association.....	1,100
Accrington District Card and Blowing Room Operatives and Ring Spinners' Association.....	1,061
Bacup and District Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	1,045
Amalgamated Union of Cooperative Employees.....	1,020
National Association of Telephone Operators.....	1,000
National Amalgamated Society of Male and Female Pottery Workers.....	1,000
Glossop and District Power Loom Weavers.....	960

* Figures for 1907: supplied from Report of the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1905-1907, as there were no later figures available.

WOMEN MEMBERS IN WOMEN'S AND IN MIXED TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO NUMERICAL STRENGTH, 1908—Cont'd.

Trade union.	Number of women members.
Cigar Makers' Mutual Association.....	914
Whitworth Vale Power Loom Weavers.....	871
Variety Artists' Federation.....	871
Preston Card and Blowing Room and Ring Spinners.....	800
Chain Makers and Strikers' Association (Cradley Heath).....	800
Leicester and Leicestershire Amalgamated Hosiery Union.....	784
Brechin Mill and Factory Operatives.....	774
Bury and District Card, Blowing, and Ring Room Operatives' Association.....	768
Arbroath Mill and Factory Workers.....	720
Irish Drapers' Assistants.....	700
Hammered Chain Makers.....	657
Mossley Card and Blowing Room Operatives.....	601
Flax Roughers and Yarn Spinners (Ireland).....	600
Barnoldswick and District Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	600
Skipton and District Weavers' Association.....	589
Bamber Bridge Weavers' Association.....	540
Manchester and Salford Patent Cop Winders, Bobbin and Hank Winders.....	538
Amalgamated Union of Clothiers' Operatives.....	509
Amalgamated Braid Workers and Kindred Trades.....	480
Women Sorters.....	478
Wigan and District Weavers, Winders, Warpers, and Reelers.....	451
Lurgan Hemmers and Velvets.....	450
United Kingdom Postal Clerks.....	445
Longridge Weavers, Winders, and Warpers.....	413
Ilkeston and District Hosiery Union.....	410
Amalgamated Tailors and Tailoresses.....	383
Royal Army Clothing Department Employees.....	383
Manchester and Salford Ring Spinners.....	380
British Steel Smelters, Mill, Iron, and Tinplate Workers.....	360
Women employed in bookbinding and printing (Manchester).....	350
Municipal Employees.....	342
Macclesfield Power Loom Silk Weavers.....	336
Hinckley Federated Hosiery Union.....	320
West of Scotland Weaving Factories Female Workers.....	300
Actors.....	290
Amalgamated Shirt and Jacket Makers.....	290
Burnley and District Textile Operatives.....	276
Hawick Hosiery Union.....	251
Manchester Cigarette Makers, Cutters, and Packers.....	250
Macclesfield Cotton Weavers, Winders, and Warpers.....	250
Women in Bookbinding (London).....	220
National Society of Dyers and Finishers (Huddersfield).....	212
National Paper Mill Workers.....	200
Manchester and Salford Sewing Machinists.....	200
Female Lace Workers (Nottingham).....	200
Saddleworth Weavers and Woolen Textile Workers.....	193
Rossendale Boot, Shoe, and Slipper Operatives.....	163
National League of the Blind (brush makers, basket makers, etc.).....	163
Denton Silk Hat Trimmers and Stitchers.....	142
Yorkshire Provincial Card, Blowing, and Ring Room Operatives.....	141
Shorthand Writers and Typists.....	137
Hadfield and District Card and Blowing Room Operatives' Association.....	131
Aberdeen Mill and Factory Workers.....	130
Ulster Weavers and Winders.....	125
National Midwives.....	121
Manchester Machine, Electric, and Other Women Workers.....	120
Macclesfield District Card and Blowing Room and Ring Spinners' Association.....	115
Sabden Weavers' Association.....	108
Yeadon, Guiseley, and District Factory Workers.....	105
Liverpool Upholsteresses' Union.....	104
British Labor Amalgamation.....	103
Irish Post-Office Clerks.....	103
Bradford and District Machine Woolcombers' Association.....	100
Alva Textile Workers.....	100
Women Fancy Leather Workers.....	100
Clay Pipe Finishers of Manchester and Newcastle.....	86
Glossop District Card and Blowing Room Operatives.....	86
London Tailors and Tailoresses.....	76
Female Hosiery Workers (Nottingham).....	68
Ashton-under-Lyne Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	64
Protective Society of Women (Oxford).....	61
Bolton Cotton Doublers, Reelers, and Winders.....	60
Hyde and District Twisters and Drawers.....	58
Waterproof Garment Makers and Machinists (Manchester).....	56
Women India Rubber Workers (Manchester).....	50

* Figures for 1907; supplied from Report of the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1905-1907, as there were no later figures available.

WOMEN MEMBERS IN WOMEN'S AND IN MIXED TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO NUMERICAL STRENGTH, 1908—Conc'd.

Trade union.	Number of women members.
Firewood Cutters.....	a 50
Scottish Bleachfield Workers.....	a 50
Congleton Weavers and Winders.....	a 47
Cigar Box Makers and Paperers (London).....	45
United Cap Makers (London).....	42
National Association of Grocers' Assistants.....	39
Stockport Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	a 39
Wigan and District Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	a 38
Tin and Sheet Mill Men.....	a 38
Preston Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	36
United Ovenmen, Kilnmen, and Saggarmakers.....	a 30
Royal Liver Agents and Employees.....	a 30
Hadfield and Glossop Twisters and Drawers.....	a 28
Postmen's Federation.....	a 25
National Union of Clerks.....	a 25
Manchester Upholsteresses.....	25
Tobacco Pipe Finishers (Glasgow).....	a 24
Macclesfield Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	a 22
Bolton Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	21
Hand File Cutters (Sheffield).....	20
National Operative Printers' Assistants.....	a 20
Bacup and District Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	a 13
General Amalgamation of Clothlookers and Warehousemen.....	a 12
Artistes.....	a 12
Bacup Card, Blowing, and Ring Spinners.....	a 12
Women Confectioners (Manchester).....	a 10
Scottish Operative Tailors and Tailoresses.....	10
National Life Assurance Agents.....	a 9
Rawtenstall and District Twisters and Drawers.....	a 8
Birmingham International Tailors, Machinists, and Pressers.....	a 6
United Cigarette Makers, Cutters, Packers, and Strippers' Union.....	a 6
Heywood Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	5
Chorley and District Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	3
Skipton Twisters and Drawers.....	a 3
Eastern Counties Agricultural Laborers and Small Holders.....	a 3
Leigh and Bedford Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	a 2
Nelson and District Twisters and Drawers.....	a 2
City of Glasgow Friendly Society Agents.....	a 2
Rushton Twisters and Drawers' Association.....	a 2
Great Harwood Twisters and Drawers.....	a 2
Oldham Beamers, Twisters, Drawers, Dressers, and Slashers.....	a 2
Burnley and District Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	1
Clitheroe and District Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	1
Darwen Twisters and Drawers.....	a 1
Bamber Bridge Beamers, Twisters, and Drawers.....	a 1
London Tailors and Mantle Makers.....	a 1
National Journalists.....	a 1
Total.....	b 208,779

a Figures for 1907; supplied from Report of the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1905-1907, as there were no later figures available.

b Including figures for 1907 for 92 unions; no later figures available.

The following table gives in detail the number of women members in women's and in mixed unions in 1908 and the number of men in the mixed unions according to trades:

MEMBERSHIP OF WOMEN'S AND OF MIXED TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN, CLASSIFIED BY TRADES, 1908.

[Figures are from returns secured in response to circular letters sent to the secretaries of the various trade unions.]

Unions in each trade.	Number of members.	
	Men.	Women.
METAL TRADES.		
Iron and steel manufacture:		
British Steel Smelters, Mill, Iron, and Tinplate Workers	15,140	360
File makers:		
Hand File Cutters (Sheffield)	140	20
Chain and nail makers:		
Chain Makers and Strikers' Association (Cradley Heath)	1,900	800
Hammered Chain Makers	a 23	a 657
Tin-plate making:		
Tin and Sheet Mill Men	a 1,838	a 38
COTTON PREPARING AND SPINNING.		
Card and blowing room operatives:		
Bolton Card, Blowing, Ring, and Throstle Room Operatives	1,269	8,454
Stockport Association of Card and Blowing Room, Ring, and Throstle Spinners	a 226	a 1,474
Hadfield Card and Blowing Room Operatives' Association	a 33	a 131
Hyde and District Card, Blowing, and Ring Frame Room Operatives	a 376	a 1,752
Heywood Card Room Operatives, Spinners, and Ring Frame Operatives' Association	300	1,100
Mossley Card and Blowing Room Operatives	a 142	a 601
Bury and District Card, Blowing, and Ring Room Operatives' Association	472	768
Blackburn and District Card and Blowing Room Operatives and Ring Spinners	373	1,489
Macclesfield District Card and Blowing Room and Ring Spinners' Association	88	115
Oldham Provincial Card and Blowing Room and Ring Frame Operatives	2,175	12,652
Accrington District Card and Blowing Room Operatives and Ring Spinners' Association	a 354	a 1,061
Glossop District Card and Blowing Room Operatives	50	86
Rochdale Card and Blowing Room Operatives and Ring Spinners	a 676	a 2,224
S. E. Lancs. Provincial Card and Blowing Room Operatives	a 1,333	a 4,000
Wigan and District Card Room Operatives and Ring Spinners' Association	a 310	a 1,337
Bacup Card, Blowing, and Ring Spinners	a 70	a 12
Preston Card and Blowing Room and Ring Spinners	a 200	a 800
Yorkshire Provincial Card, Blowing, and Ring Room Operatives	a 50	a 141
Manchester and Salford Ring Spinners		a 380
COTTON WEAVING.		
Beamers, twistlers, and drawers:		
Ashton-under-Lyne Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	a 146	a 64
Great Harwood Twistlers and Drawers	a 107	a 2
Preston Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	400	36
Oldham Beamers, Twistlers, Drawers, Dressers, and Slashers	a 107	a 2
Burnley and District Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	480	1
Bamber Bridge Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	a 65	a 1
Heywood Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	96	5
Leigh and Bedford Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	a 65	a 2
Rawtenstall and District Twistlers and Drawers	a 52	a 8
Wigan and District Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	a 22	a 38
Bolton Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	241	21
Chorley and District Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	167	3
Clitheroe and District Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	70	1
Darwen Twistlers and Drawers	a 251	a 1
Nelson and District Twistlers and Drawers	a 338	a 2
Rishton Twistlers and Drawers' Association	a 38	a 2
Macclesfield Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	a 8	a 22
Hadfield and Glossop Twistlers and Drawers	a 28	a 28
Bacup and District Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	a 72	a 13
Hyde and District Twistlers and Drawers	a 14	a 58
Skipton Twistlers and Drawers	a 41	a 3
Stockport Beamers, Twistlers, and Drawers	a 22	a 39
Weavers:		
Padiham and District Weavers	a 1,988	a 4,022
Radcliffe and District Weavers and Winders	a 133	a 1,193

* Figures for 1907; supplied from Report of the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1905-1907, as there were no later figures available.

MEMBERSHIP OF WOMEN'S AND OF MIXED TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN,
CLASSIFIED BY TRADES, 1908—Continued.

Unions in each trade.	Number of mem- bers.	
	Men.	Women.
COTTON WEAVING—concluded.		
Weavers—Concluded.		
Blackburn and District Power Loom Weavers' Association.....	5,100	11,900
Chorley and District Weavers.....	α 880	α 3,740
Accrington and District Power Loom Weavers' Association.....	1,250	3,750
Darwen Weavers, Winders, and Warpors.....	2,770	5,890
Ramsbottom Weavers, Winders, and Warpors.....	824	1,234
Preston Power Loom Weavers' Association.....	1,750	5,250
Church and Oswaldtwistle Weavers, Winders, and Warpors.....	703	2,613
Great Harwood Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	α 2,375	α 2,375
Oldham Weavers, Reelers, and Winders' Association.....	134	4,944
Clayton-le-Moors Weavers.....	381	1,396
Haslingden Weavers' Association.....	α 840	α 1,560
Bolton and District Power Loom Weavers' Association.....	520	5,900
Burnley and District Weavers, Winders, and Beamers' Association.....	7,438	10,705
Nelson and District Power Loom Weavers.....	5,553	5,939
Clitheroe Weavers, Winders, and Warpors.....	1,000	1,500
Glossop and District Power Loom Weavers.....	350	960
Rossendale Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	937	1,873
Ashton-under-Lyne and District Weavers and Winders.....	α 60	α 5,259
Heywood, Castleton, Norden, and District Weavers, Winders, and Reelers.....	800	2,600
Rishton Weavers' Association.....	672	1,118
Longridge Weavers, Winders, and Warpors.....	212	413
Rochdale Weavers, Winders, Reelers, and Beamers.....	670	2,680
Todmorden and District Weavers and Winders' Association.....	1,756	1,630
Hyde, Hadfield, Compstall, and Broadbottom Weavers, Winders, and Warpors.....	1,250	5,082
Cole and District Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	α 2,820	α 3,438
Bury, Radcliffe, and District Weavers' Association.....	500	4,500
Sabden Weavers' Association.....	40	106
Whitworth Vale Power Loom Weavers.....	α 279	α 871
Blackburn Power Loom Weavers' Protection Society.....	1,221	3,148
Bacup and District Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	α 844	α 1,045
Wigan and District Weavers, Winders, Warpors, and Reelers.....	α 3	α 451
Macclesfield Cotton Weavers, Winders, and Warpors.....	339	250
Bamber Bridge Weavers' Association.....	420	540
Bolton Cotton Doublers, Reelers, and Winders.....	60
Burnley and District Textile Operatives.....	α 227	α 276
Salford and District Power Loom Weavers.....	1,113
Skipton and District Weavers' Association.....	300	589
Congleton Weavers and Winders.....	α 5	α 47
Manchester and Salford Patent Cop Winders, Bobbin and Hank Winders.....	536
Barnoldswick and District Weavers, Winders, and Beamers.....	400	600
Stockport and District Weavers, Winders, Warpors, and Reelers.....	50	1,500
West of Scotland Weaving Factories Female Workers.....	α 300
WOOLEN AND WORSTED TRADES.		
Weaving, finishing, etc.:		
Bradford and District Machine Woolcombers Association.....	650	100
General Union of Weavers and Textile Workers.....	2,500	1,600
Yeadon, Guiseley, and District Factory Workers.....	232	105
Saddleworth Weavers and Woolen Textile Workers.....	171	193
Alva Textile Workers.....	100
VARIOUS TEXTILE TRADES.		
Linen and Jute manufacture:		
Aberdeen Mill and Factory Workers.....	α 20	α 130
Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives.....	α 1,089	α 5,171
Forfar Factory Workers' Union.....	629	1,256
Brechin Mill and Factory Operatives.....	365	774
Flax Roughers and Yarn Spinners (Ireland).....	α 1,197	α 600
Textile Operatives of Ireland.....	150	2,900
Lurgan Hemmers and Veiners.....	450
Dundee and District Jute and Flax Workers.....	α 1,993	α 2,247
Ulster Weavers and Winders.....	α 325	α 125
Arbroath Mill and Factory Workers.....	α 330	α 720
Hosiery manufacture:		
Leicester and Leicestershire Amalgamated Hosiery Union.....	α 497	α 784
Ilkeston and District Hosiery Union.....	α 506	α 410
Hawick Hosiery Union.....	α 154	α 251
Female Hosiery Workers (Nottingham).....	68
Hinckley Federated Hosiery Union.....	190	320
Lace manufacture:		
Female Lace Workers (Nottingham).....	α 200

* Figures for 1907; supplied from Report of the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1905-1907, as there were no later figures available.

MEMBERSHIP OF WOMEN'S AND OF MIXED TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN,
CLASSIFIED BY TRADES, 1908—Continued.

Unions in each trade.	Number of members.	
	Men.	Women.
VARIOUS TEXTILE TRADES—concluded.		
Silk manufacture:		
Amalgamated Braid Workers and Kindred Trades (Leek).....	a 150	a 480
Leek Women Workers Union.....		3,800
Macclesfield Power Loom Silk Weavers.....	167	336
Textile printing, bleaching, dyeing, and finishing:		
National Society of Dyers and Finishers (Huddersfield).....	2,857	212
Operative Bleachers, Dyers, and Finishers' Association.....	9,734	1,429
Scottish Bleachfield Workers.....	a 190	a 50
Packers, warehousemen, etc.:		
General Amalgamation of Clothlookers and Warehousemen.....	a 2,255	a 12
CLOTHING TRADES.		
Boot and shoe manufacture:		
National Boot and Shoe Operatives.....	29,564	1,500
Rossendale Boot, Shoe, and Slipper Operatives.....	a 737	a 163
Tailoring:		
Amalgamated Tailors and Tailoresses.....	a 13,459	a 383
Scottish Operative Tailors and Tailoresses.....	3,661	10
Amalgamated Union of Clothiers' Operatives.....	2,025	509
Birmingham International Tailors, Machinists, and Pressers.....	a 124	a 6
Manchester and Salford Sewing Machinists.....		200
London Tailors and Tailoresses.....	a 872	a 78
London Tailors and Mantle Makers.....	a 45	a 1
Hat and cap manufacture:		
Amalgamated Felt Hat Trimmers and Wool Formers.....		a 3,086
United Cap Makers (London).....	260	42
Denton Silk Hat Trimmers and Stitchers.....		142
Miscellaneous clothing trades:		
Protective Society of Women (Oxford).....		a 61
Amalgamated Shirt and Jacket Makers.....	140	290
Waterproof Garment Makers and Machinists (Manchester).....	a 326	a 56
PRINTING TRADES.		
Letterpress printing:		
National Operative Printers' Assistants.....	a 3,200	a 20
National Amalgamated Printers' Warehousemen and Cutters.....	3,100	1,300
Bookbinding and machine ruling:		
Women Employed in Bookbinding (London).....		a 220
Women in Bookbinding and Printing (Manchester).....		350
Paper and vellum making, paper staining, etc.:		
National Paper Mill Workers.....	800	200
VARIOUS OTHER TRADES AND OCCUPATIONS.		
Upholstering:		
Liverpool Upholsteresses' Union.....		104
Manchester Upholsteresses.....		25
Pottery workers:		
United Ovenmen, Kilnmen, and Saggarmakers.....	a 500	a 30
National Amalgamated Society of Male and Female Pottery Workers.....	7,000	1,000
Tobacco-pipe making:		
Tobacco Pipe Finishers (Glasgow).....		a 24
Clay Pipe Finishers of Manchester and Newcastle.....		a 86
Tobacco trades (exclusive of pipes):		
Cigar Makers' Mutual Association.....	918	914
Female Cigar Makers.....		a 1,215
Cigar Box Makers and Paperers (London).....	52	45
United Cigarette Makers, Cutters, Packers, and Strippers' Union.....	a 75	a 6
Manchester Cigarette Makers, Cutters, and Packers.....		a 250
Brush making:		
National League of the Blind (brush makers, basket makers, etc.).....	a 831	a 163
Agricultural laborers:		
Eastern Counties Agricultural Laborers and Small Holders.....	a 3,624	a 3
Bakers and confectioners:		
Women Confectioners (Manchester).....		a 10
Leather trades:		
Women Fancy Leather Workers (Manchester).....		a 100
India rubber workers:		
Women India Rubber Workers (Manchester).....		a 50
Agents (life assurance, etc.):		
Royal Liver Agents and Employees.....	a 1,970	a 30
National Life Assurance Agents.....	a 2,780	a 9
City of Glasgow Friendly Society Agents.....	a 52	a 2
Clerks and typists:		
National Union of Clerks.....	a 725	a 25
Shorthand Writers and Typists.....	a 5	a 137

* Figures for 1907; supplied from Report of the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1905-1907, as there were no later figures available.

MEMBERSHIP OF WOMEN'S AND OF MIXED TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN,
CLASSIFIED BY TRADES, 1908—Concluded.

Unions in each trade.	Number of mem- bers.	
	Men.	Women.
VARIOUS OTHER TRADES AND OCCUPATIONS—concluded.		
Journalists:		
National Journalists.....	a 737	a 1
Telephone operators:		
National Association of Telephone Operators.....		1, 000
Shop assistants:		
Amalgamated Union of Cooperative Employees.....	23, 404	1, 020
National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Warehousemen, and Clerks.....	16, 621	3, 597
National Association of Grocers' Assistants.....	1, 505	39
Irish Drapers' Assistants.....	2, 500	700
Musicians, theatrical and music hall employees:		
Variety Artists' Federation.....	a 2, 539	a 871
Artistes.....	a 40	a 12
Actors.....	a 290	a 290
Firewood cutters:		
Firewood Cutters.....	a 60	a 50
Midwives:		
National Midwives.....		a 121
General labor:		
National Union of Gasworkers and General Laborers.....	38, 153	1, 652
Manchester Machine, Electric, and Other Women Workers.....		120
British Labor Amalgamation.....	2, 401	103
National Federation of Women Workers.....		a 2, 300
NATIONAL EMPLOYEES.		
Post-office employees:		
Postal Telegraph Clerks.....	6, 722	1, 861
United Kingdom Postal Clerks.....	5, 647	445
Postmen's Federation.....	a 34, 230	a 25
Irish Post-Office Clerks.....	1, 234	103
Women Sorters.....		478
Other national employees:		
Royal Army Clothing Department Employees.....	a 298	a 383
Employees of local authorities:		
Municipal Employees.....	a 11, 500	a 342
Total.....	b 329, 189	c 208, 779

* Figures for 1907; supplied from Report of the Labor Department of the Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1905-1907, as there were no later figures available.

° Including figures for 1907 for 77 unions; no later figures available.

° Including figures for 1907 for 92 unions; no later figures available.

COST OF LIVING OF THE WORKING CLASSES IN THE PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIAL TOWNS OF FRANCE.

SCOPE OF THE INVESTIGATION.

Under the above title is presented the results of an investigation undertaken by the British Board of Trade in the 30 principal industrial towns of France in order to obtain, in regard to the condition of the working classes therein, information comparable to that given for the principal industrial towns of the United Kingdom and of Germany in the two reports previously published on the "Cost of Living of the Working Classes."^a The investigation has reference primarily to the rents of working-class dwellings, to the prices usually paid by the working classes for food and fuel, and to wages and hours of labor. It was conducted as far as practicable on lines identical with the inquiries for the towns of the United Kingdom and of Germany, and the statistical material collected relates in the main to the same date (October, 1905), though some additional data for a few towns were secured for a later date (August–October, 1907).

In order to arrive at some estimate of the standard of living prevalent among the French industrial classes over 5,600 budgets, showing the expenditure for food by working-class families in a normal week, and representative of numerous occupations and of all grades of working-class incomes, were obtained from the various towns investigated. These towns contain an aggregate of over 6,000,000 inhabitants.

Any exact statistical comparison of cost of living in France with cost of living in England is not a simple matter. Even when all the difficulties of maintaining the same standard of investigation throughout have been successfully overcome there remains a difficulty arising from the difference in national tastes and modes of life. This is well illustrated by the statements that—

An English workman, with an average family, who should go to France and endeavor to maintain there his accustomed mode of living would find his expenditure on rent, food, and fuel substantially increased—though not to so large an extent as if he had gone to Germany.

^a See Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor, No. 77, July, 1908, pp. 336 to 354, and Bulletin No. 78, September, 1908, pp. 523 to 548.

He would find his wages to be lower than in the latter country and much below the English level, in spite of longer hours.

A French workman living in England according to his French standard would find a certain reduction in the cost of food, but a rise in the cost of housing accommodation.

As a basis of comparison for the French towns among themselves the levels of rents, prices, and wages in Paris have been taken as standards and index numbers calculated for each of these items in every town, so as to afford an indication of the relative levels of the towns. The index numbers for rents and prices in each town have also been combined in a single index number, in order to determine the relative level for each town of the cost of living of the working classes, so far as it consists of expenditure for housing and food, and for this purpose, because the expenditure for food is much greater than that for rent, prices have been given a weight of 5 and rents a weight of 1 in the construction of the combined index number. The comparison of the rates of wages has been confined mainly to occupations in certain standard industries, as the building trades, engineering (mechanical), and printing, which are found to a greater or less extent in all the towns. The general result of the comparison is that for skilled men in the building trades the weekly wages of the French workman appear to average about 68 per cent of those of the English artisan, and for skilled men in the engineering trades the French wages average 81 per cent of the English.

According to the report for the United Kingdom the prevailing type of dwelling occupied by the working classes in England and Wales, and to a less degree in Ireland, is a self-contained two-story dwelling, possessing generally four or five rooms and a kitchen. In the French towns there are two prevalent types of working-class housing accommodations. The first, which predominates in about one-half of the towns, is a flat of two or three rooms in a tenement house. The second type, found in about one-third of the towns, is a small house or cottage, standing generally in rows, but often detached, and consisting of one or two stories and of one to four rooms. English rents of working-class dwellings usually include local taxation, which is based on the rentable value of the dwellings. French local taxation is levied on an entirely different basis, and is not included in rent.

RENTS OF WORKING-CLASS DWELLINGS.

FRANCE.

In order to ascertain the rents paid for the kind of dwellings usually occupied by the French working classes, information was obtained from the municipal authorities, from individual house

owners, and from a large number of tenants. In each town several houses were visited by the investigators, partly for the purpose of verifying the information obtained as to rents and partly that some account might be given in each case of the general character and standard of housing accommodation.

From rent quotations obtained for about 60,000 working-class tenements the following table has been constructed to show the predominant range of weekly rents for tenements of various sizes in Paris and in other French towns. The rents do not include any elements of local taxation or as a rule any charge for water:

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF WEEKLY RENTS IN PARIS AND IN OTHER FRENCH TOWNS COMPARED.

Locality.	Predominant range of weekly rents for—		
	Two rooms.	Three rooms.	Four rooms.
Paris.....	\$0.75-\$1.50	\$1.12-\$1.80	\$1.50-\$1.86
Other French towns.....	.57- .69	.71- 1.01	.85- 1.05

The above table reveals the extent to which rents in the metropolis exceed those which prevail in other French towns. Thus, while the predominant range of rents for two rooms in Paris is \$0.75 to \$1.50 per week, in the other towns as a whole it is only 57 to 69 cents; for three rooms the respective rents are \$1.12 to \$1.80 for Paris and \$0.71 to \$1.01 for the other towns, and for four rooms \$1.50 to \$1.86 for Paris and only \$0.85 to \$1.05 for other localities.

The following table shows the predominant range of weekly rents in towns of France, together with the number of towns for which tenements of each size are reported and in which the mean rent is within the limits of the predominant range, below those limits, and above those limits. It will be seen that the two and three room tenements are of importance in more than two-thirds of the towns.

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF WEEKLY RENTS IN TOWNS OF FRANCE.

[According to the detailed table on p. 69, Paris is apparently included in the number of towns shown in this table, but the predominant ranges of weekly rents are the same as those shown in the preceding table for "other French towns." The figures are given as shown in the original report.]

Number of rooms per tenement.	Number of towns to which figures relate.	Predominant range of weekly rents.	Number of towns in which the mean rent is—		
			Within the limits of the predominant range.	Below the limits of the predominant range.	Above the limits of the predominant range.
One room.....	17	\$0.32-\$0.47	12	2	3
Two rooms.....	26	.57- .69	14	5	7
Three rooms.....	23	.71- 1.01	14	4	5
Four rooms.....	12	.85- 1.05	7	2	3

In the table following is shown the predominant range of weekly rents for tenements of one, two, three, or four rooms in each of the 30 towns investigated:

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF WEEKLY RENTS IN 30 SPECIFIED TOWNS OF FRANCE.

Town.	Predominant range of weekly rents for—			
	One room.	Two rooms.	Three rooms.	Four rooms.
Amiens.....		\$0.40-\$0.77	\$0.73-\$0.87	\$0.89-\$0.97
Belfort.....			.81- 1.26	
Bordeaux.....	\$0.45-\$0.55	.67- .89	.89- 1.12	1.12- 1.34
Bourges.....		.49- .57	.57- .63	
Brest.....	.34- .45	.49- .67		
Calais.....		.45- .77	.67- .89	.99- 1.18
Le Creuzot.....		.45- .61	.67- .75	
Douai.....	.37- .45	.55- .67	.63- .81	.81- .89
Fougères.....	.30- .45	.49- .67		
Grenoble.....	.37- .55	.63- .81	.77- 1.26	
Havre.....		.67- .89	.89- 1.12	
Lens.....				.81- .89
Lille.....	.26- .45	.45- .71	.59- .77	.89- 1.12
Limoges.....	.30- .45	.49- .75		
Lyon.....	.37- .67	.67- 1.12	.89- 1.34	
Marseille.....	.45- .59	.59- .75	.75- 1.12	.89- 1.12
Nancy.....		.67- .99	.89- 1.26	
Nantes.....	.34- .45	.59- .71	.91- 1.03	
Paris.....		.75- 1.50	1.12- 1.80	1.50- 1.86
Rheims.....	.26- .37	.55- .71	.67- .89	
Rennes.....	.37	.57- .79		
Roanne.....	.18- .26	.34- .53	.53- .67	
Roubaix.....				.55- .71
Rouen.....	.34- .45	.67- .83	.97- 1.12	
St. Etienne.....	.30- .37	.45- .75	.67- .93	
St. Nazaire.....	.22- .45	.55- .67	.75- .93	
St. Quentin.....		.49- .71	.63- .81	.81- .89
Toulouse.....		.41- .53	.53- .79	.71- .93
Troyes.....	.37- .45	.45- .67	.67- .89	
Valenciennes.....				.99- 1.12

In the following table index numbers are given showing the relative rent level in each of the towns canvassed as compared with Paris. The means of the predominant rents for each class of tenements, as shown in the table on page 68, were taken as a base and the ratios of the mean predominant rents for the corresponding classes in the various towns as compared with this base were calculated. The average of the ratios for the various types of houses in each town gave an index number for the town as compared with the level for the French towns as a whole. The index number for Paris, computed in the same way, was then taken as the base (or 100) and the index number for the other towns adjusted accordingly.

RELATIVE RENT LEVEL OF SPECIFIED FRENCH TOWNS AS COMPARED WITH PARIS.

Town.	Index number.	Town.	Index number.	Town.	Index number.
Paris.....	100	Nantes.....	60	Lille.....	52
Lyon.....	77	Calais.....	57	St. Etienne.....	52
Nancy.....	73	Rennes.....	57	Rheims.....	51
Bordeaux.....	71	Amiens.....	55	Lens.....	51
Havre.....	69	Limoges.....	55	St. Quentin.....	51
Belfort.....	69	Brest.....	55	Le Creuzot.....	48
Grenoble.....	66	Troyes.....	54	Toulouse.....	45
Rouen.....	65	Fougères.....	53	Bourges.....	44
Marseille.....	64	Douai.....	53	Roubaix.....	38
Valenciennes.....	63	St. Nazaire.....	53	Roanne.....	37

FRANCE AND GREAT BRITAIN COMPARED.

A comparison of the predominant range of weekly rents in England and Wales with the predominant range in France for tenements of two, three, and four rooms is presented in the table following:

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF WEEKLY RENTS IN ENGLAND AND WALES AND IN FRANCE COMPARED.

Number of rooms per tenement.	Predominant range of weekly rents in—		Ratio of mean predominant rent in France to that in England and Wales, taken as 100.
	England and Wales, excluding London.	France. ^(a)	
Two rooms.....	\$0.73-\$0.85	\$0.57-\$0.69	79
Three rooms.....	.91- 1.10	.71- 1.01	86
Four rooms.....	1.10- 1.34	.85- 1.05	78

^a Apparently excluding Paris; see prefatory note to table on p. 68.

From the above table it will be seen that the rents paid by the French tenant are only from 78 to 86 per cent of the corresponding rents in England and Wales. If the mean of the index numbers in the last column might be taken as representing roughly the rent level in France as compared with that in England, we should find the French rent level to be in the ratio of 81 to 100. A comparison on these lines is, however, liable to be somewhat misleading, for the reason that rents of two, three, and four room tenements were not obtained from all the towns investigated in each case. It is necessary, therefore, to adopt some more exact method of comparison less open to possible bias. This has been done by reworking all the rent index numbers for the French towns to the basis used for Great Britain, viz, comparing the mean predominant rents of the types of tenements shown for each town in France with the mean predominant rents shown for tenements of the same size in the middle zone of London, and using as the index number in each case the average of the percentages so obtained. The resulting index numbers for the towns investigated, shown in the table below, are accordingly directly comparable with the index numbers for the English towns shown in the report for the United Kingdom and with those shown for the German towns in the report for the German Empire.

RELATIVE RENT LEVEL OF SPECIFIED FRENCH TOWNS AS COMPARED WITH THE MIDDLE ZONE OF LONDON AS THE BASE.

[Index number for middle zone of London = 100.]

Town.	Index number.	Town.	Index number.	Town.	Index number.
Paris.....	78	Nantes.....	47	Fougères.....	40
Lyon.....	60	Calais.....	45	Lille.....	40
Nancy.....	58	Amiens.....	43	Rheims.....	40
Belfort.....	57	Rennes.....	43	St. Quentin.....	40
Bordeaux.....	55	Limoges.....	42	Lens.....	39
Havre.....	54	St. Nazaire.....	42	Le Creuzot.....	38
Grenoble.....	52	Troyes.....	42	Toulouse.....	35
Rouen.....	51	Brest.....	41	Bourges.....	34
Marseille.....	50	Douai.....	41	Roanne.....	29
Valenciennes.....	48	St. Etienne.....	41	Roubaix.....	29

The lowness of the French rents is indicated by the fact that, while the rents in half the English towns investigated lie within a central range of 50 to 59 per cent of London rents, only 2 of the French towns investigated show index numbers higher than 59, and 21 show numbers lower than 50.

The ratio of the arithmetic mean of the index numbers for France to that for England is 80 to 100; and this ratio, or the index number 80, is taken as representing approximately the rent level in France as compared with the rent level in England. The corresponding index number for the German Empire was 101, so that the French rents are lower than the German, as well as the English.

It is estimated that approximately 18 per cent of the rent paid by the British workman goes for local taxation. This makes the French rents bear to English rents the ratio of 80 to 82, which is equivalent to 98 to 100.

RETAIL PRICES.

FRANCE.

Information as to the prices commonly paid by the French working classes for food commodities, for fuel, and for paraffin oil, was obtained from a large number of shopkeepers in each of the towns investigated and also from the cooperative societies where these existed. It must be remembered that the prices shown are not necessarily the minimum prices at which the commodities could be obtained, but simply the prices which the working classes did in fact usually pay in the month of October, 1905; and where a range of prices is given it is because they appear to be of equal popularity. The differences between one town and another, accordingly, represent often not so much difference in the cost of identical commodities as variations in local tastes, and sometimes in local standards of comfort.

The following table presents the predominant range of retail prices commonly paid by the working classes for certain commodities, for France as a whole (including Paris):

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF RETAIL PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN TOWNS OF FRANCE (INCLUDING PARIS), OCTOBER, 1905.

Commodity.	Unit.	Number of towns included.	Predominant range of retail prices, October, 1905.	Number of towns in which the mean predominant price is—		
				Within the limits of the predominant range.	Below the limits of the predominant range.	Above the limits of the predominant range.
Coffee.....	1 pound..	30	\$0.35-\$0.42	21	4	5
Sugar, loaf.....	do.	30	.05-.06	23	4	3
Eggs.....	1 dozen..	30	.22-.26	21	5	4
Butter.....	1 pound..	30	.22-.28	22	4	4
Potatoes.....	7 pounds..	30	.06	16	6	8
Flour, wheat.....	do.	30	.25-.31	25	2	3
Bread, white.....	4 pounds..	30	.11-.12	19	5	6
Milk.....	1 quart..	30	.04-.05	24	1	5
Beef.....	1 pound..	30	.13-.16	25	3	2
Mutton.....	do.	30	.14-.20	26	2	2
Veal.....	do.	30	.16-.22	22	5	3
Pork.....	do.	30	.15-.22	24	3	3
Coal.....	1 cwt.....	29	.33-.40	14	7	8
Paraffin oil.....	1 gallon..	30	.26-.31	24	6

In the following table is shown the predominant range of retail prices of the principal commodities in 12 towns of France, selected as to certain geographical districts:

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF RETAIL PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 12 SELECTED TOWNS OF FRANCE, OCTOBER, 1905.

Commodity.	Unit.	Amiens.	Bordeaux.	Brest.	Calais.
Coffee.....	1 pound..	\$0.35	\$0.32-\$0.42	\$0.39-\$0.42	\$0.35-\$0.42
Sugar, loaf.....	do.	\$0.05-.05	.05-.06	.05-.06	.06
Eggs.....	1 dozen..	.22-.24	.24-.36	.24-.29	.22-.24
Butter.....	1 pound..	.25-.26	.28-.32	.22	.32
Potatoes.....	7 pounds..	.06-.07	.06	.06	.06-.10
Flour, wheat.....	do.	.25	.31	.19-.25	.25-.31
Bread, white.....	4 pounds..	.12-.14	.10-.12	.08-.11	.12-.14
Milk.....	1 quart..	.04	.05-.06	.03-.05	.05-.06
Coal.....	1 cwt.....	.35-.39	.31-.31	.36-.37	.39-.42
Paraffin oil.....	1 gallon..	.22-.31	.26-.31	.26-.35	.26-.31
Beef:					
Ribs.....	1 pound..	.15	.15-.17	.15-.16	.17-.21
Brisket.....	do.	.10	.08	.09	.10-.14
Silverside.....	do.	.15	.16-.21	.13-.15	.17-.21
Shin, with bone.....	do.	.12	.10	.10	.10-.12
Steak.....	do.	.25	.21	.21-.22	.25
Rump steak.....	do.	.25	.21	.23	.25
Thick flank.....	do.	.15	.17-.20	.17
Mutton:					
Leg.....	do.	.23	.19-.21	.21-.23	.25-.26
Shoulder.....	do.	.19	.10-.14	.17-.19	.21-.23
Breast.....	do.	.15	.12-.14	.16-.19	.17-.19
Neck, best end.....	do.	.23	.19-.23	.23-.24	.25
Chops.....	do.	.23	.19-.22	.22-.23	.25-.26
Veal:					
Hind quarter.....	do.	.23	.16-.19	.16-.19	.23
Shoulder, with bone.....	do.	.19	.14-.15	.14-.19	.21
Shoulder, without bone.....	do.19-.21	.17-.19	.23-.26
Ribs.....	do.	.21	.14-.17	.15-.19	.19-.23
Chops.....	do.	.23	.21-.23	.15-.16	.23
Leg.....	do.	.23	.19-.21	.14-.16	.23
Pork:					
Leg.....	do.	.19-.23	.16-.17	.17-.19	.19-.21
Foreloin.....	do.	.17-.19	.15	.19-.20	.17-.21
Belly.....	do.	.14-.15	.14	.17	.19
Chops.....	do.	.17-.20	.17	.21	.19-.21

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF RETAIL PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 12 SELECTED TOWNS OF FRANCE, OCTOBER, 1905—Concluded.

Commodity.	Unit.	Havre.	Limoges.	Lyon.	Marseille.
Coffee.....	1 pound..	\$0.31 - \$0.39	\$0.42	\$0.35 - \$0.44	\$0.35
Sugar, loaf.....	do.....	.05 - .06	.06	.05	.05
Eggs.....	1 dozen..	.24 - .36	\$0.18 - .22	.22 - .24	.36
Butter.....	1 pound..	.21 - .23	.25 - .28	.23	\$0.33 - .35
Potatoes.....	7 pounds..	.06	.06	.06	.09
Flour, wheat.....	do.....	.25 - .31	.25 - .31	.31 - .37	.34
Bread, white.....	4 pounds..	.12	.10 - .11	.13 - .14	.14
Milk.....	1 quart..	.04 - .05	.05	.05	.07
Coal.....	1 cwt.....	.35 - .44	.39	.36	.49
Paraffin oil.....	1 gallon..	.26 - .31	.31	.26	.31
Beef:					
Ribs.....	1 pound..	.15 - .17	.12 - .14	.12 - .14	.19 - .22
Brisket.....	do.....	.12	.10	.08 - .10	.12 - .13
Silverside.....	do.....	.17	.12 - .14	.17	.19
Shin, with bone.....	do.....	.12 - .14	.08 - .10	.08 - .10	.10
Steak.....	do.....	.21 - .23	.23 - .25	.17 - .19	.33 - .35
Rump steak.....	do.....	.29 - .31	.23 - .25	.17 - .21	.33 - .36
Thick flank.....	do.....	.23	.14 - .17	.17 - .20	.33 - .35
Mutton:					
Leg.....	do.....	.23 - .25	.15 - .19	.19	.29 - .31
Shoulder.....	do.....	.17 - .19	.14 - .15	.14 - .15	.21
Breast.....	do.....	.14	.10	.10	.12
Neck, best end.....	do.....	.25	.15 - .17	.19	.21
Chops.....	do.....	.23 - .26	.15 - .19	.19	.35
Veal:					
Hind quarter.....	do.....	.23	.14 - .16	.16 - .19	.26 - .33
Shoulder, with bone.....	do.....	.17	.12 - .14	.14 - .15	.21 - .22
Shoulder, without bone.....	do.....	.21	.15	.16 - .19	.26 - .28
Ribs.....	do.....	.22 - .23	.14 - .17	.17	.26
Chops.....	do.....	.23	.15 - .17	.17 - .19	.35
Leg.....	do.....	.23	.15 - .17	.17 - .19	.30
Pork:					
Leg.....	do.....	.21 - .23	.14 - .19	.14 - .17	.29 - .33
Foreloin.....	do.....	.17 - .21	.14 - .19	.14 - .17	.21 - .26
Belly.....	do.....	.19	.15	.14 - .17	.13
Chops.....	do.....	.19 - .21	.15 - .19	.17 - .21	.35

Commodity.	Unit.	Nantes.	Paris.	Rheims.	Valen- ciennes.
Coffee.....	1 pound..	\$0.35	\$0.32 - \$0.35	\$0.32 - \$0.35	\$0.35
Sugar, loaf.....	do.....	.06	.05	.05	.07 - .08
Eggs.....	1 dozen..	.24 - .26	.22 - .24	.22 - .24	.24
Butter.....	1 pound..	.26	.25 - .28	.28	.26 - .28
Potatoes.....	7 pounds..	.06	.06 - .09	.06	.06
Flour, wheat.....	do.....	.28	.25	.31	.28
Bread, white.....	4 pounds..	.11 - .12	.12	.10 - .11	.11
Milk.....	1 quart..	.04	.05	.04	.04 - .05
Coal.....	1 cwt.....	.47 - .49	.61 - .67	.39	.24 - .26
Paraffin oil.....	1 gallon..	.31	.20 - .22	.22	.26 - .31
Beef:					
Ribs.....	1 pound..	.13 - .14	.21	.14	.15 - .17
Brisket.....	do.....	.10 - .11	.10	.10	.08 - .10
Silverside.....	do.....	.15	.15	.15	.15 - .17
Shin, with bone.....	do.....	.10	.10	.13	.10
Steak.....	do.....	.21	.21 - .25	.21	.23 - .25
Rump steak.....	do.....	.23 - .25	.26 - .28	.26	.25 - .26
Thick flank.....	do.....	.21	.25	.21	.21
Mutton:					
Leg.....	do.....	.19 - .21	.19	.23	.25
Shoulder.....	do.....	.15 - .17	.15 - .17	.21	.19
Breast.....	do.....	.10 - .14	.10	.14	.15 - .17
Neck, best end.....	do.....	.19 - .21	.17 - .21	.21	.25
Chops.....	do.....	.19 - .21	.19 - .21	.25	.23 - .26
Veal:					
Hind quarter.....	do.....	.15	.17 - .21	.19	.19
Shoulder, with bone.....	do.....	.12	.17 - .19	.19	.19
Shoulder, without bone.....	do.....	.17	.23	.26	.26
Ribs.....	do.....	.19	.19 - .21	.21	.21
Chops.....	do.....	.19 - .21	.21 - .23	.23	.21
Leg.....	do.....	.15 - .16	.21	.21	.21 - .23
Pork:					
Leg.....	do.....	.17 - .19	.21 - .26	.21	.19 - .21
Foreloin.....	do.....	.17	.19 - .21	.21	.19 - .21
Belly.....	do.....	.14 - .15	.19 - .21	.17	.15 - .17
Chops.....	do.....	.17	.19 - .23	.21	.19 - .21

In order to obtain an indication of the level of prices for each town as compared with other towns, index numbers have been constructed, the level of prices in Paris being taken as the base (100). In the construction of the index numbers, in order to allow for the varying importance of the prices of different articles, as judged by the normal weekly expenditure of a working-class family, recourse was had to "weighting." For this purpose average quantities estimated from 5,605 family budgets giving weekly cost and quantity of certain articles of food consumed by workmen's families in French towns, in 1907-8, were utilized.

In the following table these 5,605 families have been grouped according to the aggregate weekly income of the family (not of the principal wage-earner only); also there is shown for each group the average family income and the average number of children at home for a representative week in 1907-8:

NUMBER AND AVERAGE INCOME OF URBAN WORKMEN'S FAMILIES REPORTING IN EACH CLASSIFIED INCOME GROUP AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME, FOR A REPRESENTATIVE WEEK, 1907-8.

Classified weekly income.	Number of families reporting.	Average weekly family income from—			Total weekly family income.	Average number of children at home.
		Husband.	Wife.	Children.		
Under \$4.87.....	223	\$3. 68	\$0. 50	\$0. 14	\$4. 32	1. 57
\$4.87 and under \$6.08.....	614	4. 93	. 48	. 16	5. 57	1. 77
\$6.08 and under \$7.30.....	931	5. 65	. 82	. 26	6. 73	1. 80
\$7.30 and under \$8.52.....	1,065	6. 26	1. 08	. 53	7. 87	1. 92
\$8.52 and under \$9.73.....	821	6. 83	1. 32	. 92	9. 07	2. 13
\$9.73 and over.....	1,951	8. 02	1. 30	3. 55	12. 87	2. 91

With regard to the statistics of families with the higher ranges of income, it must be remembered that the amount of the family income is often due to the supplementary earnings of the wife or of children living at home, rather than to the high earnings of the head of the family. This is particularly the case where the income amounts to \$9.73 or more per week. As will be seen from the table, the average number of children living at home was, in the families of this class, higher than the average number for all the families from which budgets were obtained.

The tables following give the average expenditures for food of the 5,605 workmen's families to which the returns relate and the quantities consumed by them of the various articles of food in a representative week in 1907-8. All children living at home, irrespective of age, have been included, but returns in which lodgers appeared have been excluded.

**AVERAGE COST OF FOOD CONSUMED BY URBAN WORKMEN'S FAMILIES
REPORTING IN EACH CLASSIFIED INCOME GROUP, FOR A REPRESENTATIVE
WEEK, 1907-8.**

Items.	Average cost for families reporting weekly incomes of—					
	Under \$4.87.	\$4.87 and under \$6.08.	\$6.08 and under \$7.30.	\$7.30 and under \$8.52.	\$8.52 and under \$9.73.	\$9.73 and over.
Bread.....	\$0.669	\$0.725	\$0.761	\$0.816	\$0.892	\$1.146
Macaroni.....	.041	.076	.102	.096	.112	.132
Potatoes.....	.157	.152	.157	.162	.183	.238
Salad.....	.025	.036	.041	.056	.061	.091
Haricots.....	.076	.086	.091	.096	.101	.122
Peas.....	.036	.045	.051	.061	.061	.086
Other vegetables.....	.061	.071	.101	.117	.132	.172
Beef.....	.228	.294	.335	.411	.451	.598
Veal.....	.056	.112	.157	.203	.238	.304
Mutton.....	.041	.101	.127	.157	.188	.249
Pork.....	.081	.091	.117	.127	.142	.208
Horseflesh.....	.091	.091	.091	.091	.096	.122
Poultry.....	.020	.045	.081	.132	.157	.253
Fish.....	.046	.071	.091	.111	.117	.157
Charcuterie and bacon.....	.101	.112	.117	.147	.157	.218
Lard, suet, and dripping.....	.107	.107	.117	.127	.137	.167
Butter.....	.177	.223	.248	.258	.284	.400
Olive oil and substitutes.....	.061	.066	.096	.106	.121	.147
Eggs.....	.081	.127	.152	.177	.193	.259
Milk.....	.112	.147	.177	.203	.223	.269
Cheese.....	.061	.076	.101	.122	.142	.188
Coffee.....	.122	.152	.162	.198	.208	.304
Chicory.....	.030	.025	.030	.030	.025	.030
Sugar.....	.086	.107	.107	.122	.127	.157
Other items.....	.005	.010	.010	.015	.025	.041
Meals away from home.....	.141	.218	.324	.416	.522	.745
Total (except wine and beer).....	2.712	3.386	3.944	4.557	5.095	6.803
Wine and cider.....	.218	.335	.441	.517	.593	.760
Beer.....	.056	.076	.076	.076	.091	.137
Total.....	2.986	3.797	4.461	5.150	5.779	7.700

**AVERAGE QUANTITY OF FOOD CONSUMED BY URBAN WORKMEN'S FAMILIES
REPORTING IN EACH CLASSIFIED INCOME GROUP FOR A REPRESENTATIVE
WEEK, 1907-8.**

Items.	Average quantity consumed by families reporting weekly incomes of—					
	Under \$4.87.	\$4.87 and under \$6.08.	\$6.08 and under \$7.30.	\$7.30 and under \$8.52.	\$8.52 and under \$9.73.	\$9.73 and over.
Bread.....pounds..	22.88	24.10	24.58	26.19	27.62	35.89
Macaroni.....do..	.68	1.23	1.50	1.43	1.59	1.90
Potatoes.....do..	14.68	12.30	13.93	14.64	15.85	20.50
Haricots.....do..	1.59	1.74	1.79	1.90	1.92	2.27
Peas.....do..	.71	.82	1.08	1.30	1.41	1.79
Beef.....do..	1.72	2.12	2.43	2.80	2.93	4.01
Veal.....do..	.31	.60	.84	1.08	1.26	1.61
Mutton.....do..	.22	.62	.73	.95	1.10	1.46
Fresh pork.....do..	.42	.49	.64	.71	.79	1.08
Horseflesh.....do..	.97	.88	.84	.88	.88	1.12
Poultry.....do..	.09	.22	.37	.62	.82	1.23
Charcuterie and bacon.....do..	.51	.62	.64	.77	.79	1.04
Lard, suet, and dripping.....do..	.75	.73	.73	.79	.84	1.06
Butter.....do..	.73	.86	.97	1.01	1.08	1.50
Olive oil and substitutes.....do..	.49	.66	.71	.79	.88	1.06
Eggs.....number..	4.30	6.90	8.10	9.30	10.20	13.40
Milk.....pints..	4.51	5.81	6.88	7.60	8.10	9.73
Cheese.....pounds..	.35	.46	.55	.68	.75	1.06
Coffee.....do..	.35	.44	.46	.55	.55	.82
Sugar.....do..	1.23	1.48	1.50	1.72	1.83	2.22

The proportion of the weekly income spent on food and rent by the families of French urban workmen is brought out in the statement following:

PROPORTION OF WEEKLY INCOME SPENT ON FOOD BY URBAN WORKMEN'S FAMILIES.

Items.	Percentage of income spent on food by families reporting weekly incomes of—					
	Under \$4.87.	\$4.87 and under \$6.06.	\$6.06 and under \$7.30.	\$7.30 and under \$8.52.	\$8.52 and under \$9.73.	\$9.73 and over.
All food (excluding wine and beer).....	62.7	60.8	58.6	57.9	56.1	52.8
Meat and fish.....	15.3	16.4	16.6	17.4	17.0	16.3
Rent.....	12.3	11.2	10.1	9.7	9.7	8.4

From the average quantity of food consumed weekly by workmen's families, on the basis of 5,605 family budgets, and from information obtained from other sources, the following are the quantities of the selected commodities assumed to be consumed by a French working-class family in a normal week:

Coffee ----- pound--	0.6	Milk -----quarts--	4
Sugar ----- do	1½	Beef -----pounds--	3
Eggs ----- number--	10	Mutton -----do	1
Butter -----pounds--	1½	Veal -----do	1½
Potatoes -----do	16	Pork -----do	½
Bread -----do	29		

The predominant prices in each town, as ascertained for the various articles, are weighted in accordance with the above quantities, the total expenditure so obtained being expressed as a percentage of the corresponding total as compiled from prices in Paris. The following table shows, in descending order, the price index numbers thus constructed for the various towns:

RELATIVE LEVEL OF FOOD PRICES IN SPECIFIED FRENCH TOWNS AS COMPARED WITH PARIS.

Town.	Index number.	Town.	Index number.	Town.	Index number.
Marseille.....	122	St. Quentin.....	98	Douai.....	95
Calais.....	109	Lyon.....	98	Le Creuzot.....	94
Toulouse.....	104	St. Nazaire.....	97	Roubaix.....	94
Rouen.....	103	Grenoble.....	97	Nantes.....	94
Nancy.....	101	Bordeaux.....	97	Fougères.....	91
Lens.....	100	Troyes.....	96	Limoges.....	91
Paris.....	100	Valenciennes.....	96	Bourges.....	91
Lille.....	100	Rheims.....	96	St. Etienne.....	90
Havre.....	100	Roanne.....	96	Brest.....	89
Amiens.....	99	Rennes.....	95	Belfort.....	88

It is seen from the foregoing that 5 of the 30 towns have a prices index number higher than Paris. The total difference between the

highest and lowest towns is 34 points, as contrasted with 63 points in the case of rents. However, if Marseille be excluded, the difference in price levels is only 21 points.

RENTS AND PRICES COMBINED.

The presentation following gives the index numbers for each of the 30 specified towns in France for that portion of the cost of living which is due to expenditure on food and on housing accommodation. Since the amount which has to be expended on food is considerably greater than that which has to be spent on rent, a weight of 5 has been given to prices and a weight of 1 to rent:

RELATIVE LEVEL OF RENT AND FOOD PRICES COMBINED IN SPECIFIED TOWNS OF FRANCE AS COMPARED WITH PARIS.

Town.	Index number.	Town.	Index number.	Town.	Index number.
Marseille	112	Grenoble.....	92	Douai.....	88
Calais.....	100	Lens.....	92	Le Creuzot.....	86
Paris.....	100	Amiens.....	92	Roanne.....	86
Rouen.....	97	Valenciennes.....	91	Limoges.....	85
Nancy.....	96	St. Quentin.....	90	Belfort.....	85
Havre.....	95	St. Nazaire.....	90	Fougères.....	85
Lyon.....	95	Troyes.....	89	Roubaix.....	85
Toulouse.....	94	Rennes.....	89	St. Etienne.....	84
Bordeaux.....	93	Rheims.....	89	Brest.....	83
Lille.....	92	Nantes.....	88	Bourges.....	83

FRANCE AND GREAT BRITAIN COMPARED.

The difficulties in the way of any complete comparison of the relative prices ruling for similar commodities in France and in England, as far as they affect the expenditure of the working classes of the two countries, are sufficiently obvious from what has been said respecting the diversity of national habits and tastes. Disregarding such differences, the predominant prices paid by the working classes of the two countries for commodities quoted in both are as shown in the following table. It should be noted that in this and the other tables which follow the prices for England and Wales are exclusive of London prices, while those for France relate to all the French towns investigated, including Paris. No explanation for this is given in the original report.

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF RETAIL PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN TOWNS OF ENGLAND AND WALES AND OF FRANCE, COMPARED, OCTOBER, 1905.

Commodity.	Unit.	Predominant retail prices, October, 1905.		Ratio of mean predominant price in France to mean predominant price in England, taken as 100.
		England and Wales, excluding London.	France, including Paris.	
Sugar.....	1 pound...	\$0.04	\$0.05½-\$0.06	144
Butter.....	...do.....	.27	.22½-.28½	94
Potatoes.....	7 pounds..	\$0.05-.07	.06	100
Flour, wheat.....	...do.....	.16-.20	.25-.31	153
Bread, white.....	4 pounds..	.09-.11	.11-.12	115
Milk.....	1 quart....	.06-.08	.04½-.05½	71
Beef.....	1 pound... {	a. 15-.17 b. 10-.12	.13-.16½	100
Mutton.....	...do..... {	a. 15-.18 b. 08-.10	.14-.20	131
Pork.....	...do.....	.15-.17	.15½-.22	116
Coal.....	1 cwt.....	.19-.24	.33½-.40½	170
Paraffin oil.....	1 gallon...	.14-.16	.26½-.31	188

* British or home killed.

* Foreign or colonial.

In the United Kingdom report the price levels of different towns were compared by the amount required to purchase the groceries, meat, and coal in an approximate average workman's budget. In order to furnish a similar comparison in the present case the following table is given showing relatively how much the average British workman would have to pay if he went to live in France and purchase the same kinds of food in the same quantities as he had previously used in England. The table shows that his expenditure would be increased in the ratio of 100 to 118. This is the same as found in the German report. If the cost of coal be left out of consideration, however, the ratio would be only 100 to 111.

COST OF THE AVERAGE BRITISH WORKMAN'S WEEKLY BUDGET (EXCLUDING CERTAIN ARTICLES FOR WHICH COMPARATIVE PRICES CAN NOT BE CITED) AT THE PREDOMINANT PRICES PAID BY THE WORKING CLASSES OF ENGLAND AND WALES AND OF FRANCE, OCTOBER, 1905.

Article.	Quantity in average British budget.	Predominant prices in October, 1905, in—		Cost of quantity in British budget in—	
		England and Wales, excluding London.	France, including Paris.	England and Wales.	France.
Sugar.....	5½ pounds..	\$0.041 per pound.....	\$0.056 to \$0.061 per pound.	\$0.218	\$0.309
Butter.....	2 pounds...	\$0.269 per pound.....	\$0.223 to \$0.284 per pound.	.537	.507
Potatoes.....	17 pounds..	\$0.051 to \$0.071 per 7 pounds.	\$0.061 per 7 pounds.....	.147	.147
Flour, wheat.....	10 pounds..	\$0.162 to \$0.203 per 7 pounds.	\$0.248 to \$0.309 per 7 pounds.	.259	.400
Bread, white.....	22 pounds..	\$0.091 to \$0.112 per 4 pounds.	\$0.112 to \$0.122 per 4 pounds.	.558	.644
Milk.....	5 quarts....	\$0.061 to \$0.081 per quart.	\$0.046 to \$0.056 per quart.	.355	.253
Beef.....	4½ pounds..	\$0.137 per pound.....	\$0.132 to \$0.167 per pound.	.619	.674
Mutton.....	1½ pounds..	\$0.129 per pound.....	\$0.142 to \$0.198 per pound.	.193	.253
Pork.....	4 pound....	\$0.152 to \$0.172 per pound	\$0.157 to \$0.218 per pound.	.081	.094
Coal.....	2 cwt.....	\$0.193 to \$0.243 per cwt.	\$0.335 to \$0.406 per cwt...	.436	.740
Total.....				3.403	4.021
Index number....				100	118

On the other hand, the French workman going to live in England would not reduce his expenditures for food in as high a ratio as 118 to 100, for his purchases as shown in the following table are entirely different in quantity from the British workman's. The table shows that his expenditure would be decreased in the ratio of 106 to 100. Coal is not included, because wood is the principal fuel in many French towns.

COST OF THE AVERAGE FRENCH WORKMAN'S WEEKLY BUDGET (EXCLUDING FUEL AND CERTAIN ARTICLES FOR WHICH COMPARATIVE PRICES CAN NOT BE CITED) AT THE PREDOMINANT PRICES PAID BY THE WORKING CLASSES OF ENGLAND AND WALES AND OF FRANCE, OCTOBER, 1905.

Article.	Quantity in average French budget.	Predominant prices in October, 1905, in—		Cost of quantity in French budget in—	
		England and Wales, excluding London.	France, including Paris.	England and Wales.	France.
Sugar.....	1½ pounds..	\$0.041 per pound.....	\$0.056 to \$0.061 per pound.	\$0.071	\$0.101
Butter.....	1½ pounds..	\$0.269 per pound.....	\$0.223 to \$0.284 per pound.	.335	.319
Potatoes.....	16 pounds..	\$0.051 to \$0.071 per 7 pounds.	\$0.061 per 7 pounds.....	.137	.137
Bread, white.....	29 pounds..	\$0.091 to \$0.112 per 4 pounds.	\$0.112 to \$0.122 per 4 pounds.	.735	.847
Milk.....	4 quarts....	\$0.061 to \$0.081 per quart.	\$0.046 to \$0.056 per quart.	.284	.203
Beef.....	3 pounds....	\$0.137 per pound.....	\$0.132 to \$0.167 per pound.	.411	.449
Mutton.....	1 pound.....	\$0.129 per pound.....	\$0.142 to \$0.198 per pound.	.129	.170
Pork.....	½ pound.....	\$0.152 to \$0.172 per pound	\$0.157 to \$0.218 per pound.	.122	.142
Total.....				2.224	2.368
Index number.....				100	106

The differences in the amounts consumed and the sums spent for the chief commodities by workmen's families receiving certain specified weekly incomes are brought out in the two following statements:

RATIOS OF THE QUANTITIES OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD CONSUMED BY WORKMEN'S FAMILIES IN FRANCE, RECEIVING SPECIFIED WEEKLY INCOMES, TO THE QUANTITIES OF THE SAME ARTICLES CONSUMED BY WORKMEN'S FAMILIES IN GREAT BRITAIN WITH CORRESPONDING INCOMES.

[Quantities in Great Britain = 100.]

Items.	Families receiving weekly incomes of—		
	\$6.08 and under \$7.30.	\$7.30 and under \$8.52.	\$8.52 and under \$9.73.
Bread and flour.....	82	89	92
Meat and fish.....	93	98	100
Eggs.....	93	82	85
Milk, fresh.....	89	77	78
Cheese.....	79	86	97
Butter, oils, and fats.....	98	97	98
Potatoes.....	88	91	100
Sugar.....	32	36	35

RATIOS OF THE AMOUNTS SPENT ON CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD CONSUMED BY WORKMEN'S FAMILIES IN FRANCE, RECEIVING SPECIFIED WEEKLY INCOMES, TO THE AMOUNTS SPENT ON THE SAME ARTICLES BY WORKMEN'S FAMILIES IN GREAT BRITAIN WITH CORRESPONDING INCOMES.

[Expenditure in Great Britain = 100.]

Items.	Families receiving weekly incomes of—		
	\$6.08 and under \$7.30.	\$7.30 and under \$8.52.	\$8.52 and under \$9.73.
Vegetables and fruit.....	200	163	149
Farinaceous foods (other than bread and flour).....	100	79	96
Tea, coffee, cocoa, etc.....	66	69	66

RATES OF WAGES.

FRANCE.

An inquiry was made into the rates of wages prevailing in October, 1905, in the various towns canvassed. In order to facilitate comparison, four industries were selected which were represented in all the towns with few exceptions, and in which the standard rates of wages could be ascertained with accuracy. These industries were the building trades, engineering, printing, and municipal employment; and the rates in Paris were again taken as the base for the index numbers. The rates referred to are in all cases weekly rates.

The following table shows the predominant range of weekly wages for each of the occupations in the selected standard industries in towns of France:

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF WEEKLY WAGES IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS IN FRANCE, OCTOBER, 1905.

[As the number of towns included in this table is stated to be 30 for several occupations, the figures of the table apparently relate to all the French towns covered by the report, including the city of Paris.]

Industry and occupation.	Number of towns included.	Predominant range of weekly wages, October, 1905.	Number of towns in which the mean wage for the given occupation was—		
			Within the predominant range.	Below the predominant range.	Above the predominant range.
BUILDING TRADES.					
Bricklayers and masons.....	30	\$5.25-\$7.02	26	2	2
Stonecutters.....	26	6.43-7.58	17	5	4
Carpenters.....	30	5.84-7.36	24	3	3
Joiners.....	30	5.78-6.43	19	6	5
Plumbers.....	25	5.84-7.02	21	2	2
Plasterers.....	22	5.78-7.06	18	2	2
Painters.....	29	5.21-6.43	23	3	3
Laborers.....	29	3.85-4.83	20	5	4
ENGINEERING TRADES.					
Molders.....	26	5.84-7.12	22	1	3
Fitters.....	30	5.84-7.02	18	6	6
Turners.....	30	5.84-7.42	25	1	4
Smiths.....	21	6.12-7.73	16	2	3
Pattern makers.....	22	6.20-7.24	16	3	3
Laborers.....	30	3.79-4.66	23	3	4
PRINTING TRADE.					
Compositors.....	23	5.56-7.02	18	3	
MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT.					
Road men.....	23	4.24-5.25	15	5	3
Pavers.....	23	4.66-5.84	14	4	5

In the following table is shown the predominant rate of weekly wages for skilled men for each of the specified occupations in the building, engineering, and printing trades in 12 towns of France, selected as to certain geographical districts:

RATES OF WEEKLY WAGES IN 12 SELECTED TOWNS OF FRANCE, OCTOBER, 1905.

Industry and occupation.	Amiens.	Bordeaux.	Brest.	Calais.	Havre.	Limoges.
BUILDING TRADES.						
Bricklayers and masons.....	\$4.79-\$5.78	\$7.02	\$4.91	\$6.33	\$7.02-\$7.71	\$5.78
Stonecutters.....	6.43-7.06	7.02	5.37	6.96	7.58-8.35	6.43
Carpenters.....	5.52-6.43	\$6.43-7.02	5.50	6.96	7.02-7.71	6.43
Joiners.....	5.25-6.43	5.84-7.02	4.91	6.33	7.02-7.71	5.78
Plumbers.....		5.84	5.60	6.33	7.58-8.35	5.84
Plasterers.....		6.43	5.25	-----	7.02-7.71	5.84
Painters.....	4.66-5.78	5.84-6.43	4.66	6.33	7.02-7.71	5.84
ENGINEERING TRADES.						
Molders.....	5.84-6.43	6.43	5.25	-----	-----	5.84
Fitters.....	5.25-5.84	6.43-7.02	5.25	\$6.65-8.17	6.71-8.13	\$5.84-7.02
Turners.....	5.84	6.43-7.02	5.84	6.89-7.77	6.71-8.13	5.84-7.02
Smiths.....	5.84-6.43	6.43-7.02	6.43	-----	7.02-8.42	-----
Pattern makers.....		-----	5.84	-----	6.43-7.89	7.02
PRINTING TRADE.						
Compositors.....	5.25-5.58	6.43-7.02	4.66	5.25-5.84	6.43	6.31-7.02

RATES OF WEEKLY WAGES IN 12 SELECTED TOWNS OF FRANCE, OCTOBER, 1905—Concluded.

Industry and occupation.	Lyon.	Marseille.	Nantes.	Paris.	Rheims.	Valenciennes.
BUILDING TRADES.						
Bricklayers and masons.....	\$7.02	\$5.84	\$5.25	\$9.35	\$6.43-\$7.06	\$6.04-\$7.02
Stonecutters.....	7.58	\$7.02-7.58	5.84	9.94	7.20-7.71	6.43-7.06
Carpenters.....	8.17	8.17	6.43	10.50	5.78-7.06	5.78-6.43
Joiners.....	7.02	7.02	\$5.84-6.43	9.35	5.78-7.06	5.78-6.43
Plumbers.....	7.02	6.43	5.84-6.43	9.35	6.43-7.06	5.78-6.43
Plasterers.....	6.43	7.02	5.84-6.43	9.35	6.43-7.06	5.78-6.43
Painters.....	6.43	5.25	5.84-7.02	9.35	6.43-7.06	5.78-6.43
ENGINEERING TRADES.						
Molders.....	\$6.43-7.58	5.84-7.02	7.02-8.17	\$7.58-12.17	6.43	5.84-6.31
Fitters.....	6.71-7.58	5.84-7.02	7.02	8.17-11.68	5.84-6.43	5.84-6.43
Turners.....	6.71-7.58	6.43-7.02	7.02	8.17-11.68	5.84-6.43	5.84-6.43
Smiths.....	7.02-8.17	7.02-7.58	6.29	8.17-14.01	5.84-6.43	5.84-6.43
Pattern makers.....	7.02-8.17	6.43-7.02	7.58-8.17	8.42-13.42	7.02	5.84-7.02
PRINTING TRADE.						
Compositors.....	7.02-8.17	7.02	7.02	8.17	6.31	5.84-6.43

In the table following index numbers are given comparing (with Paris as the base 100) the weekly rates of wages of workmen in the four specified industries in the different towns of France, the towns being arranged in geographical groups:

RELATIVE LEVEL OF WEEKLY WAGES IN SPECIFIED TOWNS OF FRANCE AS COMPARED WITH PARIS.

Geographical groups.	Building.		Engineering.		Print- ing (com- posi- tors).	Municipal em- ployees.	
	Skilled men.	Labor- ers.	Skilled men.	Labor- ers.		Road men.	Pavers.
Paris.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nord and Pas-de-Calais:							
Calais.....	68	81	77	73	68	60	67
Douai.....	66	77	66	78	70	74	77
Lens.....	64	90	62	83	71	66	66
Lille.....	65	66	73	66	71	66	78
Roubaix.....	62	72	62	75	71	66	74
Valenciennes.....	65	79	62	74	71	66	74
Other northern towns:							
Amiens.....	58	60	60	65	66	55	64
Havre.....	78	80	77	83	79	86	99
Rouen.....	62	82	69	75	79	65	91
St. Quentin.....	63	70	65	75	71	65	78
Northeastern towns:							
Belfort.....	67	72	66	62	79	56	77
Nancy.....	67	91	62	75	83	72	70
Rheims.....	67	70	64	80	77	67	83
Troyes.....	68	77	62	70	77	64	83
Northwestern towns:							
Brest.....	53	60	56	60	57	62	63
Fougères.....	58	66	64	60	64	69	77
Nantes.....	64	70	74	80	75	68	77
Rennes.....	57	64	58	65	75	68	77
St. Nazaire.....	71	84	80	75	75	68	77
Central towns:							
Bourges.....	61	68	60	77	68	58	65
Le Creusot.....	66	80	85	77	79	64	66
Grenoble.....	62	70	66	70	79	74	96
Limoges.....	62	66	64	75	82	67	66
Lyon.....	74	75	73	85	93	67	106
Roanne.....	65	70	63	65	71	68	75
St. Etienne.....	67	70	72	75	82	76	79
Southern towns:							
Bordeaux.....	67	70	68	75	82	66	66
Marseille.....	68	55	67	65	86	68	79
Toulouse.....	56	60	58	70	79	48	60

RELATION OF RATES OF WAGES TO RENTS AND PRICES.

The presentation which follows shows for each of the geographical groups the mean index numbers for rent and prices and rent and prices combined, together with the mean index numbers for the weekly rates of wages of skilled men in the building, engineering, and printing industries. Paris has been taken as the base (100) in each case. In the construction of the index numbers for rent and prices combined, prices have been given a weight of 5 and rent a weight of 1.

RELATIVE LEVEL OF RENT AND PRICES, OF RENT AND PRICES COMBINED, AND OF WEEKLY WAGES OF SKILLED MEN IN SIX GEOGRAPHICAL GROUPS OF FRANCE, AS COMPARED WITH PARIS.

Geographical group.	Number of towns included.	Mean index numbers.					
		Rent and prices.			Wages (skilled men).		
		Rent.	Prices.	Rent and prices combined.	Building.	Engineering.	Printing.
Paris.....	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nord and Pas-de-Calais.....	6	52	99	91	65	67	70
Other northern towns.....	4	60	100	93	65	68	74
Northeastern towns.....	4	62	95	90	67	64	78
Northwestern towns.....	5	56	93	87	61	66	65
Central towns.....	7	54	94	87	65	69	79
Southern towns.....	3	60	108	100	64	64	82

* The number of towns represented in the construction of this index number is less than the total number included within the geographical group.

If the mean of the wages index numbers in each group for the three industries (building, engineering, and printing) be taken, and the means so obtained divided by the index numbers for rent and prices combined, a comparison of the average level of "real" wages in the selected occupations may be made, viz, the money wages expressed in terms of their purchasing capacity (as shown in the index numbers of rent and prices combined). The results are shown in the table which follows:

AVERAGE LEVEL OF "REAL" WAGES AND LEVEL OF RENT AND PRICES COMBINED IN SIX GEOGRAPHICAL GROUPS OF FRANCE, AS COMPARED WITH PARIS.

[Index number for Paris = 100.]

Geographical group.	Number of towns included.	Mean index numbers.		
		Rent and prices combined.	Wages of skilled men in building, engineering, and printing trades.	Approximate relative level of "real" wages.
Paris.....	100	100	100
Nord and Pas-de-Calais.....	6	91	67	74
Other northern towns.....	4	93	69	74
Northeastern towns.....	4	90	70	78
Northwestern towns.....	5	87	64	74
Central towns.....	7	87	71	82
Southern towns.....	3	100	70	70

FRANCE AND GREAT BRITAIN COMPARED.

The predominant rates of weekly wages paid in the building, engineering, and printing trades of France (industries which were found in all the towns investigated) are here brought into contrast with the rates of weekly wages paid in similar trades in Great Britain:

RATES OF WAGES IN ENGLAND AND WALES AND IN FRANCE, COMPARED,
OCTOBER, 1905.

Industry and occupation.	Predominant range of weekly wages, October, 1905.		Ratio of mean predominant wage in France to mean predominant wage in England, taken as 100.
	England and Wales, excluding London.	France. (a)	
BUILDING TRADES.			
Bricklayers.....	\$9. 12-\$9. 85	\$5. 25-\$7. 02	65
Masons.....	9. 04- 9. 57	5. 25- 7. 02	65
Carpenters.....	8. 80- 9. 57	5. 84- 7. 36	72
Joiners.....	8. 80- 9. 57	5. 78- 6. 43	66
Plumbers.....	8. 60- 9. 67	5. 84- 7. 02	70
Plasterers.....	8. 88-10. 14	5. 78- 7. 06	67
Painters.....	7. 66- 9. 12	5. 21- 6. 43	69
Laborers.....	5. 72- 6. 57	3. 85- 4. 83	71
ENGINEERING TRADES.			
Fitters.....	7. 79- 8. 76	5. 84- 7. 02	78
Turners.....	7. 79- 8. 76	5. 84- 7. 42	80
Smiths.....	7. 79- 8. 76	6. 12- 7. 73	84
Pattern makers.....	8. 27- 9. 25	6. 20- 7. 24	77
Laborers.....	4. 38- 5. 35	3. 79- 4. 66	87
PRINTING TRADES.			
Compositors.....	6. 81- 8. 03	5. 56- 7. 02	85
Arithmetic mean of ratios for all trades.....			
			75

^a Apparently including Paris; see prefatory note to table on p. 81.

In the case of the building trades the weekly wages given are, for both countries, the wages for a full working week in summer. In the engineering and the printing trades, the English wages are the standard time rates recognized by the unions concerned; the French rates, on the other hand, are in most cases based on returns of actual earnings, and it is consequently doubtful how far the two sets of returns are strictly comparable. The standard time rates being often exceeded by actual earnings on piecework, it is probable that the French rates appear somewhat too high relatively to the English.

For skilled men in the building trades the French wages are about 68 per cent of the English; for skilled men in the engineering trades about 81 per cent of the English, and for compositors in the printing trade about 85 per cent of the English. The arithmetic mean of the ratios for all trades shown in the table indicates that the mean predominant wage in France is approximately 75 per cent of that in England and Wales. The corresponding figure for Germany was 83 per cent.

HOURS OF LABOR.

In the table following is presented for the building, the engineering, and the printing trades a comparison of the average usual hours of labor per week in England and Wales with corresponding data for France.

AVERAGE USUAL HOURS OF LABOR PER WEEK IN ENGLAND AND WALES AND IN FRANCE, COMPARED.

[The report does not state whether the average hours of labor here shown for England and Wales and for France include hours of labor in London and in Paris.]

Industry and occupation.	Average usual hours of labor per week in—		Ratio of average hours of labor in France to those in England, taken as 100.
	England and Wales.	France.	
BUILDING TRADES.			
Bricklayers and masons.....	52½	64½	123
Carpenters.....	53	64	121
Joiners.....	53	63½	120
Plumbers.....	53½	63	118
Plasterers.....	53	63	119
Painters.....	53½	63	118
Laborers.....	52½	64½	123
ENGINEERING TRADES.			
Fitters.....	53	60½	114
Turners.....	53	60½	114
Smiths.....	53	60½	114
Pattern makers.....	53	60½	114
Laborers.....	53	60½	114
PRINTING TRADE.			
Compositors.....	52½	59½	113
Arithmetic mean of ratios for all trades.....			117

It will be seen from the foregoing that the hours of labor in France are from 13 to 23 per cent higher than in England; or on the average of the above trades, hours of labor in France exceed those in England by about 17 per cent.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS.

A summary of the conclusions derived from the investigation follows:

Rents.—Net rents of working-class dwellings in France (not including payments on account of local taxation) are to gross rents of working-class dwellings in England (including all local taxation) as 80 to 100.

Net rents of working-class dwellings in France are to the net rents of working-class dwellings in England (excluding that portion of English rents which represents local taxation) as 98 to 100.

Retail prices.—The cost of the average British workman's weekly purchases of certain standard articles of food and fuel (for an average family) at the prices ruling in France in October, 1905, was to the

cost of the same articles at English prices at the same date as 118 to 100.

If the expenditure on rent be combined with that on food and fuel (the expenditure on the latter items being taken at four times the former) the results are:

The expenditure of the average British workman (with an average family) on certain standard articles of food and fuel, and on rent at the prices and rents ruling in France would be to his expenditure on the same items (together with local taxation) at the prices and rents ruling in England as 110 to 100;

Or, excluding that portion of English rents which represents local taxation, as 114 to 100;

It appears, therefore, that an English workman in France, living as far as possible as he had been accustomed to live in England, would find his expenditure on rent (exclusive of local taxation), food, and fuel increased by some 14 per cent, or nearly one-seventh.

Wages and hours of labor.—The weekly money wages of the working classes in French towns, in certain widely distributed trades selected for comparison, are to those of the same classes in England as 75 to 100.

The average usual working hours per week of the working classes in French towns, in the trades selected for comparison, are to those of the same classes in England as 117 to 100.

Hence the hourly rates of money wages for the working classes in French towns, in the trades selected for comparison, are to those of the same classes in English towns, approximately, as 64 to 100.

CHANGES IN RETAIL PRICES AND RATES OF WAGES BETWEEN OCTOBER, 1905, AND OCTOBER, 1907.

It will be remembered that the returns upon which the index numbers referred to in the foregoing sections are based related to October, 1905, and it will be of interest to note what changes have occurred since that date. For this purpose supplementary investigations were made in August, September, and October, 1907, in regard to the movement of prices and wages in seven representative towns (Amiens, Belfort, Bordeaux, Havre, Lyon, Rennes, and St. Etienne).

The general trend of prices seems to have been upward. Taking all the meat together, and weighting the several kinds in proportion to the average consumption of each, the average increase was approximately 5½ per cent. The price of coffee had risen 5 per cent at Bordeaux and 8 per cent at Belfort, but remained unchanged in the other towns. Sugar increased 9 per cent at Amiens, Belfort, and Bordeaux and as much as 20 per cent at Rennes, remaining unchanged in other towns. The price of bread rose by 4 or 5 per cent at Belfort, Havre, and Rennes and by 16 per cent at Bordeaux.

On the whole the average increase in prices between October, 1905, and October, 1907, of foods other than meat may be estimated at 4½ per cent and on food of all kinds at slightly under 5 per cent.

Also, the general trend of wages was upward. In the building trades wages had increased by 16 to 20 per cent for bricklayers, masons, and laborers at Belfort; by 10 to 14 per cent for carpenters and joiners at Belfort, laborers at Lyon, and bricklayers, joiners, plasterers, and painters at St. Etienne; and by 7 to 9 per cent for all skilled workmen except plumbers at Lyon, and for all except stonecutters and plumbers at Havre. On the average, wages in the building trades increased about 5 per cent. In the engineering trades the changes were less important. Taking all the towns together the average rise was about 3 per cent. Earnings in the printing trade do not appear to have increased to any appreciable extent.

The hours of labor in the engineering trades had been reduced from "60 to 66" to 60 at Belfort and from 60 to "57 to 60" at St. Etienne. In the printing trade the normal hours had been reduced from 60 to 54 at Belfort, Havre, Lyon, and St. Etienne.

EARNINGS AND HOURS OF LABOR IN BRITISH TEXTILE INDUSTRIES.

The first of a series of reports, in which the results of a general inquiry into earnings and hours of labor in all trades in the United Kingdom will be dealt with, has recently been published under the title—Report of an Inquiry by the Board of Trade into the Earnings and Hours of Labor of Work People of the United Kingdom: I.—Textile Trades in 1906. The object of this inquiry was to ascertain the amount actually earned by all classes of work people in a selected week, industry by industry, occupation by occupation, and district by district, and to obtain means of estimating their annual earnings.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

Of the different groups of trades, the textile trades are of special interest, owing to the fact that in these trades both men and women are employed in large numbers and in some cases on work of a similar character. The total number of work people employed in the textile trades in factories and workshops in 1904 was 1,171,216, of which number 80 per cent were employed in England and Wales, 13 per cent in Scotland, and 7 per cent in Ireland.

In the following table is shown the number of persons employed in each of the textile trades as shown by the factory and workshop returns for 1904, the number of work people covered by the returns received in the present inquiry, and the percentage of the total number employed in 1904 represented by the returns:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES IN TEXTILE INDUSTRIES IN 1904 AND PER CENT OF TOTAL IN EACH INDUSTRY FOR WHOM RETURNS WERE RECEIVED IN 1906.

Industry.	Number of employees in 1904.	Employees covered by returns received in present inquiry (1906).	
		Number.	Per cent of number employed in 1904.
Cotton.....	523,030	212,807	40.7
Woolen and worsted.....	263,770	122,390	46.4
Linen.....	95,950	44,493	46.4
Jute.....	41,258	17,446	42.3
Silk.....	30,184	9,740	32.3
Hosiery.....	41,212	20,672	50.2
Lace.....	26,744	8,360	31.3
Bleaching, printing, dyeing, and finishing.....	110,946	55,041	49.6
Total (including textile industries not specified).....	1,171,216	512,598	43.8

An inquiry of similar character was made in 1885. The changes in the numbers employed in the various industries since that time are of interest, especially since the number of half timers (those children under 14 years of age who are permitted to work but part of a day) has decreased materially. The numbers employed in textile factories are given in the following table for the years 1885 and 1904:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES IN TEXTILE INDUSTRIES, BY CLASSES, 1885 AND 1904.

Industry.	Adults and young persons.(a)		Half timers.		Total (counting 2 half timers as 1 full timer).		
	1885.	1904.	1885.	1904.	1885.	1904.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Cotton.....	454,077	505,379	49,992	17,651	479,073	514,204	+ 7.3
Woolen and worsted.....	258,619	253,189	23,636	8,612	270,437	257,495	- 4.8
Linen.....	102,912	92,086	8,925	3,793	107,374	93,982	-12.5
Jute.....	37,353	40,485	4,321	773	39,514	40,871	+ 3.4
Silk.....	39,300	29,226	3,195	685	41,398	29,569	-28.6
Hosiery.....	19,212	36,273	324	63	19,374	36,305	+87.4
Lace.....	15,334	18,512	552	76	15,610	18,550	+18.8
Total (including textile industries not specified).....	942,610	994,634	91,651	31,744	988,436	1,010,506	+ 2.2

* Young persons include persons 14 and under 18 years of age, and may also include persons 13 years of age who have obtained from the board of education a certificate of proficiency or attendance at school.

Of the total number of employees for whom information was obtained, 31.7 per cent were males 20 years of age and over, classified in the report as "men." The average earnings of men who worked full time in the various textile industries in the last week of September, 1906, and the percentage whose earnings fell within each specified wage group are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF MEN IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, IN EACH TEXTILE INDUSTRY, AND PER CENT OF MEN WHOSE EARNINGS WERE IN EACH SPECIFIED WAGE GROUP.

Industry.	Average earnings.	Per cent of men working full time whose earnings were—					
		Under \$4.87.	\$4.87 and under \$7.30.	\$7.30 and under \$9.73.	\$9.73 and under \$12.17.	\$12.17 and under \$14.60.	\$14.60 and over.
Cotton.....	\$7.18	16.0	43.7	21.3	14.4	4.1	0.5
Woolen and worsted.....	6.53	15.2	52.2	26.2	4.1	1.1	1.2
Linen.....	5.43	44.4	36.7	13.6	3.5	1.0	.8
Jute.....	5.25	49.1	36.0	13.4	1.3	.2
Silk.....	6.25	19.4	54.0	23.0	2.6	.6	.4
Hosiery.....	7.64	11.5	33.6	34.3	14.1	4.7	1.8
Lace.....	9.61	6.2	25.3	24.4	19.0	11.9	13.2
Carpet.....	6.47	19.4	49.7	23.4	5.5	1.6	.4
Hemp.....	6.16	22.3	50.9	21.9	3.6	.7	.6
Small wares.....	6.45	16.8	53.4	22.9	4.8	1.5	.6
Flock and shoddy.....	5.78	15.8	71.0	9.4	2.5	1.0	.3
Elastic web.....	7.36	7.9	47.0	29.0	12.0	3.3	.8
Hair.....	5.17	51.2	33.2	10.3	2.5	2.1	.7
Other textile.....	6.25	22.7	48.5	22.1	4.9	1.6	.2
Fustian and cord cutting.....	5.86	23.7	55.3	19.6	1.4
Bleaching, printing, etc.....	6.73	16.8	54.4	16.6	6.4	2.4	3.4
Total.....	6.83	18.4	46.3	21.3	9.6	3.0	1.4

Of the total number of employees for whom information was obtained, 44 per cent were females 18 years of age and over, classified as "women." The average earnings of women who worked full time in the various textile industries in the last week of September, 1906, and the percentage whose earnings fell within each specified wage group are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF WOMEN IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, IN EACH TEXTILE INDUSTRY, AND PER CENT OF WOMEN WHOSE EARNINGS WERE IN EACH SPECIFIED WAGE GROUP.

Industry.	Average earnings.	Per cent of women working full time whose earnings were—					
		Under \$2.43.	\$2.43 and under \$3.65.	\$3.65 and under \$4.87.	\$4.87 and under \$6.08.	\$6.08 and under \$7.30.	\$7.30 and over.
Cotton.....	\$4.54	3.0	20.9	35.4	29.9	9.6	1.2
Woolen and worsted.....	3.37	10.7	55.6	24.7	7.6	1.2	.2
Linen.....	2.62	41.7	49.1	8.5	.6	.1
Jute.....	3.26	6.2	66.4	25.9	1.4	.1
Silk.....	2.72	38.9	47.8	11.4	1.6	.3
Hosiery.....	3.47	14.5	44.4	30.3	9.1	1.4	.3
Lace.....	3.26	18.1	49.3	25.1	5.7	1.3	.5
Carpet.....	3.33	15.3	49.8	28.2	6.5	.2
Hemp.....	2.66	47.1	39.6	10.5	2.6	.1	.1
Small wares.....	2.78	32.2	53.0	13.7	1.01
Flock and shoddy.....	2.98	10.9	75.9	12.8	.4
Elastic web.....	2.84	21.8	65.5	12.3	.4
Hair.....	2.27	51.9	45.3	2.8
Other textile.....	3.31	18.3	44.5	30.3	6.1	.7	.1
Fustian and cord cutting.....	2.64	47.1	41.7	6.8	3.7	.7
Bleaching, printing, etc.....	3.00	27.0	51.6	15.6	5.3	.3	.2
Total.....	3.75	13.3	38.8	26.9	15.8	4.6	.6

The average earnings of males under the age of 20 years, classified in the report as "lads and boys," and of females under 18 years of age, classified as "girls," in the last week of September, 1906, are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF LADS AND BOYS AND OF GIRLS IN EACH TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906.

Industry.	Average earnings of—			
	Lads and boys.		Girls.	
	Full timers.	Half timers.	Full timers.	Half timers.
Cotton.....	\$3.08	\$0.85	\$2.68	\$0.73
Woolen and worsted.....	2.47	.89	2.25	.89
Linen.....	2.05	.81	1.78	.83
Jute.....	2.76	1.05	2.43	.99
Silk.....	2.17	.73	1.64	.65
Hosiery.....	2.29	1.89	.65
Lace.....	3.08	1.72
Carpet.....	2.31	.87	1.89	.79
Hemp.....	2.07	.67	1.72	.75
Small wares.....	1.89	.63	1.54	.59
Flock and shoddy.....	2.84	2.13
Elastic web.....	2.60	1.58
Hair.....	1.80	1.70
Other textile.....	2.31	.93	1.72	.79
Fustian and cord cutting.....	2.39	1.99
Bleaching, printing, etc.....	2.64	.79	2.01	.77
Total.....	2.76	.87	2.33	.81

The number of lads and boys formed 11 per cent and the number of girls 13.3 per cent of the total number of employees for whom information was received.

Particulars were obtained for each industry as to the total amount paid in wages in 1906 by the firms making returns, and the total amount paid in wages and the total number of persons receiving wages in one week in each month. From these data the following table was computed, showing the average earnings per head in the textile industries for the year 1906:

AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS PER HEAD IN EACH TEXTILE INDUSTRY, 1906.

Industry.	Average annual earnings per head in 1906.	Industry.	Average annual earnings per head in 1906.
Cotton.....	\$233. 59	Small wares.....	\$143. 56
Woolen and worsted.....	194. 66	Flock and shoddy.....	226. 29
Linen.....	143. 56	Elastic web.....	180. 06
Jute.....	167. 89	Hair.....	148. 43
Silk.....	167. 89	Other textile.....	189. 79
Hosiery.....	187. 36	Fustian and cord cutting.....	148. 43
Lace.....	265. 22	Bleaching, printing, etc.....	265. 22
Carpet.....	197. 09		
Hemp.....	175. 19	Total.....	211. 69

Returns furnished by employers in 1886, giving the rates of wages of their work people for a full week, have been compared with those furnished in the present inquiry. In making such comparison several important factors should be taken into consideration—the state of depression and unemployment in 1886, the improvements of machinery and processes by which operatives are enabled to increase their output and earnings, and the diminution in the number of half-timers employed.

The following table shows the average earnings of men and women in a full week in 1886 and 1906, compared, and the per cent of increase in the 20 years:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF MEN AND WOMEN IN THE PRINCIPAL TEXTILE INDUSTRIES IN ONE WEEK, 1886 AND 1906.

Industry.	Average earnings of—					
	Men.			Women.		
	1886.	1906.	Per cent of increase.	1886.	1906.	Per cent of increase.
Cotton.....	\$5. 74	\$7. 02	22	\$3. 65	\$4. 54	24
Woolen and worsted.....	5. 66	6. 53	15	3. 06	3. 37	10
Linen.....	4. 81	5. 43	13	2. 17	2. 62	21
Jute.....	4. 70	5. 25	12	2. 33	3. 26	40
Silk.....	5. 60	6. 18	11	2. 51	2. 80	11
All textile industries.....	5. 58	6. 71	20	3. 10	3. 79	22

The number of work people reported in each industry whose hours of labor for a full week were in each specified group and the average

number of hours constituting a full week in each industry are shown in the following table:

NUMBER OF WORK PEOPLE REPORTED AS WORKING EACH SPECIFIED NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK, AND AVERAGE HOURS IN A FULL WEEK, BY INDUSTRIES, 1906.

Industry.	Number of work people whose hours of labor for a full week were—										Average hours in a full week.
	52½ and under.	53 to 54½.	54 to 54½.	55 to 55½.	56 to 56½.	57 to 57½.	58 to 58½.	59 to 59½.	60 to 60½.	61 and over.	
Cotton.....	309	125	798	194,068	126	10	61	15	382	131	55.5
Woolen and worsted.....	899	380	248	96,616	3,039	312	2,404	561	713	57	55.6
Linen.....	588	787	61	41,285	134	3	3	1	16	36	55.1
Jute.....	13,247	39	4	2	7	1	55.0
Silk.....	1,157	687	495	6,748	114	61	7	1	11	6	54.5
Hosiery.....	4,113	1,604	3,684	9,692	557	7	10	15	53.9
Lace.....	1,858	994	1,088	1,802	666	97	44	11	42	137	53.2
Carpet.....	175	50	234	5,253	332	3	1	8	2	55.3
Hemp.....	1,333	354	412	4,561	522	101	24	74	26	11	54.1
Small wares.....	750	1,010	465	3,063	100	5	6	7	55.6
Flock and shoddy.....	181	38	1,131	574	1	106	114	47	6	55.7
Elastic web.....	473	40	780	3	2	53.4
Hair.....	66	40	756	28	9	1	3	54.9
Other textile.....	1,047	20	221	2,504	104	342	5	1	54.2
Fustian and cord cutting.....	27	2	277	107	45	372	78	53	57.1
Bleaching, printing, etc.....	1,499	146	10,922	18,072	12,455	628	2,429	3,888	1,610	130	55.7

THE COTTON INDUSTRY.

The cotton industry is the most important of the textile industries of the United Kingdom, since it furnishes employment to nearly 45 per cent of the total number of operatives employed in these industries.

In the following table is given an analysis of the returns for each district in Lancashire and Cheshire showing the percentage numbers and earnings of men engaged as spinners, big piecers, or weavers in the last week of September, 1906:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, OF ALL MEN IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY AND OF MEN IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS IN THE INDUSTRY IN THE VARIOUS DISTRICTS OF LANCASHIRE AND CHESHIRE.

District.	Average full-time earnings of all men.	Average earnings of—							
		Spinners.		Big piecers.		Weavers.		Other men.	
		Per cent of total number of men.	Average earnings.	Per cent of total number of men.	Average earnings.	Per cent of total number of men.	Average earnings.	Per cent of total number of men.	Average earnings.
Leigh.....	\$8.48	38	\$11.56	20	\$3.79	42	\$7.85
Manchester.....	7.85	15	11.44	8	3.89	77	7.58
Bolton.....	7.79	32	11.13	19	3.81	5	\$6.08	44	7.08
Oldham.....	7.71	33	10.18	24	4.77	43	7.42
Ashton-under-Lyne.....	7.60	30	10.18	20	4.44	4	5.33	46	7.48
Stockport.....	7.28	23	10.04	13	4.62	13	5.58	51	7.08
Burnley.....	7.20	1	7.10	65	6.71	34	8.19
Preston.....	6.93	13	9.55	6	4.34	29	5.78	52	7.32
Accrington.....	6.83	19	8.29	4	4.58	36	5.45	41	7.69
Rochdale.....	6.75	10	10.00	8	4.89	29	5.68	53	7.06
Blackburn.....	6.65	9	7.10	2	4.58	53	6.02	36	7.62
Bacup.....	6.33	7	7.48	4	4.91	47	5.84	42	7.00

The average earnings of all women and of weavers and of other women in the principal districts of Lancashire and Cheshire in the last week of September, 1906, are shown in the table following:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, OF ALL WOMEN IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY AND OF WEAVERS AND OF OTHER WOMEN IN THE INDUSTRY IN THE VARIOUS DISTRICTS OF LANCASHIRE AND CHESHIRE.

District.	Average full-time earnings of all women.	Average earnings of—			
		Weavers.		Other women.	
		Per cent of total number of women.	Average earnings.	Per cent of total number of women.	Average earnings.
Burnley.....	\$5.80	78	\$6.06	22	\$4.68
Blackburn.....	5.29	87	5.72	33	4.36
Accrington.....	4.93	77	5.09	23	4.40
Preston.....	4.79	70	4.97	30	4.34
Bacup.....	4.60	62	4.95	38	3.97
Rochdale.....	4.58	55	4.79	45	4.30
Stockport.....	4.54	41	5.11	59	4.08
Oldham.....	4.50	12	4.36	88	4.52
Ashton-under-Lyne.....	4.34	49	4.40	51	4.28
Bolton.....	4.06	28	4.56	72	3.85
Leigh.....	3.87	45	4.28	55	3.51
Manchester.....	3.59	35	3.89	65	3.43

More than one-fourth of the men and nearly one-half of the boys engaged in the cotton industry are included in the group known as mule-spinners and piecers. The work of the latter is almost identical with that of the spinner. He is usually less expert, however, and has no responsibility. The average net earnings of spinners working full time, after deducting the wages of their piecers, are given in the following table. The number of counts is determined by the number of hanks, 840 yards in length, necessary to weigh 1 pound.

NUMBER AND AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, OF SPINNERS IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY, BY DISTRICTS.

District.	Number of spinners and their average earnings.							
	Counts below 40s.		Counts 40s. to 80s.		Counts above 80s.		All counts.	
	Spinners.	Earnings.	Spinners.	Earnings.	Spinners.	Earnings.	Spinners.	Earnings.
Lancashire and Cheshire:								
Ashton-under-Lyne.....	766	\$9.69	352	\$11.25	151	\$10.20	1,269	\$10.18
Oldham.....	1,979	10.14	1,134	10.24	60	10.44	3,173	10.18
Bolton.....	136	10.75	1,125	10.95	553	11.56	1,814	11.13
Leigh.....	44	10.73	317	11.68	143	11.31	477	11.56
Manchester.....	421	9.10	172	11.66	160	11.56	753	11.44
Stockport.....	195	9.21	193	9.45	140	10.18	528	9.55
Preston.....	565	7.08	69	7.30	634	7.10
Blackburn.....	28	8.05	237	8.31	265	8.29
Accrington.....	197	7.48	72	6.77	83	7.10
Burnley.....	439	9.67	248	10.42	197	7.48
Bacup.....	704	10.00
Rochdale.....
All Lancashire and Cheshire.....	4,864	9.45	3,963	10.46	1,278	11.19	10,105	10.06
Yorkshire.....	145	7.87	54	7.97	203	7.91
United Kingdom.....	5,058	9.37	4,017	10.42	1,282	11.19	10,357	10.02

More than one-third of the employees in the cotton industry are weavers. In the following table the number and full-time earnings per head and per loom of men and women weavers are shown according to the number of looms tended:

NUMBER OF MEN AND WOMEN WEAVERS IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY, AND AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS IN ONE WEEK, PER HEAD AND PER LOOM, 1906.

Number of looms tended.	Men.			Women.		
	Number.	Average earnings—		Number.	Average earnings—	
		Per head.	Per loom.		Per head.	Per loom.
Three looms.....	1, 475	\$4. 74	\$1. 58	16, 121	\$4. 30	\$1. 44
Four looms.....	12, 253	6. 06	1. 52	26, 057	5. 70	1. 42
Six looms.....	1, 891	7. 99	1. 34	168	7. 44	1. 24

Practically all weavers are paid on a piece basis. When engaged on similar work, men and women are paid at exactly the same piece rates. On the average, however, women tend fewer looms than men, and, as shown by the above table, their earnings per loom are slightly lower than those of men. The lower earnings of women are due to the greater proportion engaged on narrow looms at a lower rate, the greater dependence for assistance upon the mechanic, and to the more general employment of helpers.

The full-time earnings of men and women weavers in the different districts are given in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, OF MEN AND WOMEN WEAVERS IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY, BY DISTRICTS.

District.	Average earnings of—						
	Men.				Women.		
	3-loom weavers.	4-loom weavers.	6-loom weavers.	All weavers.	3-loom weavers.	4-loom weavers.	All weavers.
Lancashire and Cheshire:							
Ashton-under-Lyne.....	\$4. 46	\$5. 80	\$5. 33	\$4. 36	\$5. 23	\$4. 40
Oldham.....	4. 04	5. 17	4. 36
Bolton.....	4. 10	6. 04	6. 08	4. 44	5. 56	4. 56
Leigh.....	3. 83	4. 87	4. 28
Manchester.....	3. 73	4. 87	3. 89
Stockport.....	6. 53	5. 66	5. 58	4. 50	5. 39	5. 11
Preston.....	4. 66	6. 04	5. 78	4. 58	5. 62	4. 97
Blackburn.....	4. 62	6. 18	\$7. 81	6. 02	4. 54	6. 02	5. 72
Accrington.....	4. 22	5. 96	5. 45	4. 48	5. 68	5. 09
Burnley.....	4. 91	6. 31	8. 15	6. 71	4. 85	6. 14	6. 06
Bacup.....	4. 44	5. 92	7. 34	5. 84	4. 22	5. 60	4. 95
Rochdale.....	5. 06	5. 68	7. 52	5. 68	4. 14	5. 50	4. 79
All Lancashire and Cheshire....	4. 74	6. 10	8. 01	6. 16	4. 32	5. 72	5. 07
Yorkshire.....	5. 50	7. 81	5. 64	4. 60	5. 47	4. 91
United Kingdom.....	4. 74	6. 06	7. 99	6. 14	4. 30	5. 70	5. 01

In the following table a comparison is made of the average wages of men and women working full time in certain important occupations in 1886 and 1906:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF MEN AND WOMEN IN THE PRINCIPAL OCCUPATIONS OF THE COTTON INDUSTRY IN ONE WEEK, 1886 AND 1906.

Sex and occupation.	Average earnings in one week in—		Per cent of increase.	Sex and occupation.	Average earnings in one week in—		Per cent of increase.
	1886.	1906.			1886.	1906.	
Men:				Women:			
Grinders	\$4.91	\$7.12	45	Frame tenters.....	\$3.71	\$4.74	28
Spinners—				Ring or throstle spinners..	2.92	3.65	25
Below 80 counts.....	7.46	9.85	32	Reelers.....	3.02	3.35	11
Above 80 counts.....	8.64	11.19	30	Winders.....	3.02	3.73	23
Big piecers.....	3.45	4.32	25	Beam warpers.....	4.42	5.23	18
Drawers in.....	6.10	7.52	23	Weavers—			
Twisters in.....	5.06	6.23	23	3 looms.....	3.87	4.30	11
Weavers—				4 looms.....	4.85	5.70	18
3 looms.....	4.01	4.74	18	6 looms.....	6.39	7.44	17
4 looms.....	5.07	6.06	20				
6 looms.....	6.47	7.99	24				

THE WOOLEN AND WORSTED INDUSTRY.

The woolen and worsted industry is, next to the cotton industry, the most important of those considered in this report. The average full-time earnings in the last week of September, 1906, of operatives are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF OPERATIVES OF EACH CLASS IN THE WOOLEN AND WORSTED INDUSTRY IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, BY DISTRICTS.

District.	Average earnings of—						
	Men.	Lads and boys.		Women.	Girls.		All work people.
		Full timers.	Half timers.		Full timers.	Half timers.	
Huddersfield.....	\$6.65	\$2.72	\$0.77	\$4.16	\$2.35	\$0.79	\$4.89
Leeds.....	7.10	2.53	.87	3.35	2.19	.89	3.87
Dewsbury and Batley.....	6.61	2.70	.81	3.65	2.41	.73	4.36
Halifax.....	6.33	2.33	.77	3.00	2.19	.79	3.16
Bradford.....	6.61	2.37	.91	3.06	2.29	.89	3.39
Keighley.....	6.37	2.49	.93	3.28	2.47	.99	3.41
Rest of West Riding of Yorkshire.....	6.57	2.35	.83	3.14	1.89	.85	3.83
All Yorkshire.....	6.63	2.49	.89	3.37	2.31	.89	3.83
West of England.....	5.29	2.27	.85	2.74	2.07	3.39
Roxburgh, Selkirk, and Peebles.....	6.71	2.56	4.50	2.07	4.79
Rest of Scotland.....	5.82	2.17	.73	2.84	1.78	.77	3.41
Rest of United Kingdom.....	6.04	2.35	.77	3.14	1.89	.77	3.63
United Kingdom.....	6.53	2.47	.89	3.37	2.25	.89	3.83

In the following table is shown the percentage of the number of men in several occupations whose earnings fell within the specified limits in the last week of September, 1906:

PER CENT OF MEN IN SEVERAL OCCUPATIONS OF THE WOOLEN AND WORSTED INDUSTRY WHOSE EARNINGS IN THE LAST WEEK IN SEPTEMBER, 1906, WERE WITHIN CERTAIN SPECIFIED WAGE GROUPS.

Occupation.	Per cent of men working full time whose earnings were—			
	Under \$4.87	\$4.87 and under \$7.30.	\$7.30 and under \$9.73.	\$9.73 and over.
Teazers and williers.....	18.3	81.4	0.3
Scribblers or fettlers.....	12.3	87.3	.4
Woolen weavers.....	17.1	57.4	23.6	1.9
All men.....	15.2	52.2	26.2	6.4

The average weekly earnings of women weavers working full time are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS OF WOMEN WEAVERS IN THE WOOLEN AND WORSTED INDUSTRY WORKING FULL TIME IN FOUR WEEKS IN SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER, 1906, BY DISTRICTS.

District.	Average weekly earnings of—				
	Women woolen weavers.		Women worsted weavers.		All women weavers.
	1 loom.	2 looms.	1 loom.	2 looms.	
Huddersfield.....	\$4.74	\$4.85	\$4.79
Leeds.....	3.41	4.20	3.53
Dewsbury and Batley.....	3.73	3.73
Halifax.....	3.63	\$3.61	3.43	\$3.47	3.51
Bradford.....	3.26	3.37	3.37
Kelghley.....	3.39	3.53	3.79
Roxburgh, Selkirk, and Peebles.....	4.89	4.89
All districts (including those not specified).....	3.85	3.73	4.04	3.41	3.71

In the following table the percentage of women whose earnings in the last week of September, 1906, fell in each specified class is shown for all women in the woolen and worsted industry and for those in each of the principal occupations:

PER CENT OF WOMEN IN SEVERAL OCCUPATIONS OF THE WOOLEN AND WORSTED INDUSTRY WHOSE EARNINGS IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, WERE WITHIN CERTAIN SPECIFIED WAGE GROUPS.

Occupation.	Kind of work.	Per cent of women working full time whose earnings were—			
		Under \$2.43.	\$2.43 and under \$3.65.	\$3.65 and under \$4.80.	\$4.80 and over.
Woolen weavers.....	Piece....	6.7	40.8	35.0	17.5
Worsted weavers (1 loom).....	do.....	4.9	34.4	39.4	21.3
Worsted weavers (2 looms).....	do.....	8.8	56.2	31.3	3.7
Scribblers' feeders and condenser minders.....	Time....	12.3	70.7	16.9	.1
Combers.....	do.....	3.9	86.3	9.8
Drawers.....	do.....	6.6	93.2	.2
Worsted spinners.....	do.....	46.9	53.1
Doublers.....	do.....	10.9	89.0	.1
Winders.....	Piece....	5.9	54.8	31.5	7.8
	Time....	17.0	78.6	4.0	.4
	Piece....	13.5	53.4	23.5	9.6
Burlers and knotters.....	Time....	5.7	66.0	27.7	.6
	Piece....	12.1	43.2	34.9	9.8
Menders and fine drawers.....	do.....	2.4	21.6	46.2	29.8
All women.....		10.7	55.6	24.7	9.0

For the purpose of comparing the earnings in 1906 with those in 1886 the following table is given, showing the per cent of increase in the average full-time earnings of men and women in the leading occupations:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF MEN AND WOMEN IN THE PRINCIPAL OCCUPATIONS OF THE WOOLEN AND WORSTED INDUSTRY IN ONE WEEK, 1886 AND 1906.

Sex and occupation.	Kind of work.	Average earnings in one week in—		Per cent of increase.	Sex and occupation.	Kind of work.	Average earnings in one week in—		Per cent of increase.
		1886.	1906.				1886.	1906.	
Men:					Women—concluded.				
Wool sorters.....	Time..	\$6.33	\$7.22	14	Combers.....	Time..	\$2.58	\$3.00	17
Teazers and williers.....	Piece..	6.77	7.71	14	Finishers.....	do..	2.31	2.66	15
.....	Time..	4.81	5.33	11do..	do..	2.43	2.68	10
Scribblers or fettlers.....	do..	4.81	5.45	14	Drawers.....	Piece..	2.90	3.41	17
Combers.....	do..	3.81	4.26	12	Worsted spinners.....	Time..	2.01	2.29	14
Wool spinners.....	do..	5.43	5.98	10	Doublers.....	do..	2.35	2.66	13
.....	Piece..	6.71	7.93	18	Piece..	2.98	3.53	18
Warpers.....	Time..	5.35	5.80	8	Winders.....	Time..	2.35	2.66	13
Beamers.....	Piece..	5.96	7.00	17	Piece..	2.88	3.35	16
.....	Time..	5.39	5.96	11	Weavers—				
Woolen weavers.....	Piece..	6.20	6.59	6	Woolen.....	do..	3.49	3.83	10
.....	do..	5.11	6.25	22	Worsted.....	do..	3.31	3.59	9
Women:					Burlers and knotters.....	Time..	2.72	3.20	18
Scribblers' feeders and condenser minders.....	Time..	2.74	3.08	13	Piece..	2.88	3.51	22
					Menders and fine drawers.....	Time..	3.24	3.63	12
					Piece..	3.47	4.30	24

THE LINEN INDUSTRY.

Of the 95,950 factory and workshop operatives engaged in the linen industry in the United Kingdom in 1904, the latest year for which the numbers are available, 62,194 were employed in Ireland, 27,523 in Scotland, and the remaining 6,233 in England and Wales.

The respective average earnings for men, lads and boys, women, girls, and all work people returned as working full time in the different districts are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF OPERATIVES OF EACH CLASS IN THE LINEN INDUSTRY IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, BY DISTRICTS.

District.	Average earnings of—					
	Men.	Lads and boys.		Wom-en.	Girls.	
		Full timers.	Half timers.		Full timers.	Half timers.
Belfast.....	\$6.37	\$2.17	\$0.89	\$2.64	\$1.93	\$0.87
Rest of Ireland.....	4.54	1.83	.71	2.37	1.62	.71
Fifeshire.....	6.02	2.11	.85	2.90	1.68	.91
Forfarshire.....	5.27	2.17	.97	2.80	1.87	.85
Rest of Scotland.....	5.96	2.17	1.22	2.86	2.03	.85
England.....	5.54	2.05	2.64	1.60
United Kingdom.....	5.43	2.05	.81	2.62	1.78	.83

The various women's occupations account for over 58 per cent of the total number returned. Preparers, spinners, reelers, winders, and weavers constitute nearly 88 per cent of the total number of women returned. The per cent of the number engaged at each occupation whose full-time earnings fell within certain specified limits are shown in the following table:

PER CENT OF WOMEN IN SEVERAL OCCUPATIONS OF THE LINEN INDUSTRY WHOSE EARNINGS IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, WERE WITHIN CERTAIN SPECIFIED WAGE GROUPS.

Occupation.	Kind of work.	Per cent of women working full time whose earnings were—			
		Under \$2.43.	\$2.43 and under \$3.65.	\$3.65 and under \$4.80.	\$4.80 and over.
Spinners.....	Time....	39.7	60.1	0.2
Reelers.....	Piece....	37.9	57.6	4.4	0.1
Winders.....	do.....	36.2	51.2	11.8	.8
Weavers (2-loom).....	do.....	33.3	52.0	13.6	1.1
All women.....	41.7	49.1	8.5	.7

The changes which have taken place in the earnings in the principal occupations in the city of Belfast during the period from 1886 to 1906 are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF MEN AND WOMEN IN THE PRINCIPAL OCCUPATIONS OF THE LINEN INDUSTRY IN ONE WEEK, 1886 AND 1906.

Sex and occupation.	Average earnings in one week in—		Per cent of increase.
	1886.	1906.	
Men:			
Roughers.....	\$4.50	\$5.27	17
Sorters.....	5.62	6.39	14
Women:			
Drawers and back minders.....	1.66	2.27	37
Spinners.....	2.05	2.53	24
Reelers.....	2.17	2.74	26
Winders.....	2.25	2.74	22
Weavers.....	2.29	2.80	22

THE JUTE INDUSTRY.

The jute industry is localized in the neighborhood of Dundee, and in 1904 gave employment to 41,258 persons. The average full-time earnings of men and women in the principal trades and the changes since 1886 are indicated in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF MEN AND WOMEN IN THE PRINCIPAL OCCUPATIONS OF THE JUTE INDUSTRY IN ONE WEEK, 1886 AND 1906.

Sex and occupation.	Average earnings in one week in—		Per cent of increase.	Sex and occupation.	Average earnings in one week in—		Per cent of increase.
	1886.	1906.			1886.	1906.	
Men:				Women:			
Foremen and assistant foremen (time work).....	\$5.52	\$6.49	18	Carders.....	\$1.89	\$2.60	38
Batchers.....	3.39	3.99	18	Drawers.....	1.87	2.76	48
Calendriers.....	4.16	4.85	17	Rovers.....	2.07	2.88	39
Mechanics.....	6.00	7.52	25	Feeders.....	1.89	2.86	52
				Spinners.....	2.01	2.98	48
				Reelers.....	2.41	3.63	50
				Winders.....	2.56	3.53	38
				Warpers.....	2.94	3.93	34
				Weavers:			
				1 loom.....	2.31	3.39	46
				2 looms.....	3.08	3.65	18

THE SILK INDUSTRY.

According to the factory and workshop returns the number of persons employed in the silk industry in 1904 was 30,184. Of this number 8,743 were males and 21,441 were females, including 685 half-timers, of whom 205 were boys and 480 were girls.

The average earnings of the employees who worked full time in the last week of September, 1906, are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF OPERATIVES OF EACH CLASS IN THE SILK INDUSTRY, IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, BY DISTRICTS.

District.	Average earnings of—						
	Men.	Lads and boys.		Wo- men.	Girls.		All work- people.
		Full timers.	Half timers.		Full timers.	Half timers.	
Congleton, Leek, and Macclesfield	\$5.94	\$2.05	\$0.73	\$2.68	\$1.64	\$0.63	\$3.20
Lancashire and Yorkshire	6.61	2.62	.73	3.10	1.97	.71	3.83
Eastern counties of England	6.59	1.93	2.56	1.54	2.98
Rest of United Kingdom	6.20	1.60	.51	2.72	1.54	.59	2.51
United Kingdom	6.25	2.17	.73	2.72	1.64	.65	3.20

Of the men engaged in this industry who worked full time in the last week of September, 1906, 19.4 per cent earned less than \$4.87, 54 per cent earned \$4.87 and less than \$7.30, 23 per cent earned \$7.30 and less than \$9.73, while 3.6 per cent earned \$9.73 and over.

In the following table is shown the percentage of the number of women in the two leading occupations whose earnings fell within the specified groups:

PER CENT OF WOMEN SILK WINDERS AND WEAVERS WHOSE EARNINGS IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, WERE WITHIN CERTAIN SPECIFIED WAGE GROUPS.

Occupation.	Per cent of women working full time whose earnings were—			
	Under \$2.43.	\$2.43 and under \$3.65.	\$3.65 and under \$4.80.	\$4.80 and over.
Winders (thrown silk).....	86.3	13.7
Weavers (power loom).....	26.4	51.2	18.4	4.0
All women.....	38.9	47.8	11.4	1.9

The average full-time earnings in each of the principal occupations of both sexes in the Congleton, Leek, and Macclesfield, and Lancashire and Yorkshire districts and the changes since 1886 are given in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF MEN AND WOMEN IN THE PRINCIPAL OCCUPATIONS OF THE SILK INDUSTRY IN ONE WEEK, 1886 AND 1906.

Sex and occupation.	Average earnings in one week in—		Per cent of increase.
	1886.	1906.	
Men:			
Throwsters.....	\$4.28	\$4.60	8
Pickers.....	3.63	4.89	35
Weavers.....	4.85	5.70	18
Women:			
Winders (thrown silk).....	1.95	2.17	11
Cleaners (thrown silk).....	1.83	2.11	16
Doublers (thrown silk).....	2.19	2.47	13
Preparers and carders.....	2.51	2.74	9
Weavers (piecework).....	3.16	3.53	12

THE HOSIERY INDUSTRY.

This industry is strongly localized. About 30,000 work people out of the 41,212 reported by the factory and workshop returns were employed in Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, and the adjacent parts of Derbyshire. Of the total number employed in 1904, 10,336 were males and 30,876 were females. The number of half timers was only 78, of which number 62 were girls.

The average earnings of the 18,855 operatives who worked full time in the last week of September, 1906, are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF OPERATIVES OF EACH CLASS IN THE HOSIERY INDUSTRY, IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, BY DISTRICTS.

District.	Average earnings of—					
	Men.	Lads and boys.		Women.	Girls.	
		Full timers.	Half timers.		Full timers.	Half timers.
Leicester.....	\$7.60	\$2.35	\$3.93	\$2.05
Rest of Leicestershire.....	7.18	2.21	3.43	2.09
Nottingham.....	8.42	2.47	3.39	1.62
Notts and Derbyshire (excluding Nottingham).....	8.27	2.45	2.78	1.58
Scotland.....	6.96	2.13	3.57	1.78
Rest of United Kingdom.....	6.93	1.99	2.82	1.64	\$0.65
United Kingdom.....	7.64	2.29	3.47	1.89	.65

Since the previous inquiry in 1886 the number of employees in this industry has greatly increased, women having increased in numbers in greater proportion than men, and girls in greater proportion than women.

The percentage numbers of men, lads and boys, women, and girls employed in 1886 and in 1906 were as follows:

PER CENT OF EMPLOYEES OF EACH CLASS IN THE HOSIERY INDUSTRY IN 1886 AND IN 1906.

Sex.	1886.	1906.
Men.....	32.9	19.9
Lads and boys.....	4.9	4.5
Women.....	55.3	57.0
Girls.....	6.9	18.6
Total.....	100.0	100.0

The respective average full-time earnings of all males, all females, and of all work people, counting two half timers as one full timer, were as follows:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF WORK PEOPLE IN THE HOSIERY INDUSTRY, IN ONE WEEK, 1886 AND 1906, BY SEX.

Sex.	Average earnings in one week in—		Per cent of increase(+) or decrease(—).
	1886.	1906.	
Males.....	\$5.76	\$6.55	+14
Females.....	3.16	3.06	— 3
Total.....	4.14	3.87	— 6

THE LACE INDUSTRY.

Lace making as a factory industry is confined mainly to one district in England, viz, Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, and to one in Scotland, viz, Ayrshire. In Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, 20,625 work people were employed and in Ayrshire, 3,220, in 1904, as shown by the factory and workshop returns. Of the 26,744 employees reported in that year, 12,787 were males and 13,957 were females. The number of half timers was 100, of which number 46 were boys and 54 were girls.

The average full-time earnings of the men, lads and boys, women, and girls who worked full time in the last week of September, 1906, are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE FULL-TIME EARNINGS OF OPERATIVES OF EACH CLASS IN THE LACE INDUSTRY IN THE LAST WEEK OF SEPTEMBER, 1906, BY DISTRICTS.

District.	Average earnings of—				
	Men.	Lads and boys.(a)	Women.	Girls.(a)	All work people.
Nottingham.....	\$9.53	\$3.20	\$3.63	\$1.66	\$5.58
Rest of Nottinghamshire, Derby, and North Staffordshire.....	10.87	3.22	3.00	1.83	5.86
Rest of England.....	6.49	1.72	2.92	1.48	3.45
Scotland.....	6.89	3.02	3.22	1.83	4.44
United Kingdom.....	9.61	3.08	3.26	1.72	5.43

* Full timers ; the number of half timers was insignificant.

RECENT REPORTS OF STATE BUREAUS OF LABOR STATISTICS.

CALIFORNIA.

Thirteenth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of California, 1907-1908. J. D. Mackenzie, Commissioner. 381 pp.

The following are the subjects considered in this report: Industrial statistics, covering the subjects of wages in stores and factories, transportation and communication, factory inspection, farm labor, employment agencies, and labor organizations, 174 pages; child labor, 14 pages; oriental statistics, which relate to the Chinese and Japanese in the State, 22 pages; social statistics, 100 pages; and labor laws, 52 pages.

HOURS AND WAGES.—For 28 industries comprised under stores and factories and for the transportation, telegraph, and telephone industries tables are presented showing number of establishments and of employees, classified daily hours of labor with number of employees in each class, and classified wages with number of employees in each class.

FACORY INSPECTION.—One of the duties of the bureau is to inspect the sanitary condition of places where labor is employed. In conducting this inspection data were also obtained relating to the number and sex of adults and the number, age, and sex of minors employed in the establishments inspected. Separate tables are given showing the results of inspections of stores and factories in each of the larger cities and in miscellaneous towns.

FARM LABOR.—Under this title the social, sanitary, and economic conditions surrounding white and oriental farm labor in different sections of the State are set forth. Tables are given showing the wages paid per day and per month, with and without board, for both temporary and permanent farm help, and for employees on ranches, wages per day and per month, with board.

EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES.—The law relating to employment agencies makes it the duty of the state commissioner of labor to exercise certain jurisdiction over these institutions. From the records of the more important agencies throughout the State tables have been compiled showing, for the month of April, 1908, the number of persons for whom employment was secured at each occupation, the wages received, and the amount of fees paid.

Data for San Francisco were secured covering the fiscal year 1907-8. Of 26,731 cases in which positions were secured through the agencies investigated, exclusive of female and oriental agencies, 6,588, or 24.6 per cent, were given employment in San Francisco, while 20,143, or 75.4 per cent, were sent to various localities outside of the city. The group general laborers was the largest, containing 8,149 persons, or 30.5 per cent; next were railroad laborers, with 5,558; and ranch hands, with 2,022.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—Locality, membership, hours worked per day, and rates of wages received are shown for the various trades as reported by the organizations for the year 1908. Comparative tables are also shown for January, 1906, and January, 1907, for the organizations located in the cities of San Francisco and Oakland.

CHILD LABOR.—Under the law regulating the employment of children, 83 permits to work were issued to children 12 and 13 years of age by the juvenile court of San Francisco during the two years ending June 30, 1908. During the same period, in the State as a whole, 5,518 age and schooling certificates were issued to children 14 and 15 years of age. Of this number but 360 were issued to illiterate children.

CHINESE AND JAPANESE.—An estimate is given that on September 30, 1908, there were approximately 45,000 Japanese in the State, who, it is stated, show the tendency to increase as a factor in all lines of labor throughout the State, especially in the larger centers of population. The Chinese population also seems to be gradually leaving the agricultural fields and turning toward the cities and towns. Tables are given showing the arrivals and departures of Orientals at the port of San Francisco and the hours of labor of and wages paid to Chinese and Japanese in the cities of San Francisco and Oakland and in the State as a whole by the Chinese, Japanese, and white employers during the year ending June 30, 1908. The results of the inspection of the Chinese and Japanese stores and factories in San Francisco and Oakland are also shown in tabular form.

SOCIAL STATISTICS.—Criminal statistics (misdemeanors, felonies, and juvenile crimes) and statistics of marriages and divorces for the two years ending June 30, 1908, are embraced in this presentation.

LABOR LAWS AND COURT DECISIONS.—This chapter reproduces the factory and workshop law of 1889 and the laws relating to labor as amended at the 1907 session of the state legislature, together with decisions of the supreme court upholding the validity of the child-labor laws.

COLORADO.

Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of Colorado, 1907-1908. Axel Swanson, Deputy Commissioner. 249 pp.

Among the most important subjects presented in this report are coal production, manufactures, railroad employees, labor organizations, and free employment bureaus.

COAL PRODUCTION.—The 180 mines in operation in the State during 1906 produced 10,308,420 tons of coal and gave employment to 12,030 persons. There were 248 accidents, of which 88 were fatal. The 183 mines in operation in 1907 gave employment to 12,900 persons and produced 10,965,640 tons of coal. There were 209 accidents, 99 of them being fatal.

MANUFACTURES.—Under this head a table is given which shows the number of establishments, number of employees, and average wages paid per day in the several manufacturing industries.

RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.—In this section tables are given showing for each railroad the number of employees at each occupation, the aggregate days employed during 1907, aggregate wages paid, hours worked per day, and number of accidents. The 25,468 employees were paid during the year \$14,188,885.75 in wages. Injuries were received during the year by 805 employees, resulting fatally in the case of 33.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—From the returns received to inquiries addressed to each of the labor organizations in the State there have been compiled, for 122 organizations that reported, figures relating to the membership, wages per day, hours worked per day, and months worked per year. The membership of the organizations reporting numbers approximately 15,000. The hours worked per day are reported as 8 by 33 unions, as 9 by 15 unions, as 12 by 5 unions, as 13 by 1 union, as 7 by 3 unions, and as 5 by 3 unions.

FREE EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.—By virtue of an act passed by the state legislature in April, 1907, free employment offices were established in the cities of Denver, Pueblo, and Colorado Springs. In the first 16 months of their operation positions were secured for 9,032 persons, 2,485 of whom were females.

CONNECTICUT.

Twenty-third Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for the two years ended November 30, 1908. William H. Scoville, Commissioner. 400 pp.

The subjects of inquiry presented in this report are as follows: New factory construction, 72 pages; effects of industrial depression,

40 pages; free public employment bureaus, 16 pages; directory of manufacturers, 66 pages; proceedings of child labor conference, 44 pages; strikes and lockouts, 37 pages; proposed legislation on employers' liability, 21 pages; directory of labor organizations, 22 pages; tenement houses, 14 pages; and proposed legislation on subjects relating to labor, 52 pages.

NEW FACTORY CONSTRUCTION.—A list of buildings and additions erected during the two years ending July 1, 1908, to be used for manufacturing purposes, is given under this caption. Location, material, dimensions, and cost of construction are set forth for each new structure. In 59 towns of the State 557 new buildings were erected, having a floor space of 5,316,623 square feet and costing \$6,289,005.

EFFECTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL DEPRESSION.—In the 808 establishments reporting, the average hours of work per week decreased from 57.1 in 1907 to 51.6 in 1908, or 9.6 per cent; the number of persons employed decreased from 155,587 to 141,624, or 9.0 per cent; the amount paid in wages decreased from \$74,933,188 to \$67,095,368, or 10.4 per cent, and the gross value of product decreased from \$303,417,727 to \$247,561,588, or 18.4 per cent.

FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.—The operations for the year ending November 30, 1908, of the five free public employment bureaus established on July 1, 1901, are set forth in this chapter. Detailed statements are likewise given showing by sex the number and kind of situations secured. A summary of the results for the year covered is given in the following table for the five cities in which the bureaus are located:

OPERATIONS OF FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS FOR THE YEAR ENDING NOVEMBER 30, 1908.

Location.	Applications for situations.		Applications for help.		Positions secured.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Hartford.....	1,797	2,514	967	1,633	870	1,374
Bridgeport.....	703	2,116	520	1,997	478	1,753
New Haven.....	1,322	1,450	626	1,167	595	993
Waterbury.....	850	1,603	559	1,314	524	1,178
Norwich.....	266	268	103	301	98	238
Total.....	4,938	7,951	2,775	6,412	2,565	5,536

During the 89 months from the date of the establishment of the bureaus there were 94,127 applications for situations, 40,884 by males and 53,243 by females. Employers made application for 24,967 male and 51,236 female workers, a total of 76,203 persons. As a result of the operations of the bureaus, 62,363 positions were secured, 22,780 by males and 39,583 by females.

In 1908 there were 51 private employment agencies, located in 14 cities, which were lawfully authorized to transact business.

CHILD LABOR CONFERENCE.—In this section the speeches made at a conference of officials, manufacturers, labor leaders, and educators held in Hartford, December 4, 1908, are reproduced in full. It was the consensus of opinion that the minimum age for children to begin work in the factories should be set at 16 years.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.—Under this head are given brief accounts of the labor troubles of the State for the year ending October 31, 1908, and a tabulated statement of 33 disputes—32 strikes and 1 lockout—showing the date, class of labor, name of employer, location, number of employees involved, duration, causes, and results. The number of employees involved in these disputes was 3,460, with a reported loss of time of 34,194 working days and of wages to the estimated amount of \$55,052. These disputes took place in 22 towns of the State, and 25 occupations were represented. The assigned cause or object in 12 cases related to systems of management, in 6 cases to proposed reduction of wages, and in 5 cases demand was made for increase of wages. In 15 disputes the workmen were successful and in 14 unsuccessful, 1 dispute was compromised, and 3 disputes were amicably adjusted.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY.—This section contains the report and recommendations of a committee appointed by the governor, by direction of the general assembly, for the purpose of making examination concerning and recommending legislation for the regulation of the liability of employers for accidents to employees. The proposed law resulting from the recommendations of the committee is given in full.

TENEMENT HOUSES.—In this chapter of the report the bureau presents a brief compilation made from the returns filed by the building inspectors of the various cities in which the tenement-house act is operative. During 1907, in the 6 cities in which the law is operative, permits were granted for the erection of 471 buildings of the class included within the provisions of the law, and in 1908 permits were issued for 287. These were distributed as follows: Hartford, 186; New Haven, 95; Bridgeport, 227; Waterbury, 157; New Britain, 85; and Meriden, 8.

INDIANA.

Twelfth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Statistics for 1907 and 1908. Mary A. Stubbs Moore, Chief of Bureau. 896 pp.

The subjects presented in this report are as follows: Social statistics, 147 pages; economic statistics, 273 pages; agricultural statistics, 184 pages; industrial statistics, 267 pages.

INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS.—The subjects considered in this division of the report relate to labor organizations and to electric railroads;

also there is included an industrial directory of the cities and towns of the State.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—There were 10 international organizations in 1908 with headquarters in Indiana, 3 of which were not affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. In 1908 there were 1,043 local trade unions in the State, belonging to 77 national and international organizations. The reported membership of these local unions was 66,152.

ELECTRIC RAILROADS.—In 1907, 31 electric-railroad systems in the State reported statistics regarding their operation. Including officers and clerks, they employed 4,095 persons in 1906 and 5,654 in 1907, to whom were paid in salaries and wages \$2,524,475 in 1906 and \$3,287,104 in 1907. In 1907 the average daily wages of motor-men were \$1.92; of conductors, \$1.84; and of linemen, \$2.38. As the result of accidents there were 68 killed and 3,243 injured. In 1906 damages were paid to the amount of \$166,928 for accidents, and in 1907 to the amount of \$217,722.

Sixth Biennial Report of the Indiana Labor Commission for 1907 and 1908. C. F. Woerner and G. W. Purcell, Commissioners, 122 pp.

This volume contains the report of a commission appointed by the governor of the State for the purpose of mediation and arbitration of labor disputes. Accounts are given of the circumstances leading up to 21 strikes occurring during the years 1907 and 1908, and of the conduct and settlement of the strikes.

IOWA.

Thirteenth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the State of Iowa for the biennial period, 1906-1907. Edward D. Brigham, Commissioner. 363 pp.

In this report the following subjects are presented: Factory inspection, 62 pages; graded wages and salaries, 98 pages; new industries, 20 pages; trade unions, 31 pages; wage-earners, 43 pages; railroad employees, 26 pages; employers' statistical report, 59 pages; the canning industry, 10 pages; crop statistics, 11 pages.

GRADED WAGES AND SALARIES.—This is a compilation, embracing 590 establishments in 148 lines of business, showing by occupation and sex the maximum, medium, and minimum wages paid per hour, day, week, month, or year in 69 counties of the State. The number of hours worked per day and per week and the wage changes for the year 1907 are also given.

NEW INDUSTRIES.—The subject-matter of this inquiry consists of information from 38 counties of the State, and is presented in two parts. The first part shows, by counties, the number and kind of manufacturing industries and the business houses (wholesale and retail) established since 1906. The second part shows, by counties, the number and kind of new industries, manufacturing and mercantile, desired in each locality, together with the natural or acquired advantages and the inducements offered.

TRADE UNIONS.—In this section is presented a compilation of returns made by 431 of the 662 local unions in the State. Tables are given showing for each local union the location, year of organization, membership, dues paid, amount expended for sick and funeral benefits, the extent to which demands are made for the employment of union men only, the hours worked per day, the minimum and maximum wages received, with changes since 1905, and the number of strikes occurring during the same period. The combined membership of the unions reporting was 30,593. The average increase of minimum wages for the State was 8.81 per cent and the average increase of maximum wages was 7.64 per cent.

WAGE-EARNERS.—Data furnished by 404 individual wage-earners of the State engaged in 50 occupations relating to hours of labor per day, wages, annual earnings, savings, conditions of employment, amount of insurance carried, ownership of home, changes in hours and wages, etc., are presented in this chapter. The total wages earned during 1907 by 261 male wage-earners who reported was \$208,824, or an average of \$800.09 for each. The earnings of 15 female wage-earners reporting aggregated \$5,256, or an average of \$350.40 for each. Savings for the year amounted to \$27,715 by the 125 males and to \$455 by the 7 females reporting, or an average of \$221.72 for the males and \$15.68 for the females. Fire insurance was carried on their homes by 199 males to the extent of \$204,592, or an average of \$1,028.10 for each. Home owners numbered 89, while 64 reported the ownership of an equity in their homes amounting to 44.5 per cent of the valuation.

RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.—This is an investigation of the conditions surrounding the employment of railroad men in the transportation branch of the service, and a record of the accidents to railroad employees within the State during the years 1906 and 1907, and of accidents to employees, passengers, and others during the period 1878 to 1907. Returns from the railroad employees show that the average run per month was 3,397 miles for 17 conductors on 3 different systems, 2,978 miles for 35 engineers on 10 different systems, 3,098 miles for 9 firemen on 5 different systems, and 3,370 miles for 10 trainmen on 3 different systems. For conductors the average

monthly earnings reported for 1907 was \$116.77; for engineers, \$125.90; for firemen, \$84.47; and for trainmen, \$71.67.

EMPLOYERS' STATISTICAL REPORT.—These returns, presented in two tables, cover the year 1907, and were furnished by employers in 1,100 industrial establishments, in 87 counties of the State, in which 49,037 persons were employed, 41,135 being wage-workers and 7,902 salaried employees.

The first table, arranged by counties, gives in detail character of industry, number of establishments reporting, number of employees (men, women, and children), hours worked per day, days in operation during the year, increases and decreases in wages, and amount paid in wages during the year to each class of wage-workers (men, women, and children). In addition there is given the amount paid in salaries during the year to men and women, together with the number employed of each sex.

The second table summarizes, by counties, the data presented in the first table. It shows that the 41,135 persons employed as wage-workers in the 1,100 establishments earned during 1907 the sum of \$22,180,543. Of the total, 32,690 men earned \$19,867,555; 7,405 women earned \$2,139,193; and 1,040 children under 16 years of age earned \$173,795. The average annual earnings of the men were \$607.76; of the women, \$288.88, and of the children under 16 years of age, \$167.11. To the 7,902 salaried employees the sum of \$7,842,229 was paid, \$7,205,078 to 6,542 men and \$637,151 to 1,360 women. The average annual salary received by the men was \$1,101.36 and by the women \$468.49. The average number of persons employed in each of the 1,100 establishments was 44.6, the average hours worked per day 9.8, and the average number of days per year 298.

CANNING INDUSTRY.—The table relating to this industry is arranged by counties, and shows for the year 1907 the number of plants reporting, time in operation, number of men, women, and children employed, hours worked per day, and amount paid in wages during the year to each class of wage-workers; also the number of men and women employed on salary, together with the total amount paid each class during the year.

MONTANA.

Tenth Report of the Bureau of Agriculture, Labor, and Industry, of the State of Montana for the year ending November 30, 1906.

J. A. Ferguson, Commissioner. 478 pp.

Following are the general titles of the subjects treated in this report: Montana (general review of conditions in the State), 6 pages; lands, 56 pages; irrigation, 62 pages; agriculture, 76 pages; labor, 45 pages; the industries, 58 pages; miscellaneous, 165 pages.

LABOR.—A variety of subjects relating to labor are presented under this general head.

The full text is given of laws recently enacted relating to the liability of employers, and to restricting the employment of children under the age of 16 years.

The following statement shows the transactions of the free public employment office located at Butte for the two years ending November 30, 1906, and of the office at Great Falls for the 14 months from the time of its establishment to November 30, 1906:

TRANSACTIONS OF THE MONTANA FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1905 AND 1906.

Office.	Applications for work.			Appli- cations for help.	Positions secured.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.		Male.	Female.	Total.
Butte.....	13,333	13,020	26,353	22,032	9,890	8,634	18,524
Great Falls.....	989	280	1,269	859	370	111	481

Other subjects presented under the general title "Labor" are hours of railway employees, decision of the supreme court of the State on the 8-hour law, wage scales, spotted fever, and a directory of the labor organizations in the State.

INDUSTRIES.—The amount, value, etc., of production of the various mineral resources of the State for 1904 and 1905 are extensively detailed under this general head; also the product of breweries and creameries, and the production of lumber, and of brick and other clay products. During the year 1904 there were produced by the coal mines in the State 1,435,917 tons of coal, the mines paying \$1,990,887 for labor. The coal production in 1905 was 1,759,560 tons, and the amount paid for labor \$2,080,763. In the production of brick and other clay products there was expended for labor \$134,540 during 1904 and \$163,841 during 1905.

RECENT FOREIGN STATISTICAL PUBLICATIONS.

BELGIUM.

Les Industries à Domicile en Belgique. L'Industrie du Meuble à Malines. La Broderie sur Linge et l'Industrie du Col, du Corset, de la Cravate et de la Chemise; l'Industrie du Vêtement Confectionné pour Femmes à Bruxelles; l'Industrie de la Corderie. Office du Travail, Ministère de l'Industrie et du Travail. Volume VIII. 1907. 54, 404, 200 pp.

This volume is the eighth in a series presenting the results of an inquiry into the conditions of home workers in Belgian industries. The first part reviews the furniture industry in the characteristic and important center of Malines; the second, the making of embroidery and women's apparel throughout the Kingdom, with a special chapter on the making of women's clothing at Brussels and one on home workers in various forms of the clothing industry in Berlin; while the third part is taken up with an account of rope making.

The investigation was undertaken with a view to the procuring of adequate data for the enactment of legislation for the improvement of the condition of employment at home, and covers the physical, social, moral, and economic conditions of the various industries, showing the origin and development of such industries, present methods of work, the use of machinery, the sources of the labor supply, methods of marketing, competition to be met, etc. The volume contains a number of charts and illustrations.

Salaires et Durée du Travail dans les Industries des Métaux au mois d'Octobre 1903. Office du Travail, Ministère de l'Industrie et du Travail. 1907. 54, xiii, 1103 pp.

The report named above presents data as to wages and hours of labor in the metal working industries of Belgium, and is the third of a series covering the principal industries of that country, the preceding reports having reference to coal mining and textile industries, respectively. These three groups of industries include almost one-half the industrial population of Belgium as shown by the census of 1896, there being 116,274 persons employed in coal mines, 82,768 in textile industries, and 99,641 in metal working, out of a total employed population of 671,596 persons. The present report deals with a total of 93,050 persons, or 93.4 per cent of the number shown by the

census of 1896. Detailed analyses of the results of the inquiry into the metal-working industries are presented in the second volume, the first setting forth the methods and general results of the inquiry.

The data presented were secured by personal visits of agents of the labor office, and relate only to establishments employing ten or more persons on October 31, 1903, or during the week or fortnight prior thereto, except in four instances in which smaller establishments are included for reasons not stated. Members of the proprietors' families and superintendents, overseers, engineers, watchmen, bookkeepers, and other office employees, as well as home workers, are excluded from consideration, and the hours of labor reported are the hours of actual employment customarily observed in the establishments, omitting parts of days and extra time worked. Actual wages paid were secured from the pay rolls, omitting pay for overtime, but including premiums and gratuities received by the employees.

The two following tables show the number of employees in different classes of industries by sex and age; also the number of establishments considered, arranged according to the number of employees:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES OF EACH SEX AND AGE GROUP IN SPECIFIED METAL-WORKING INDUSTRIES, OCTOBER, 1903.

Kind of industry.	Males.			Females.			Total employees.
	Under 16 years of age.	16 years and over.	Total.	Under 16 years of age.	16 years and over.	Total.	
Manufacture of common metals other than iron.....	114	8,311	8,425	6	73	79	8,504
Iron manufactures.....	964	19,870	20,834	31	421	452	21,286
Machinery and metal products.....	2,081	32,310	34,391	18	339	357	34,748
Foundries.....	591	8,473	9,064	30	30	9,094
Iron founding, locksmithing, stove making.....	266	3,233	3,499	14	41	55	3,554
Bolts, nails, screws, chains, wire, etc.	598	2,597	3,195	146	548	694	3,889
Firearms.....	79	2,387	2,466	10	360	370	2,836
Cutlery.....	9	53	62	62
Household utensils.....	330	2,114	2,444	237	661	898	3,342
Metal working.....	18	895	913	15	62	77	990
Specialties.....	328	3,942	4,270	97	378	475	4,745
Total.....	5,378	84,185	89,563	574	2,913	3,487	93,050

Of the total number of employees, only 3,487, or 3.7 per cent, are females, of whom 574 were under 16 years of age. Females were employed in every industrial group but one. The total number of employees under 16 years of age was 5,952, or 6.4 per cent of the whole number. Two industries, classed in the table as iron manufactures (including blast furnaces, the manufacture of steel, iron, puddling, and the manufacture of iron and steel plates) and machinery and metal products (including the construction of engines, boilers, and locomotives, shipbuilding, etc.), employ 56,034 persons, or 60.2 per cent of the total, no other industry having as many as 10,000 employees.

NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS HAVING EACH CLASSIFIED NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES IN SPECIFIED METAL-WORKING INDUSTRIES, OCTOBER, 1903.

Kind of industry.	Establishments having employees numbering—										Total establishments.
	Under 10.	10 to 19.	20 to 49.	50 to 99.	100 to 199.	200 to 299.	300 to 399.	400 to 499.	500 to 999.	1,000 to 1,999.	
Manufacture of common metals other than iron.....		2	2	1	11	1	1	1	9		28
Iron manufactures.....			2	5	18	9	10	5	12	1	62
Machinery and metal products.....		110	148	66	39	12	11	8	10	1	405
Foundries.....	2	86	98	26	11	1	1	1	1		227
Iron founding, locksmithing, stove making.....		45	28	14	3	2	1				93
Bolts, nails, screws, chains, wire, etc.....		11	13	12	9	4	1				50
Firearms.....		14	18	7	3		1		1		44
Cutlery.....		3	1								4
Household utensils.....		10	6	2	2	3	4		1		28
Metal working.....		8	11	2	3						24
Specialties.....	2	44	43	20	7	1		1			118
Total.....	4	333	370	155	106	33	30	16	34	2	1,083

Of the establishments under consideration, 337, or nearly one-third, have fewer than 20 employees, while the number having from 20 to 49 employees includes rather more than another third. Only 36 establishments have 500 employees and over.

Wages are presented for different classes of employees, the next table showing the number of adult male employees receiving the various rates of wages indicated. The wages of 49 workmen of this group were not obtainable, and they are therefore omitted from this presentation. The table shows the wages of males 16 years of age and over for a normal day.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF MALES 16 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER IN METAL-WORKING INDUSTRIES RECEIVING EACH SPECIFIED RATE OF WAGES, OCTOBER, 1903.

Rate of wages.	Employees.		Rate of wages.	Employees.	
	Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.
Less than 1.50 francs (\$0.290)...	978	1.16	4.50 to 4.74 francs (\$0.869 to \$0.915).....	5,413	6.43
1.50 to 1.74 francs (\$0.290 to \$0.336).....	1,495	1.78	4.75 to 4.99 francs (\$0.917 to \$0.963).....	3,031	3.60
1.75 to 1.99 francs (\$0.338 to \$0.384).....	1,442	1.71	5.00 to 5.24 francs (\$0.965 to \$1.011).....	4,153	4.94
2.00 to 2.24 francs (\$0.386 to \$0.432).....	2,699	3.21	5.25 to 5.49 francs (\$1.013 to \$1.060).....	1,706	2.03
2.25 to 2.49 francs (\$0.434 to \$0.481).....	2,263	2.69	5.50 to 5.74 francs (\$1.062 to \$1.108).....	2,081	2.47
2.50 to 2.74 francs (\$0.483 to \$0.529).....	4,407	5.24	5.75 to 5.99 francs (\$1.110 to \$1.156).....	1,036	1.23
2.75 to 2.99 francs (\$0.531 to \$0.577).....	4,926	5.86	6.00 to 6.24 francs (\$1.158 to \$1.204).....	1,367	1.63
3.00 to 3.24 francs (\$0.579 to \$0.625).....	9,048	10.75	6.25 to 6.49 francs (\$1.206 to \$1.253).....	571	.08
3.25 to 3.49 francs (\$0.627 to \$0.674).....	7,079	8.41	6.50 to 6.74 francs (\$1.255 to \$1.301).....	644	.77
3.50 to 3.74 francs (\$0.676 to \$0.722).....	8,657	10.29	6.75 to 6.99 francs (\$1.303 to \$1.349).....	323	.38
3.75 to 3.99 francs (\$0.724 to \$0.770).....	6,575	7.82	7.00 francs and over (\$1.351 and over).....	1,626	1.93
4.00 to 4.24 francs (\$0.772 to \$0.818).....	8,071	9.59	Total.....	84,136	100.00
4.25 to 4.49 francs (\$0.820 to \$0.867).....	4,545	5.40			

* Not including 49, wages not reported.

More than one-half the employees (52.26 per cent) receive wages within the range from 3.00 to 4.50 francs (57.9 to 86.9 cents) per day; the number receiving less than 3 francs (57.9 cents) was 21.65 per cent of the total, while 26.09 per cent received more than 4.50 francs (86.9 cents). Only 11.12 per cent of the total number received wages in excess of 5.24 francs (\$1.01) per day.

The following tables show in the same form as the foregoing table the same facts as to wages of females over 16 years of age and of children of both sexes under 16 years of age. Four boys who received no wages and 7 whose wages were not reported are omitted.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF FEMALES 16 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER IN METAL-WORKING INDUSTRIES RECEIVING EACH SPECIFIED RATE OF WAGES, OCTOBER, 1903.

Rate of wages.	Employees.		Rate of wages.	Employees.	
	Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.
Less than 1 franc (\$0.193).....	13	0.45	2.75 to 2.99 francs (\$0.531 to \$0.577).....	81	2.78
1.00 to 1.24 francs (\$0.193 to \$0.239).....	137	4.70	3.00 to 3.24 francs (\$0.579 to \$0.625).....	55	1.89
1.25 to 1.49 francs (\$0.241 to \$0.288).....	407	13.97	3.25 to 3.94 francs (\$0.627 to \$0.674).....	35	1.20
1.50 to 1.74 francs (\$0.290 to \$0.336).....	627	21.52	3.50 to 3.74 francs (\$0.676 to \$0.722).....	6	.21
1.75 to 1.99 francs (\$0.338 to \$0.384).....	676	23.21	3.75 to 3.99 francs (\$0.724 to \$0.770).....	16	.55
2.00 to 2.24 francs (\$0.386 to \$0.432).....	479	16.44	4.00 francs and over (\$0.772 and over).....	13	.45
2.25 to 2.49 francs (\$0.434 to \$0.481).....	199	6.83	Total.....	2,913	100.00
2.50 to 2.74 francs (\$0.483 to \$0.529).....	169	5.80			

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF EMPLOYEES UNDER 16 YEARS OF AGE IN METAL-WORKING INDUSTRIES RECEIVING EACH SPECIFIED RATE OF WAGES, OCTOBER, 1903.

Rate of wages.	Males.		Females.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Less than 0.50 franc (\$0.097).....	101	1.88	4	0.70
0.50 to 0.74 francs (\$0.097 to \$0.143).....	511	9.52	37	6.44
0.75 to 0.99 francs (\$0.145 to \$0.191).....	705	13.14	116	20.21
1.00 to 1.24 francs (\$0.193 to \$0.239).....	1,514	28.21	320	55.75
1.25 to 1.49 francs (\$0.241 to \$0.288).....	1,080	20.12	88	15.33
1.50 to 1.74 francs (\$0.290 to \$0.336).....	648	12.08	9	1.57
1.75 to 1.99 francs (\$0.338 to \$0.384).....	371	6.91		
2.00 francs and over (\$0.386 and over).....	437	8.14		
Total.....	5,367	100.00	574	100.00

* Not including 4 who received no wages and 7 whose wages were not reported.

The majority of adult females (61.17 per cent) received from 1.50 to 2.24 francs (29 to 43.2 cents), 19.12 per cent receiving less than 1.50 francs (29 cents), and 19.71 per cent more than 2.24 francs (43.2 cents). But 1.21 per cent received 3.50 francs (67.6 cents) and over per day.

Of the boys, 48.33 per cent received wages ranging from 1 to 1.49 francs (19.3 to 28.8 cents), while 55.75 of the girls employed received from 1 to 1.24 francs (19.3 to 23.9 cents) per day.

The report shows that in by far the greater number (82.14 per cent) of all cases, wages are paid on a time basis, the percentage of males paid by piece rates being considerably smaller than that of the females so paid. The following table shows for each class of employees the number and per cent employed by the hour, day, etc., and at piecework, whether working separately or collectively (in gangs or teams). Four boys who received no wages are omitted:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF TIME WORKERS AND PIECEWORKERS EMPLOYED IN THE METAL-WORKING INDUSTRIES, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS AND BY METHOD OF PAYMENT, OCTOBER, 1903.

Sex and age group.	Time workers.								Piece workers.					
	By the hour.		By the day.		By the week, fortnight, or month.		Total.		Employed—				Total.	
									Individually.		Collectively.			
	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.
Males:														
Under 16 years of age.....	2,642	49.16	1,869	34.78	149	2.77	4,660	86.71	679	12.64	35	0.65	714	13.29
16 years of age and over.....	40,345	47.93	28,466	33.81	579	.69	69,390	82.43	11,104	13.19	3,691	4.38	14,795	17.57
Females:														
Under 16 years of age.....	147	25.61	250	43.56	3	.52	400	69.69	174	30.31	174	30.31
16 years of age and over.....	909	31.20	1,058	36.32	13	.45	1,980	67.97	933	32.03	933	32.03
Total.....	44,043	47.33	31,643	34.01	744	.80	76,430	82.14	12,890	13.85	3,726	4.01	16,616	17.86

The remaining subject presented is that of hours of labor. The facts disclosed by the investigation under review appear in the following tables, showing first, by sex and by age groups, the daily hours of labor of all employees; and second, by industries, the number of establishments observing specified periods of labor. In the first table 4 males under 16 years of age are omitted because their hours of labor were not reported. The hours given are for actual working time, except as noted.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF EMPLOYEES IN THE METAL WORKING INDUSTRIES
WORKING EACH SPECIFIED NUMBER OF HOURS PER DAY, BY SEX AND BY
AGE GROUPS, OCTOBER, 1903.

Hours of labor per day.	Males.				Females.				All employees.	
	Under 16 years of age.		16 years of age and over.		Under 16 years of age.		16 years of age and over.		Num-ber.	Per cent.
	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.		
8 and under.....	11	0.20	2,001	2.38	8	0.27	2,020	2.17
8½ to 9.....	54	1.01	625	.74	3	.10	682	.73
9 to 9½.....	37	.69	323	.38	4	0.70	73	2.51	437	.47
9½ to 10.....	2,774	51.62	41,062	48.78	321	55.92	1,504	51.63	45,661	49.07
10 to 10½.....	1,015	18.89	17,265	20.51	83	14.46	648	22.25	19,011	20.43
10½ to 11.....	1,271	23.65	18,848	22.39	166	28.92	624	21.42	20,909	22.47
11 to 11½.....	109	2.03	1,957	2.32	53	1.82	2,119	2.28
11½ to 12.....	a 99	1.84	b 1,998	2.37	c 2,097	2.26
Over 12.....	4	.07	106	.13	110	.12
Total.....	45,374	100.00	84,185	100.00	574	100.00	2,913	100.00	493,046	100.00

a Including 20 persons whose periods of rest were not deducted.

b Including 777 persons whose periods of rest were not deducted.

c Including 797 persons whose periods of rest were not deducted.

d Not including 4 males under 16 years of age, hours of labor not reported.

NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS IN THE METAL WORKING INDUSTRIES OBSERV-
ING DESIGNATED HOURS OF LABOR, BY KIND OF INDUSTRY, OCTOBER, 1903.

Kind of industry.	Number of establishments working—										Total estab-lish-ments.	Total em-ploy-ees.
	8 hrs. and under.	8½ to 8½ hrs.	9 to 9 hrs.	9½ to 9½ hrs.	10 to 10 hrs.	10½ to 10½ hrs.	11 to 11 hrs.	11½ to 11½ hrs.	12 to 12 hrs.	Over 12 hrs.		
Manufacture of common metals other than iron.....	1	24	2	1	28	8,504
Iron manufactures.....	27	25	9	1	62	21,286
Machinery and metal products.....	2	9	2	185	45	128	19	13	2	405	34,748
Foundries.....	97	32	88	5	5	227	9,094
Ironworking, locksmithing, and stove making.....	1	35	9	36	7	5	93	3,554
Boils, nails, screws, chains, wire, etc.	1	14	21	12	2	50	3,889
Firearms.....	1	32	6	4	1	44	2,836
Cutlery.....	1	2	1	4	62
Household utensils.....	10	4	12	1	1	28	3,342
Metal working.....	1	14	4	4	1	24	990
Specialties.....	2	3	63	9	31	3	7	118	4,745
Total.....	4	11	8	502	157	326	39	34	2	1,083	93,050

These tables show that the great body of employees (91.97 per cent) work from 9½ to 11 hours daily, while nearly one-half (49.07 per cent) work 9½ to 10 hours. Practically the same showing is apparent from an examination of the second table, 90.95 per cent of the establishments observing a working day of from 9½ to 11 hours, and 46.35 per cent a working day of 9½ to 10 hours.

The industrial census of 1896, to which reference has already been made, contains data which make it possible to compare the wages and hours of labor of that date with those of the period considered by the present report.

These comparisons are made in the following tables. In comparing rates of wages only those of males over 16 years of age are used, while in the table showing hours of labor, all classes of employees are considered. The figures for 1903 do not include 49 employees in the first table whose wages were not reported and 4 employees in the second table whose hours of labor were not reported.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF ADULT MALES IN METAL WORKING INDUSTRIES RECEIVING EACH SPECIFIED RATE OF WAGES IN 1896 AND 1903.

Rates of wages.	1896.		1903.		Rates of wages.	1896.		1903.	
	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.		Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.
Less than 1.50 francs (\$0.290).....	2,702	3.27	978	1.16	4.50 to 4.99 francs (\$0.869 to \$0.963).....	5,622	6.80	8,444	10.04
1.50 to 1.99 francs (\$0.290 to \$0.384).....	3,924	4.74	2,937	3.49	5.00 to 5.49 francs (\$0.965 to \$1.060).....	3,907	4.72	5,859	6.96
2.00 to 2.49 francs (\$0.386 to \$0.481).....	7,738	9.35	4,962	5.90	5.50 to 5.99 francs (\$1.062 to \$1.156).....	1,947	2.35	3,117	3.71
2.50 to 2.99 francs (\$0.483 to \$0.577).....	13,465	16.28	9,333	11.09	6.00 to 6.49 francs (\$1.158 to \$1.253).....	1,175	1.42	1,938	2.30
3.00 to 3.49 francs (\$0.579 to \$0.674).....	16,322	19.73	16,127	19.17	6.50 to 6.99 francs (\$1.255 to \$1.349).....	475	.57	967	1.15
3.50 to 3.99 francs (\$0.676 to \$0.770).....	13,862	16.75	15,232	18.10	7.00 francs and over (\$1.351 and over).....	1,047	1.27	1,626	1.93
4.00 to 4.49 francs (\$0.772 to \$0.867).....	10,550	12.75	12,616	15.00	Total.....	82,736	100.00	84,136	100.00

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF EMPLOYEES IN METAL WORKING INDUSTRIES IN 1896 AND 1903, BY HOURS OF LABOR PER DAY.

Hours of labor per day.	Common metals other than iron.				Iron manufactures.				Other metal-working industries.			
	Employees in 1896.		Employees in 1903.		Employees in 1896.		Employees in 1903.		Employees in 1896.		Employees in 1903.	
	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.
8 and under.....	691	11.13	1,846	21.71	11	0.06	18	0.09	274	0.40	156	0.25
Over 8, to 9.....	66	1.06	33	.39	60	.28	884	1.30	589	0.93
Over 9, to 10.....	4,091	65.92	5,779	67.96	8,822	46.37	7,863	36.94	24,260	35.62	32,456	51.31
Over 10, to 10½.....	976	15.73	400	4.70	8,754	46.00	9,096	42.73	12,697	18.64	9,515	15.04
Over 10½, to 11.....	42	.68	31	.36	1,319	6.93	3,800	17.85	18,312	26.88	17,078	27.00
Over 11, to 11½.....	315	5.08	110	.58	6,335	9.30	2,119	3.35
Over 11½, to 12.....	25	.40	415	4.88	12	.06	9,449	2.11	3,666	5.38	1,233	1.95
Over 12.....	1,691	2.48	110	.17
Total.....	6,206	100.00	8,504	100.00	19,030	100.00	21,286	100.00	68,119	100.00	63,256	100.00

* Of this total, 172 persons are on duty 24 hours in succession, with a like period off duty; the remainder have duty and rest periods of 12 hours' duration. In both cases there are intervals of rest during employment aggregating from 1 to 2 hours per day.

† Periods of rest not deducted for 382 employees.

These tables show a twofold improvement in respect of these important factors in the conditions of employment. The proportion of employees receiving less than 2.50 francs (48.3 cents) was 17.36 per cent of the total in 1896, while in 1903 it was but 10.55 per cent; and the proportion of those receiving 4.50 francs (86.9 cents) and over in 1896 comprised but 17.13 per cent of the total, while in 1903 it formed 26.09 per cent.

The showing of the table of working time is more complex, and embraces a number of factors not superficially in evidence. One of these is that in 1896 several establishments were included which had fewer than 10 employees, but which are not embraced in the report for 1903. Another is that in a number of establishments reported at both periods large changes have been made, either of increase or decrease, in the working force, but without changing the hours of labor. These changes have served to modify the percentages even though there has been no actual change in this respect in the working conditions of the industry represented. A third fact is that in the groups "Common metals other than iron" and "Iron manufactures" the work period is not actually 12 hours, but really only 10 to 11 hours, though the workmen must be within call continuously; also, the very considerable apparent increase in the first-named group in the number of persons working 8 hours per day or less is said to be due not so much to the actual reduction of the hours of labor per week of the employees affected as to a rearrangement of the work schedule, by which three 8-hour shifts in a day have been substituted for 24 consecutive hours on duty followed by 24 hours of rest.

A comparison of the reports for the two years for the group "Other metal-working industries," which comprises a large majority of all employees in the metal-working industries, shows that in 1896, 35.62 per cent of the employees worked from 9 to 10 hours, while the number similarly employed in 1903 was 51.31 per cent of the total, the change being effected by a reduction of the number of employees working more than 11 hours. The actual summary in this connection shows that 17.16 per cent of all employees worked more than 11 hours daily in 1896, whereas but 5.47 per cent were so employed in 1903.

GERMANY.

Arbeitslosenzählung vom 17. November 1908 in Berlin und 27 Vororten. Statistisches Amt der Stadt Berlin. 1908. 10 pp.

On November 17, 1908, a census of unemployed persons in Berlin and 27 suburbs was taken under the direction of the municipal statistical office, the results of which are summarized in a pamphlet bearing the title quoted above. The following method of collecting the data was adopted: A large number of local offices were established, usually in schoolhouses, and by advertisements and other means the unemployed were requested to present themselves at those offices on November 17 and fill out a schedule describing the principal facts in each case.

The number of persons unemployed in the whole area covered was as follows:

NUMBER OF PERSONS OF EACH SEX UNEMPLOYED IN THE CITY OF BERLIN AND 27 SUBURBS, BY GROUPS OF OCCUPATIONS, NOVEMBER 17, 1908.

Occupation group.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Agriculture, stock raising.....	347	20	367
Forestry, etc.....	7	1	8
Gardening.....	298	24	322
Fishing.....	1	1
Mining, smelting, etc.....	22	22
Stone and earths.....	610	8	618
Metal working.....	5,173	73	5,246
Machinery, tools, etc.....	3,004	139	3,143
Chemical industry.....	247	24	271
Forestry by-products.....	292	5	297
Textile industry.....	147	43	190
Paper and leather.....	1,159	138	1,297
Wood and carved materials.....	3,756	15	3,771
Food and drinks.....	1,762	55	1,817
Clothing.....	754	316	1,070
Cleaning.....	290	96	386
Building trades.....	13,639	25	13,664
Printing.....	903	84	987
Art industries.....	91	1	92
Commerce.....	2,180	163	2,343
Insurance.....	18	18
Transportation.....	1,337	2	1,339
Hotels, restaurants.....	1,256	29	1,285
Theater employees.....	57	1	58
Personal service.....	164	324	488
Nurses, institution employees, etc.....	61	9	70
Clerks, stenographers.....	143	1	144
Released military conscripts.....	165	165
Miscellaneous (not including independent) occupations.....	161	27	188
Not specified.....	511	4	515
Independent occupations.....	126	4	130
Total.....	38,581	1,631	40,212

The total number of unemployed was 40,212, composed of 1,631 females and 38,581 males; the industries in which the unemployed were most numerous were naturally the seasonal industries, such as the building trades, and the great factory industries, such as the metal working and machinery industries, the wood-working industries, etc.

The data relating to skilled and unskilled workers out of employment are as follows:

NUMBER OF PERSONS OF EACH SEX UNEMPLOYED IN THE CITY OF BERLIN (NOT INCLUDING SUBURBS) WHO WERE LAST EMPLOYED IN SKILLED AND IN UNSKILLED OCCUPATIONS, BY GROUPS OF OCCUPATIONS, NOVEMBER 17, 1908.

Occupation group.	Last employed in skilled occupations.			Last employed in unskilled occupations.			Total.		
	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
Agriculture, stock raising.....	50	2	52	190	6	196	240	8	248
Forestry, etc.....	1	1	1	1
Gardening.....	39	39	96	3	99	135	3	138
Fishing.....
Mining, smelting, etc.....	5	5	12	12	17	17
Stone and earths.....	186	186	211	4	215	397	4	401
Metal working.....	3,280	15	3,295	420	28	448	3,700	43	3,743
Machinery, tools, etc.....	1,119	7	1,126	1,093	89	1,182	2,212	96	2,308
Chemical industry.....	19	2	21	125	10	135	144	12	156
Forestry by-products.....	3	1	4	204	2	206	207	3	210
Textile industry.....	40	14	54	64	11	75	104	25	129
Paper and leather.....	618	44	662	244	60	304	562	104	666
Wood and carved materials.....	2,296	3	2,299	336	9	395	2,682	12	2,694
Food and drinks.....	850	11	861	597	28	625	1,447	39	1,486
Clothing.....	466	201	667	151	42	193	617	243	860
Cleaning.....	169	49	218	55	19	74	224	68	292
Building trades.....	5,381	5,381	3,057	13	3,070	8,438	13	8,451
Printing.....	497	41	538	129	20	149	626	61	687
Art industries.....	58	58	7	1	8	65	1	66
Commerce.....	415	89	504	1,284	32	1,316	1,699	121	1,820
Insurance.....	6	6	4	4	10	10
Transportation.....	166	166	826	2	828	992	2	994
Hotels, restaurants.....	803	20	823	279	6	285	1,082	26	1,108
Theater employees.....	14	1	15	23	23	37	1	38
Personal service.....	31	215	246	45	11	56	76	226	302
Nurses, institution employees, etc.....	26	2	28	24	2	26	50	4	54
Clerks, stenographers.....	104	104	3	3	107	107
Released military conscripts.....	119	119	119	119
Miscellaneous (not including independent) occupations.....	48	5	53	24	14	38	72	19	91
Not specified.....	184	1	185	227	227	411	1	412
Independent occupations.....	95	3	98	95	3	98
Total.....	17,087	726	17,813	9,781	412	10,193	26,868	1,138	28,006

The above figures refer to the city of Berlin alone. Out of the total of 28,006 persons out of work, 17,813, or 63.6 per cent, were skilled workers, the term "skilled" being understood as referring to occupations where a definite technical training is requisite; the unskilled workers numbered 10,193, or 37.4 per cent of the total. In the case of the male workers the proportions were 63.6 per cent skilled and 37.4 per cent unskilled; for the female workers the proportions were 63.8 per cent skilled and 36.2 per cent unskilled. In general, it may be said that the skilled workers were twice as numerous as the unskilled.

The following table shows the ages of the unemployed, their conjugal condition, and the length of time unemployed for the city of Berlin, not including suburbs:

NUMBER OF PERSONS OF EACH SEX UNEMPLOYED IN THE CITY OF BERLIN (NOT INCLUDING SUBURBS) WHO WERE LAST EMPLOYED IN SKILLED AND IN UNSKILLED OCCUPATIONS, BY AGE GROUPS, BY CONJUGAL CONDITION, AND BY LENGTH OF TIME UNEMPLOYED, NOVEMBER 17, 1908.

Groups.	Last employed in skilled occupations.			Last employed in unskilled occupations.			Total.		
	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.
Age groups:									
Under 16 years.....	33	14	47	213	25	238	246	39	285
16 and under 20 years.....	1,510	116	1,626	1,396	67	1,463	2,906	133	3,039
20 and under 30 years.....	6,594	170	6,764	3,288	153	3,441	9,882	323	10,205
30 and under 40 years.....	3,974	146	4,120	2,115	84	2,199	6,089	230	6,319
40 and under 50 years.....	2,658	167	2,825	1,558	42	1,600	4,216	209	4,425
50 and under 60 years.....	1,657	88	1,745	917	31	948	2,574	119	2,693
60 and under 70 years.....	570	23	593	254	10	264	824	33	857
70 years and over.....	61	2	63	28	28	89	2	91
Not reported.....	30	30	12	12	42	42
Total.....	17,087	726	17,813	9,781	412	10,193	26,868	1,138	28,006
Conjugal condition:									
Single.....	7,762	349	8,111	4,727	233	4,960	12,489	582	13,071
Married.....	8,400	185	8,585	4,545	109	4,654	12,945	294	13,239
Widowed.....	363	129	492	204	48	252	567	177	744
Living apart.....	266	36	302	189	15	204	455	51	506
Separated.....	162	27	189	83	6	89	245	33	278
Not reported.....	134	134	33	1	34	167	1	168
Total.....	17,087	726	17,813	9,781	412	10,193	26,868	1,138	28,006
Length of time unemployed:									
Less than 1 week.....	2,119	72	2,191	1,122	75	1,197	3,241	147	3,388
1 and under 2 weeks.....	2,093	78	2,171	1,136	44	1,180	3,229	122	3,351
2 and under 3 weeks.....	1,913	99	2,012	1,060	59	1,119	2,973	158	3,131
3 and under 4 weeks.....	1,383	37	1,420	764	27	791	2,147	64	2,211
4 and under 5 weeks.....	1,408	61	1,469	755	23	778	2,163	84	2,247
5 and under 6 weeks.....	1,167	42	1,209	594	18	612	1,761	60	1,821
6 and under 7 weeks.....	1,157	80	1,237	589	27	616	1,746	107	1,853
7 and under 8 weeks.....	717	24	741	415	10	425	1,132	34	1,166
8 and under 9 weeks.....	574	18	592	367	13	380	941	31	972
9 and under 10 weeks.....	436	18	454	283	11	294	719	29	748
10 and under 11 weeks.....	345	12	360	220	1	221	568	13	581
11 and under 12 weeks.....	403	18	421	254	4	258	657	22	679
12 and under 13 weeks.....	258	10	268	172	4	176	430	14	444
Total up to 3 months.....	13,976	569	14,545	7,731	316	8,047	21,707	885	22,592
3 and under 6 months.....	1,558	65	1,623	1,064	48	1,112	2,622	113	2,735
6 and under 9 months.....	560	35	595	355	16	371	915	51	966
9 and under 12 months.....	277	9	286	191	8	199	468	17	485
Total up to 1 year.....	16,371	678	17,049	9,341	388	9,729	25,712	1,066	26,778
1 and under 2 years.....	270	9	279	156	8	164	426	17	443
2 years and over.....	101	12	113	87	87	188	12	200
Not reported.....	345	27	372	197	16	213	542	43	585
Total.....	17,087	726	17,813	9,781	412	10,193	26,868	1,138	28,006

The figures in the tables just preceding show that out of the 26,868 males, 9,882, or 36.78 per cent, were in the group 20 to 30 years of age, and that there was a steady decrease in the number of persons as the age increased. Presumably this tendency corresponds to the age grouping of the industrial population.

Of the total males unemployed, 48.18 per cent were married, while the last municipal census showed that of the total male population

only 39.41 per cent were married. The single males were 46.48 per cent of the males out of work, while the widowed were 2.11 per cent.

The number of males out of work less than one week on the date of the enumeration was 3,241, or 12.06 per cent of all unemployed males; the proportion out of work from one to two weeks was 12.02 per cent and that from two to three weeks was 11.07 per cent; the number of males out of work for five weeks and less was 51.19 per cent of the total number of males. The proportion out of work three months and less was 80.79 per cent and the proportion out of work over one year was 2.28 per cent.

Die Arbeitslosenzählung in Halle a. S. vom 10 Januar, 1909.

Herausgegeben vom Statistischen Amt der Stadt Halle a. S. 1909.
37 pp.

The census of unemployed persons in the city of Halle on the Saale, published in the report from which the information for this digest was obtained, was taken on January 10, 1909, by the municipal statistical office, assisted by the federation of trade unions of that city. The city furnished a subsidy in aid of the undertaking.

The enumeration consisted of a house to house canvass by about 1,200 members of the labor federation mentioned above, the members having been carefully instructed in meetings held previous to the enumeration and provided with printed rules for use during the canvass. The schedule of inquiry called for the following information: (1) Name, (2) street and number, (3) occupation, (4) date of birth, (5) place of birth, (6) township or district, (7) place where invalidity card was filled out, (8) local suboffice of invalidity insurance institute, (9) number of invalidity stamps to date (by class), (10) length of sickness, (11) length of military service (wherever possible, the preceding questions were answered from the data on the person's card of membership in the invalidity insurance institution; if questions 7 to 9 were not answered it was assumed that the person had no membership card), (12) employment on relief work, furnished by whom, where, when begun, when ended, (13) if working short time, number of hours per day reduced, (15) cause of unemployment, (a) sickness, (b) no work, (c) other cause, (16) kind of work at which last employed regularly, (17) where last employed, (18) kind of establishment, (19) number of children under 16, (20) daily earnings of wife, (21) if home work is done for a contractor, what industry, (22) in receipt of a pension for invalidity, old age, or accident, (23) member of a trade union. Since in other investigations great difficulty had been found in securing correct statements in regard to occupation, the schedule was arranged so that three questions—numbers 3, 16, and 18—bore on this point.

The number of unemployed persons as compared with total population shows the following variation at the dates given: On December 2, 1895, it was 157 per 10,000 of the total population; on December 8, 1901, it was 165 per 10,000; and on January 10, 1909, it was 134 per 10,000. These numbers do not include persons unemployed because of sickness; in 1909 the number of sick persons was 7.9 per cent of the total number of unemployed, while in 1895 it was over 30 per cent. Other comparisons made in the report show that in Halle in 1909 for each 100 persons of the class termed "gainfully employed," 3.6 were unemployed, and out of 100 wage-earners 4.9 were unemployed; the census of December 2, 1895, showed that in Halle, out of 100 wage-earners, 8.98 were unemployed.

The distribution of the unemployed by sex showed that out of the 2,378 unemployed 2,240 were males and only 138 were females; the report states, however, that there are good reasons for the belief that not all of the women out of work were reported.

The following table shows the industries in which the unemployed persons were last engaged:

NUMBER OF PERSONS OF EACH SEX UNEMPLOYED IN THE CITY OF HALLE ON THE SAALE, BY GROUPS OF OCCUPATIONS, JANUARY 10, 1909.

Occupation group.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Per cent in each occupation group.
Agriculture, stock raising, forestry, fishing.....	61	9	70	2.9
Mining, smelting.....	43	43	1.8
Quarrying, earthenware, glass, etc.....	53	53	2.2
Metal working, machinery, tools.....	304	304	12.8
Chemical products.....	21	1	22	.9
Textiles.....	5	5	.2
Paper.....	12	14	26	1.1
Leather and leather goods.....	30	30	1.3
Wood and carved materials.....	56	1	57	2.4
Food and drinks.....	114	20	134	5.6
Clothing and cleaning.....	37	12	49	2.1
Building trades.....	647	647	27.2
Printing.....	26	2	28	1.2
Art industries.....	7	7	.3
Engineers, miscellaneous factory employees.....	81	12	93	3.9
Commerce.....	44	12	56	2.4
Hotels and restaurants.....	35	2	37	1.6
Personal service and casual workers.....	647	50	697	29.3
Liberal professions.....	12	3	15	.6
Apprentices of all occupations.....	5	5	.2
Total.....	2,240	138	2,378	100.0

Out of the 2,378 persons unemployed on the date of the enumeration 1,648, or 69.3 per cent, belonged to the three groups designated as metal working industries, the building trades, and personal service and casual workers. The group personal service and casual workers, in other words the unskilled workers, was largest with 697 persons; then followed the building trades with 647 persons, and the metal working industries with 304 persons. Since the larger part of the

unskilled workers were engaged in the building trades, this industry should rank first in the number of unemployed. The unemployment at the time of the enumeration was, therefore, primarily due to a seasonal industry—the building trades—and secondly to the largest of Halle's factory industries, the metal-working (especially the machine building) industries. The other groups of industries in which unemployment was comparatively frequent were food and drinks, the rural industries of agriculture, stock raising, forestry, and fishing, and wood and carved materials.

An important phase of unemployment is the investigation of the previous residence of those out of work. Out of the 2,378 persons enumerated 1,698 gave Halle as their last place of residence; if the 282 persons with last place of residence unknown are added to those who were not residents of Halle at the time they became unemployed, the enumeration will show that 680 persons, or 28.6 per cent of the unemployed persons, came from localities other than Halle. In other words, approximately 25 per cent of the unemployment originated outside of the city.

One question in the schedule of inquiry called for the date when the unemployment began; of the males 72 persons failed to answer the question, while the remaining 2,168 had had 18,488 weeks of unemployment. The 128 females who answered the question had had 897 weeks of unemployment. The length of time unemployed, by periods, is given in the following table:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF PERSONS OF EACH SEX OUT OF WORK IN HALLE ON THE SAALE, BY PERIOD OF UNEMPLOYMENT, JANUARY 10, 1909.

Unemployed on January 10, 1909, since—	Males.		Females.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
January 1, 1909.....	242	11.2	29	22.6
December 20, 1908.....	442	20.4	25	19.5
November 30, 1908.....	433	19.9	26	20.3
November 1, 1908.....	380	17.5	24	18.8
October 1, 1908.....	352	16.2	15	11.7
May 1, 1908.....	275	12.7	6	4.7
January 1, 1908.....	27	1.3	2	1.6
Before January 1, 1908.....	17	.8	1	.8
Total.....	2,168	100.0	128	100.0

The larger part—over 50 per cent—of the unemployed had been out of work only since November 30, 1908; the duration of the unemployment in the case of the females was much shorter than in the case of the males.

The ages of the persons out of work in Halle, as compared with the age grouping of the industrial population of the Empire is shown in the next table:

PER CENT OF UNEMPLOYED PERSONS IN EACH AGE GROUP IN HALLE ON THE SAALE, ON JANUARY 10, 1909, COMPARED WITH PER CENT OF THE INDUSTRIAL POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE IN THE SAME AGE GROUPS.

Age group.	Per cent in each age group of—	
	Unemployed persons in Halle on the Saale.	Industrial population of the Empire (employees only).
Under 16 years.....	3.4	9.8
16 and under 20 years.....	21.1	20.3
20 and under 30 years.....	29.7	30.1
30 and under 40 years.....	18.1	16.8
40 and under 50 years.....	13.0	10.8
50 and under 60 years.....	8.7	7.4
60 years and over.....	2.1	4.8
Age unknown.....	3.9	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0

According to this table, unemployed persons in Halle in the age group 16 to 20 years, in the group 30 to 40 years, and especially in the group 40 to 50 years, are present in slightly larger numbers than would be expected from their number in the total industrial population of the Empire.

The answers to the question as to the number of children showed that the 911 unemployed males having children had 2,184 children under 16 years of age; this is an average of 2.39 children for each person, or if family groups be constructed, this is 4.39 persons per family of each unemployed male; arranged by classes, 308 married males had each one child, 247 had each 2 children, 164 had each 3 children, 111 had each 4 children, and 81 had more than 4 children.

The question relating to the amount of daily earnings of the wife showed that of the 1,055 married men, 146 had wives who added to the family income; out of the 146 wage-earning wives, 41 had no children, 30 had each 1 child, 28 had each 2 children, 23 had each 3 children, 16 had each 4 children, and 8 had more than 4 children. The earnings of the wives are shown to have been small; only 41 out of the 146 earned more than 1 mark (24 cents) per day; 28 earned between 30 and 50 pfennigs (7 to 12 cents) per day, while 35 earned less than 30 pfennigs (7 cents) per day.

Die bisherigen Erfahrungen auf dem Gebiete der Arbeitslosenversicherung. Mitteilungen des Statistischen Amts der Stadt Magdeburg. 1908. 33 pp.

This issue of the publications of the municipal statistical office of Magdeburg gives a summary of the experience of various European governments in connection with the problem of insurance against unemployment. The report begins by calling attention to the fact that in the relief work or emergency work instituted by the city of Magdeburg early in 1908, few skilled workers of the metal trades, of the woodworking trades, or of the building trades were employed, although there was a high rate of unemployment in these industries at that time. This experience has led to the belief that relief work of this type has a tendency to be of benefit to the unskilled laborers only. Since it is out of the question to provide employment for each class of skilled workers, it is concluded that the problem of the relief of unemployment must be solved by means of a cash payment in the form of insurance benefits.

The report defines insurance against unemployment as an agreement by which the worker, in return for contributions paid by him while he is employed, receives a cash benefit to offset the damage caused by the stoppage of wages through lack of employment. As only such persons may be insured who are employed at the time the insurance begins, insurance depends upon two facts—first, that the person loses his position, and, secondly, that he is unable to find another. The loss of a position may occur through any of three causes—first, through physical causes, such as loss of ability to work; secondly, through moral causes, such as lack of desire to work; and, thirdly, through economic causes, such as absence of opportunity to work. Two or more reasons may cooperate, as where, for instance, the loss of the position was caused by sickness, while after recovery of ability to work a lack of opportunity may cause a period of unemployment.

Although all plans of compulsory insurance against unemployment have been regarded unfavorably up to date, the plans of voluntary insurance have met with considerable favor. The report distinguishes four classes of the voluntary type—(1) institutions of workmen's organizations and federations, (2) institutions of employers, (3) special municipal insurance institutions, (4) mixed institutions.

The extent of the activities of the "free labor unions" (*freie Gewerkschaften*) in Germany is shown by the fact that their expenses for relief of unemployment (not including strike and travel benefits) in 1907 were 4,312,367 marks (\$1,026,343); in 1906, 2,653,296 marks (\$631,484); and in 1905, 1,991,924 marks (\$474,078). In

the city of Magdeburg there were in 1907 only 15 labor organizations, containing approximately 18 per cent of the membership, which did not provide unemployment relief. Among the unions paying benefits, the following per capita amounts of unemployment benefits were paid in the year 1907: Printers, 18.50 marks (\$4.40); leather workers, 11.41 marks (\$2.72); wood workers, 9.26 marks (\$2.20); metal workers, 4.35 marks (\$1.04), etc. These were the highest amounts paid and indicate that the existing system of trade union unemployment benefits is at best but a limited one. As a rule membership of one year, and in the case of the printers, of 75 weeks, is necessary, before such benefits are available. In most cases benefits begin at the end of one week after the beginning of the unemployment; they are continued in the case of the wood workers and carpenters for 6 weeks, and in the case of the metal workers for 20 weeks; while in many cases the continuation of the benefits depends upon the length of membership, as, for instance, in the case of the printers, where benefits vary between 10 and 40 weeks. The amount of the daily benefit also is regulated by the length of membership; in the case of the metal and the wood workers it varies from 1 to 1½ marks (24 to 40 cents), and in the case of the printers it varies from 1 to 1½ marks (24 to 36 cents). In a few of the unions the local branches add a supplementary benefit to that paid by the principal organization. Most of the unions seem to pay but little attention to regulating unemployment caused by the fault of the worker, because the small amount of the benefits and the long waiting time generally exclude cases of this class. Practically all of the unions stop benefits if an unemployed member refuses the offer of a job "without proper reason." The cost of the insurance to the unions is difficult to state, since the accounts do not always separate unemployment from strike and other benefits. In the year 1907 the printers' union spent 23 per cent of the total income for this purpose; the wood workers spent 18 per cent, and the metal workers 10 per cent.

Some space in the report is given to a description of institutions created by employers for the relief of unemployment. The most important institution of this class is that of the firm of Karl Zeiss of Jena. The employment contract of this firm provides that if, after having been employed regularly for three years, an employee is dismissed because of lack of work, such employee has a claim to full wages for the succeeding six months. The firm of Heinrich Lanz in Mannheim, machinery manufacturers, has a fund or society for its employees, the constitution of which provides that whenever a married member who has been employed for at least one year is dismissed and is unable to find other employment, such member shall receive benefits beginning 14 days after the date of dismissal, but not earlier

than December 1 and not to continue later than the end of February of the same winter. Another instance is that of the firm of A. L. Mohr, in Altona, oleomargarine manufacturers, where the fund or society collects dues from the members, the weekly dues being 10 pfennigs (2 cents) for men and 5 pfennigs (1 cent) for women, and the benefits being 1.6 marks (38 cents) per day for not more than 13 weeks after the date of dismissal. The firm makes up any deficit caused by the payment of these benefits. From the creation of the fund in 1896 to the year 1904, benefits to the amount of 30,275 marks (\$7,206) have been paid, the means for which were secured from dues of the workmen to the amount of 18,129 marks (\$4,315), or 59.9 per cent, from the subsidy of the firm 11,794 marks (\$2,807), or 39.0 per cent, and from interest 352 marks (\$84).

The oldest of the municipal funds for insurance against unemployment is that of the city of Berne, in Switzerland. Being a municipal institution it is of course open to workers of all classes residing in the city. As a matter of fact the membership of the fund is restricted, being constituted almost exclusively of persons engaged in the building trades; thus in the year 1904-5, among the 593 insured members there were 379 general laborers and earth workers, 80 masons and stonecutters, 58 painters and plasterers, 24 carpenters, 18 roofers, and 3 potters. The persons in receipt of benefits during the same year were principally the workers in the building trades; among the 305 reporting themselves out of work, 200 were laborers; 43, masons and stonecutters; 22, painters and plasterers; 17, roofers, and 12, carpenters. The fund is operated in close connection with the employment agency of the city, and considerable assistance is received from the public works department of the city government, which as far as possible executes work in the season when unemployment is greatest and endeavors to use the services of those persons who apply to the fund. In order to restrict the expenditures of the fund, persons over 60 years of age may not become members, and members must show that they have paid dues for at least 8 months and that they have been employed at least 6 months in the year. Benefits are not paid for a longer period than 10 weeks in one winter. For the first 5 weeks the daily benefit for the father of a family is 2 francs (39 cents); for the rest of the 10 weeks the benefits are fixed according to the state of the treasury. In 1904-5 benefits were paid to the amount of 10,923 francs (\$2,108), and in 1905-6, 6,229 francs (\$1,202). For the first of these years the dues of members were 43 per cent and in the second year 75 per cent of the amount paid out.

A similar organization is that of the "Cologne municipal fund for insurance against unemployment in winter," which was founded in May, 1896, with an endowment of 100,000 marks (\$23,800), con-

sisting of a donation from the city of 25,000 marks (\$5,950) and of donations from citizens. While not a municipal institution in the strict sense of the word, it stands in close connection with the municipality, and since the year 1902 has received from it an annual subsidy of 20,000 marks (\$4,760). The fund is administered by a board of directors consisting of a representative of the mayor of the city, the president of the general employment agency, 12 representatives of the insured persons, and 12 representatives of the honorary members, the latter consisting of 6 persons who are employers and of 6 who are neither employers nor workmen. The following table shows the number of persons insured, the number of persons out of work, and the proportion of expenses borne by the insured persons:

NUMBER OF MEMBERS AND EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT OF MEMBERS OF THE MUNICIPAL UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE FUND OF COLOGNE, 1896 TO 1907.

Year.	Number of insured persons—		Persons entitled to benefits who became unemployed.		Number of days on which unemployed persons—		Per cent of expenses for benefits met by contributions of insured persons.
	Enrolled.	Entitled to benefits.	Number.	Per cent.	Were temporarily employed.	Received benefits.	
1896-97.....	220	132	96	72.7	2,181	1,408	42.5
1897-98.....	324	236	151	64.0	2,646	2,197	63.5
1898-99.....	347	252	144	51.1	2,858	2,026	73.1
1899-1900.....	256	226	154	68.1	3,709	2,773	42.7
1900-1901.....	571	536	441	82.3	6,479	12,659	23.6
1901-2.....	1,205	1,105	842	76.2	15,853	18,259	41.4
1902-3.....	1,355	1,265	1,008	79.7	28,947	16,046	49.7
1903-4.....	1,624	1,501	1,164	77.5	26,716	22,910	49.5
1904-5.....	1,717	1,596	1,271	79.6	29,649	25,034	48.5
1905-6.....	1,610	1,463	1,087	74.3	28,715	13,414	91.7
1906-7.....	1,255	1,155	980	84.8	18,238	24,086	43.0
1907-8.....	1,505	1,382	1,127	81.5	20,042	29,899	42.5

The change in the number of members insured in 1901 is due to the fact that in 1901 the constitution was so amended as to distinguish between skilled and unskilled workers, with a corresponding distinction in the requirement as to what work must be accepted by the skilled workers.

As its name indicates, the fund is restricted to unemployment caused by climatic influence; the fiscal year begins with April 1 and dues must be paid for 8 months from that date, while benefits are paid from December 1 until March 1. A member out of work is entitled to benefits on the third day after he has notified the fund, and the benefits continue for a period of 8 weeks; for the first 20 days he receives 2 marks (48 cents) per day, for the rest of the time 1 mark (24 cents) per day. A member must show that his dismissal was not due to his own fault and must report twice each day at specified hours at the employment agency. A member is required to accept a posi-

tion which is offered to him provided that it "corresponds" to his occupation and to his previous earnings; but he is not required to accept a place which has become vacant because of a labor dispute. The weekly dues of skilled workers are 45 pfennigs (11 cents) and for unskilled workers 35 pfennigs (8 cents). The amount of dues, therefore, to be paid by a skilled worker in one year is 15.3 marks (\$3.64) and for an unskilled worker is 11.9 marks (\$2.83); the highest amount of benefits which may be drawn by a member is 68 marks (\$16). As membership in the fund is entirely voluntary, it is to be expected that it would consist of what would in insurance terms be called the worst risks, and, as a matter of fact, the preceding table shows that since 1901 between 74 and 84 per cent of the membership is regularly out of work each winter. Under such circumstances the fund could not exist were it not for the possibility of providing employment for members. In the year 1907-8, for instance, 1,097 members would have been out of work 49,941 days except for the fact that the employment agency provided 891 persons with 20,042 days of work. The reports show that the fund is made use of almost exclusively by members of the building trades.

The following table shows the financial operations of the fund:

RECEIPTS, EXPENDITURES, AND RESERVE OF THE MUNICIPAL UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE FUND OF COLOGNE, 1896 TO 1907.

Year.	Receipts.					Expenditures.			Reserve.
	Contributions of insured persons.	Contributions of honorary members and patrons.	Contributions of city.	Interest and miscellaneous receipts.	Total.	Payments to insured persons.	On account of administration.	Total.	
1896-97.....	\$238	\$18,730	\$5,950	\$943	\$25,861	\$560	\$648	\$1,208	\$24,653
1897-98.....	527	1,220	1,021	2,768	830	557	1,387	26,033
1898-99.....	532	1,249	1,075	2,906	796	497	1,293	27,647
1899-1900.....	478	959	1,118	2,555	1,121	459	1,580	28,622
1900-1901.....	1,086	851	1,165	3,102	4,602	497	5,099	26,625
1901-2.....	2,959	794	1,121	4,874	7,151	703	7,854	23,644
1902-3.....	3,424	766	4,760	1,154	10,104	6,856	883	7,739	26,010
1903-4.....	4,706	724	4,760	1,284	11,474	9,500	937	10,437	27,047
1904-5.....	4,946	709	4,760	1,299	11,714	10,194	1,042	11,236	27,524
1905-6.....	5,160	665	4,760	1,382	11,967	5,627	959	6,586	32,905
1906-7.....	4,092	610	4,760	1,513	10,976	9,523	1,053	10,576	33,305
1907-8.....	4,918	582	4,760	1,600	11,860	11,583	1,129	12,712	32,454

An important source of income since 1902 has been the annual subsidy of the municipality; since 1903 the dues of the insured persons have been almost the same amount as the subsidy. The contributions of honorary members, patrons, employers, etc., represent gifts, while the interest on the endowment has been a considerable factor in the financial operations. The expenditures have gradually

increased until in 1907-8 they were \$12,712, consisting of \$11,583 for benefits to insured persons and \$1,129 for expenditures of administration. The reserve fund has grown from \$24,653 in 1896-97 to \$32,454 in 1907-8.

The "Leipzig fund for insurance against unemployment" was established in March, 1905, with a guaranteed endowment of 60,000 marks (\$14,280) furnished by private individuals. There are four classes of members who pay dues of 30, 40, 50, and 60 pfennigs (7, 10, 12, and 14 cents), according to the risk of unemployment. In addition, the fund insures societies of persons, who pay for their members in a lump sum at the rate of 10 pfennigs (2 cents) per member per week, "as long as at least one-third of the workmen belonging to the society and no fewer than 50 persons are insured in the fund." The operations of the fund are not very extensive. On April 30, 1908, there were 244 members. In the fiscal year 1907-8 there were 20 members out of work for 388 days, for which they received 495.9 marks (\$118.02) benefits.

While the number and activity of the unemployment insurance institutions of the cities are rather limited, the fourth class of insurance institutions, namely, the mixed or the so-called "Belgian system" has met with an unusual degree of favor. This system was begun in the year 1901 in the city of Ghent, and consists of municipal or communal subsidies to those workmen's organizations which provide unemployment relief under specified conditions, the subsidy consisting of a percentage of the amount paid by the union. This system has spread into other countries; for instance, the National Government of France provides an annual subsidy of 100,000 francs (\$19,300) to be distributed among the unions in accordance with regulations issued by the President of the Republic; in Norway and in Denmark similar subsidies are provided by the National Governments, while in Germany the city of Strassburg has established a fund of this character. In Ghent an effort has been made to correct inequalities which might arise from the fact that persons not members of trade unions could not receive benefits, by creating a system of subsidies based on savings bank books of individuals, and later the plan was extended to clubs for savings.

The following table shows the number of funds, the number of communes, and the number of trade unions affiliated in the movement in Belgium for the years 1901 to 1907:

SUBSIDIES TO TRADE UNIONS FOR UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE BY THE COMMUNAL UNEMPLOYMENT FUNDS OF BELGIUM, 1901 TO 1907.

Year.	Number of communal funds.	Number of communes participating.	Number of trade unions affiliated.	Expenditures for unemployment by the unions.	Subsidies to trade unions by the communal funds.		Number of members receiving benefits.	Number of days of unemployment for which benefits were paid.	Extra subsidies to trade unions.
					Amount.	Per cent of sum expended by unions.			
1901.....	2	2	26	\$3,454	\$1,207	35	2,089	6,676
1902.....	6	8	98	12,598	5,629	44	3,211	32,220
1903.....	9	14	129	12,957	7,048	54	2,835	39,891	\$193
1904.....	11	15	128	15,662	8,948	57	2,825	50,605	193
1905.....	14	18	131	12,809	6,851	53	3,400	55,735	193
1906.....	14	25	229	17,315	9,006	52	5,019	71,970	193
1907.....	14	27	284	30,872	14,320	46	9,750	113,726

* The towns in which the funds have been created are Alost, Antwerp, Berchem, Bruges, Brussels, Ghent, Trelles, Louvain, Mechlin, Molenbeek, Ostend, Renaix, Saint Nicholas, Saint Gilles.

In the period 1901 to 1907 the number of trade unions affiliated has increased from 26 to 284; the expenditures of the trade unions for unemployment relief have increased from \$3,454 to \$30,872; and the amount of the subsidies provided by the various communes has increased from \$1,207 to \$14,320. The latter amount was 46 per cent of the sum expended by the unions for the relief of unemployed members. The number of persons who receive benefits has grown from 2,089 to 9,750, and the number of days of unemployment for which benefits were paid has increased from 6,676 to 113,726. The next table shows the subsidies paid to individuals with savings accounts, to savings societies, and to unemployed persons not members of unions.

SUBSIDIES TO INDIVIDUALS AND TO CLUBS FOR SAVINGS BY THE COMMUNAL UNEMPLOYMENT FUNDS OF BELGIUM, 1901 TO 1907.

Year.	Subsidies to individuals with saving accounts.			Subsidies to savings clubs.			Subsidies to individuals not members of the unions.	
	Amount of subsidy.	Number of persons receiving subsidies.	Days unemployed for which subsidies were paid.	Amount of subsidy.	Number of persons receiving subsidies.	Days unemployed for which subsidies were paid.	Amount of subsidy.	Number of persons receiving subsidies.
1901.....								
1902.....	\$1.35	(a)	(a)					
1903.....	10.62	(a)	(a)	\$432.90	(a)	(a)		
1904.....	19.30	(a)	(a)	479.22	(a)	(a)		
1905.....	5.60	(a)	(a)	545.42	(a)	(a)	\$494.47	(a)
1906.....	7.33	3	38	493.50	170	3,829	439.85	217
1907.....	47.29	13	250	471.69	136	3,351	489.83	202

* Not reported.

None of the subsidies included in the preceding table were paid in 1901; in 1902 the amount paid was so small as to be negligible. In 1903 the amount paid to persons with individual savings accounts was very small, but that provided for savings clubs began with a substantial sum and continued at approximately the same amount up to 1907. The amount provided for individuals not members of the unions is given for the years 1905, 1906, and 1907. It was practically the same during the three-year period.

A summary of the receipts and expenditures for the years 1901 to 1907 of the communal fund is given in the following table:

FINANCIAL OPERATIONS OF THE COMMUNAL UNEMPLOYMENT FUNDS OF BELGIUM, 1901 TO 1907.

Year.	Receipts (appropriations of the communes).	Expenditures.		
		Subsidies.	Administration.	Total.
1901.....	\$2,220	\$1,207	\$405	\$1,612
1902.....	8,010	5,630	977	6,607
1903.....	11,223	7,684	921	8,605
1904.....	11,734	9,639	1,117	10,756
1905.....	13,467	8,089	919	9,008
1906.....	16,209	10,140	1,459	11,599
1907.....	19,564	15,329	2,002	17,331

The receipts, or in other words the appropriations made by the communes, grew from \$2,220 in 1901 to \$19,564 in 1907, while the total expenditures increased from \$1,612 in 1901 to \$17,331 in 1907.

The institutions for the relief of unemployment created by employers' associations have followed the same plan as the municipality of Ghent, namely, the granting of a subsidy to the workingmen's associations. The best-known instance of this type of relief is that of the lace manufacturers of eastern Switzerland, who in 1906 founded an "aid fund for the lace industries," with headquarters in St. Gall. The purpose of this organization is to aid workers out of employment by means of subsidies to the "crisis funds" of the lace workers. The constitution provides that the subsidy shall not be greater than 50 per cent of the amount provided by the workers' fund. In Roubaix, the center of the textile industry of northern France, the employers' association has made voluntary contributions to the communal fund established on the Ghent plan. In Germany it is stated that the employers' association of the printing trades, in its trade agreement of September, 1906, has agreed to provide a subsidy for unemployment relief to the organization of the printers.

The council of the city of Strassburg, on December 27, 1906, made an appropriation "of not more than 5,000 marks" (\$1,190), to be used during the following year for the purpose of encouraging in-

insurance against unemployment. The regulations enacted at the same time stated that any person out of work who was a member of a trade union from which he received unemployment benefits would in addition receive a subsidy from the city. This grant was limited to those unemployed persons who had resided in Strassburg not less than one year immediately preceding the date of beginning of their unemployment, and was further restricted to cases of involuntary unemployment not due to strikes, lockouts, sickness, or invalidity. At first the amount of the subsidy is to be 50 per cent of the rate received from the union but not greater than 1 mark (24 cents) per day. Altogether 20 unions and associations, with 3,671 members, have announced themselves as ready to participate in the plan of the city council. Of the 20 unions which agreed to the regulations only 12 have actually drawn the municipal subsidy, the others having neglected to comply with various minor features of the regulations, principally that requiring a residence in the city of one year. The following table gives the principal facts connected with the operation of the fund for the year 1907:

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE IN STRASSBURG, 1907.

Name of union.	Average number of members.	Unemployment aided by the city.			Amount of benefits provided by the—		Average amount of benefits provided by city per person per day.
		Cases of unemployment.	Persons unemployed.	Days of unemployment.	Unions.	City.	
Sculptors.....	23	7	2	88	\$69.97	\$13.09	\$0.15
Bookbinders.....	51	7	5	77	64.98	14.04	.17
Book printers.....	672	62	31	795	748.51	185.64	.23
Book-printers' helpers.....	137	10	7	115	48.55	11.66	.10
Woodworkers.....	639	67	39	600	289.17	90.44	.15
Woodworkers (Christian union of).....	61	1	a 1	18	18.56	1.19	.06
Lithographers.....	63	6	5	60	91.87	13.09	.22
Metal workers.....	1,057	63	39	498	298.69	73.31	.15
Blacksmiths.....	68	1	1	12	10.23	1.43	.12
Tobacco workers.....	33	5	a 2	78	18.33	5.47	.07
Paper hangers.....	36	11	5	143	59.02	21.42	.15
Carpenters.....	305	24	16	134	104.96	18.80	.14
Total.....	3,145	264	153	2,618	1,822.84	449.58	.17

^a Women.

The report concludes that aside from the work of the labor organizations and the institutions connected therewith the experience in the field of insurance against unemployment has hardly been favorable and the results attained have been scanty. In the opinion of the writer of the report this result is due to the fact that the insurance is a voluntary one and that while it has been possible to do praiseworthy work in the field of voluntary insurance much more could be expected of a system of compulsory insurance.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the year 1908. Report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department. xxxvi, 241 pp.

At the end of the year 1908 there were upon the registers of the factory department 110,691 factories (7,851 textile and 102,840 non-textile) and 149,398 workshops, or a total of 260,089 establishments, an increase over 1907 of 2,896 establishments. The works under inspection did not include docks, warehouses, buildings, etc., or home work premises.

For purposes of inspection the United Kingdom is divided into six inspection districts, each under a superintending inspector, as follows: Midland division, southeastern division, northeastern division, northern division, northwestern division, and the southwestern division. The report of each supervising inspector comprises for his district an account of the organization of the working staff and the scope of the work of inspection; complaints from officials, operatives, and others respecting sanitation, safety measures, hours of labor, illegal employment, etc.; industrial developments and state of trade in the district; sanitary conditions and improvements; industrial accidents; safety devices, their efficiency and defects, etc.; industrial poisoning (anthrax, arsenic, mercury, lead poisoning, etc.); dangerous trades; employment and hours of labor, especially relating to children and women; holidays, overtime, half time, night work, and mealtimes; the employment of children as half timers and of those not exempt from school; action of the local sanitary authorities in connection with the factory department; administration of the law relating to particulars for piecework; operation of the truck acts; prosecutions for violations of the factory laws; inquest notices, etc. In addition there are reports from the principal lady inspector, the inspector of textile particulars, the inspector for dangerous trades, the electrical inspector, and the medical inspector. Tables presenting in detail and in summary form statistics pertaining to the various features of factory and workshop employment accompany the inspection reports.

The establishments added to the registers of the factory department during 1908 numbered 26,075 (365 textile and 8,096 nontextile factories and 17,614 workshops), while those of the different classes removed from the registers numbered 23,179, resulting in a net gain in the establishments added of 1.1 per cent.

During 1908 there were 122,154 industrial accidents reported, 80,253 being reported to inspectors only and 41,901 to certifying surgeons. Those reported to inspectors were nonfatal in result and of a minor character. In the table following all reported industrial accidents are shown by causation:

ACCIDENTS REPORTED IN GREAT BRITAIN, BY CAUSATION, 1908.

Causation.	Number of accidents.	
	Fatal.	Nonfatal.
Machinery moved by mechanical power:		
Lifting appliances breaking—		
Hoists.....	2	27
Cranes.....	13	133
Winches, etc.....	6	68
Hoists, other than above.....	37	544
Cranes, winches, etc., other than above.....	64	2,854
Grindstones—		
With fracture.....	4	23
Without fracture.....	1	609
Emery wheels bursting.....	3	66
Revolving vessels and wheels bursting.....	2	16
Circular saws.....	5	2,225
Lathes.....	1	2,898
Presses and punches.....	3	1,562
Shuttles.....		262
Self-acting mules.....	1	1,275
Rolling stock on lines.....	57	437
Mill gearing—		
Shafts.....	44	287
Pulleys and drums.....	4	302
Belts.....	18	1,119
Other accidents to mill gearing.....	10	227
Other accidents to machinery moved by mechanical power.....	88	18,332
Machinery not moved by mechanical power:		
Cranes.....	12	650
Presses for metal articles.....		147
Other accidents to machinery not moved by mechanical power.....		674
Struck by falling body.....	99	17,714
Persons falling.....	313	15,305
Struck by tools in use.....	6	4,595
Fire.....	10	70
All other.....	239	48,691
Total.....	1,042	121,112

The 41,901 accidents reported to the certifying surgeons are shown in the following table by industry and causation:

NUMBER OF ACCIDENTS IN EACH CLASS OF CAUSATION REPORTED TO CERTIFYING SURGEONS, BY INDUSTRY, 1908.

Industry.	Number of accidents in each class of causation.						Total accidents.
	Ma- chinery moved by me- chan- ical power.	Molten metal, hot liquids.	Explo- sion.	Escape of gas or steam.	Elec- tricity.	Other causes.	
Textile:							
Cotton spinning.....	2,647	106	13	19	5	11	2,801
Cotton weaving.....	987	43	2	11		5	1,048
Wool, worsted, shoddy.....	1,321	51	10	6		11	1,399
Silk, lace, hosiery.....	263	12	2			1	278
Flax, hemp, jute.....	851	13	7	4	1	6	882
Other textiles.....	16		1			1	18
Nontextile:							
Printing, bleaching, dyeing.....	521	118	21	24	1	5	690
Laundries.....	372	34	5	7		1	419
Gas.....	149	76	43	86	2	10	366
Electrical-generation stations.....	56	14	14	18	75	3	180
Wood.....	2,833	10	16	14	1	13	2,887
Clay, stone, etc.....	479	33	11	13	3	26	565
Glass.....	69	27	13	7	1	3	120
Metal, extraction.....	305	453	95	85	13	21	972
Metal, founding.....	2,883	2,940	199	215	40	34	6,311
Metal, galvanizing.....	474	55	12	11	1	1	554
Machines, appliances, etc.—							
Marine engineering.....	670	22	21	14	3	8	738
Shipbuilding.....	1,083	74	65	24	34	96	1,376
Locomotives, automotors.....	1,349	77	43	44	24	4	1,541
Others.....	7,974	240	144	116	85	46	8,605
Chemicals, etc.....	434	205	69	89	13	19	829
Furniture, etc.....	527	23	11	4	1	4	570
Food.....	888	205	31	21	3	11	1,159
Aerated waters.....	132	23	272	1			428
Other drink.....	384	56	99	15	1	21	576
Clothing.....	992	19	14	3	1	3	1,032
Paper, printing, etc.....	1,537	55	18	22	4	5	1,641
Explosives.....	64	7	4	4			79
Other nontextile industries.....	1,419	75	49	19	2	15	1,579
Docks.....	1,612	12	9	6	4	81	1,724
Warehouses.....	135	2	3	3	1	12	156
Construction of buildings.....	203	43	25	1	2	104	378
Total.....	33,629	5,123	1,341	906	321	581	41,901

In the table following the accidents reported to certifying surgeons are shown by degree of injury and by sex and age:

NUMBER OF ACCIDENTS REPORTED TO CERTIFYING SURGEONS AS OCCURRING TO ADULTS, YOUNG PERSONS, AND CHILDREN, OF BOTH SEXES, BY DEGREE OF INJURY, 1908.

Degree of injury.	Number of accidents reported as occurring to—						Persons of all ages.
	Adults (18 years and over).		Young persons (13 and under 18 years). ^(a)		Children (12 and under 14 years).		
	Males.	Fe-males.	Males.	Fe-males.	Males.	Fe-males.	
Fatal.....	929	10	95	7	1	1,042
Loss of right hand or arm.....	44	8	8	3	63
Loss of left hand or arm.....	43	2	17	1	63
Loss of part of right hand.....	967	182	330	143	6	1	1,629
Loss of part of left hand.....	1,098	164	333	76	3	1,674
Loss of part of leg or foot.....	61	15	2	78
Fracture of limb or of bones of trunk.....	626	41	170	16	9	3	865
Fracture of hand or foot.....	558	70	138	40	8	1	815
Loss of sight of one or both eyes.....	29	7	4	3	1	44
Other injury to eyes.....	1,697	47	219	5	1,968
Injury to head or face.....	2,411	323	262	131	8	6	3,141
Burn or scald.....	4,483	192	754	168	10	10	5,617
Wounds, bruises, and other injuries not specified above.....	16,215	2,444	4,563	1,558	87	35	24,902
Total.....	29,161	3,490	6,908	2,153	132	57	41,901

^a Young persons are persons 14 and under 18 years of age, but may include persons 13 years of age who have obtained from the board of education a certificate of proficiency or attendance at school.

The following table shows the number of cases of industrial poisoning reported in the year 1908, by disease and industry, as well as the number which resulted fatally. All but 3 of the fatal accidents were among male adults.

NUMBER OF CASES OF INDUSTRIAL POISONING REPORTED TO CERTIFYING SURGEONS AS OCCURRING TO ADULTS, YOUNG PERSONS, AND CHILDREN, OF BOTH SEXES, BY DISEASE AND INDUSTRY, 1908.

Disease and industry.	Number of cases of poisoning reported as occurring to—						Number of cases resulting fatally.
	Adults (18 years and over).		Young persons (13 and under 18 years).		Persons of all ages.		
	Males.	Fe-males.	Males.	Fe-males.	Males.	Fe-males.	
Lead poisoning:							
Smelting of metals.....	70				70		2
Brass works.....	6				6		
Sheet lead and lead piping.....	13	1			13	1	
Plumbing and soldering.....	25	2			25	2	
Printing.....	28	2			28	2	2
File cutting.....	8	1			8	1	2
Tinning and enameling of iron hollow ware.....	9			1	9	1	
Enameling of iron plates.....	5	1	1		6	1	
White lead.....	78	1			78	1	3
Red and yellow lead.....	12				12		
China and earthen ware.....	51	55	5	6	56	61	a 12
Litho-transfers.....		2				2	
Glass cutting and polishing.....	3				3		1
Electric accumulators.....	24		1		25		1
Paints and colors.....	25				25		
Coach making.....	68	2			68	2	3
Shipbuilding.....	15				15		
Use of paint in other industries.....	37	9		1	37	10	1
Other processes.....	59	16	2	1	61	17	b 5
Total.....	536	92	9	9	545	101	32
Mercury poisoning:							
Barometer and thermometer making.....	2				2		
Furriers.....	2	3			2	3	
Other industries.....	3				3		
Total.....	7	3			7	3	
Phosphorus poisoning:							
Lucifer matches.....		1				1	
Arsenic poisoning:							
Paints, colors, and extraction of arsenic.....	13	3			13	3	1
Other industries.....	6		1		7		
Total.....	19	3	1		20	3	1
Anthrax:							
Wool.....	15	3			15	3	3
Horsehair.....	4	3	3		7	3	
Hides and skins.....	12		1		13		1
Other industries.....	6				6		3
Total.....	37	6	4		41	6	7
Grand total.....	599	105	14	9	613	114	40

^a Including 2 females.

^b Including 1 male young person.

The report of the inspector for dangerous trades shows that during 1908 there were in the United Kingdom, where particular dangers arise and special precautions are necessary, 19,688 industrial establishments operating under special rules and regulations.

With the consent of all the interested parties an act was passed December 21, 1908, prohibiting the manufacture of white phosphorus matches after January 1, 1910, or the offering of the same for sale after the first of the following year.

Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories on the Administration of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, by Local Authorities in respect of Workshops, Outwork, etc., in the year 1907. Report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department. iii, 14 pp.

This document is a summary of the reports made to the chief inspector of factories by the local health officers who have in charge the administration of certain features of the Factory and Workshop Act, especially those provisions which apply to home workers. Out of 2,942 reports due from the various localities of the United Kingdom, 2,341 were received and are included in this report.

During the year 1907 there were 498,084 inspections of factories, workshops, laundries, and work places other than those of home workers, made by the local authorities. Defects were found in such work places in 65,225 cases, 24,918 being due to want of cleanliness, 13,875 to insufficient or unsuitable sanitary accommodations, and 2,867 to overcrowding and want of ventilation. These defects were remedied in 61,449 cases, 352 cases were referred to the factory inspectors, and in 76 cases prosecutions were instituted.

Lists are required to be sent twice in each year to the local authorities containing the names, addresses, and places of employment of all persons employed outside of the factory or workshop of the employer. From those employers who complied strictly with this regulation, 16,982 lists of outworkers were received, and from those who made but one report, 4,084 lists.

The approximate number of work people included in the lists of outworkers reported by employers is shown for each specified industry in the following table:

APPROXIMATE NUMBER OF OUTWORKERS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM INCLUDED IN LISTS RECEIVED FROM EMPLOYERS, BY COUNTRIES AND BY INDUSTRIES, 1907.

Industry.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
Wearing apparel:				
Making, etc.	86,000	3,145	4,794	93,939
Cleaning and washing.	308			308
Lace, lace curtains, and nets	5,362	29	11	5,402
Artificial flowers	314		3	317
Nets, other than wire nets	845	63	37	945
Sacks	119	347	55	521
Furniture and upholstery	947	11	21	979
Fur pulling	151	1		152
Feather sorting	1			1
Umbrellas, etc.	571	44	6	621
Carding buttons, etc.	1,656			1,656
Paper bags and boxes	2,572	49	15	2,636
Baskets	39		1	40
Brushes	1,265	2	4	1,271
Racquet and tennis balls	144			144
Stuffed toys	68			68
Files	1,937			1,937
Electroplating	1,833	9	7	1,849
Cables and chains	853			853
Cart gear	5		3	8
Locks, latches, and keys	215		4	219
Pea picking	428			428
Total	105,633	3,700	4,961	114,294

During the year 102,549 inspections were made of outworkers' premises. In 3,298 instances outwork was found to be carried on in unwholesome premises. In 1,948 such cases notice of the conditions was given the employer in writing, and in 3 cases prosecutions were instituted. In 1,658 instances outwork was found to be carried on in premises in which persons were found to be suffering from infectious diseases, and in 640 cases orders were issued forbidding any work to be given out to persons living or working in such premises. The authorities in several localities were able to secure improved conditions in respect to unwholesome or infected premises by means of verbal instructions.

ITALY.

Inchiesta sul Lavoro Festivo in Italia e Studi sulla Legislazione Estera. Ufficio del Lavoro, Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio. 1906. x, 218 pp.

This volume presents the results of an inquiry undertaken by the Italian Labor Office into the question of employment on Sundays and holidays. The movement originated in the desire of the Italian Government to secure the necessary information for reaching conclusions as to the kinds of Sunday and holiday labor required by technical and economic reasons and by the interests of the public with a view to the restriction of unnecessary labor of this sort.

The two general divisions of the inquiry relate to productive industry and to commerce and service, under which latter term are included transportation, news service, restaurants, drug stores, theaters, etc. The extent, nature, frequency, and causes of such labor were inquired into for each industry in the various provinces, the presentation being by industries. No summaries are presented.

An investigation by the Belgian Government on the same subject receives considerable attention, and the laws of various European countries and of the United States are presented, as well as drafts of laws proposed for enactment by the Italian Parliament.

It may be added that an act of July 7, 1907, provided for a weekly day of rest, to fall normally on the Sabbath, with exceptions for necessity, and provisions for the allowance of another day where the Sabbath can not for any reason be allowed.

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.

ASSIGNMENTS OF WAGES—RIGHTS OF ASSIGNEES—PRIORITY OF WAGE CLAIMS OVER CLAIMS OF MORTGAGEES—CONSTRUCTION OF STATUTE—*Union Trust Company v. Southern Sawmills and Lumber Company, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 166 Federal Reporter, page 193.*—This was a case involving a receivership of the property of a corporation and the rights of mortgagees as against other claimants. The Union Trust Company was a claimant on the grounds of having advanced money for the payment of wages, to secure which it had accepted assignments of the claims of laborers. These were held to be superior to the claims of a mortgagee, in accordance with the statutes of the State of North Carolina, within whose boundaries the property involved was situated. The opinion of the court was delivered by Judge Waddill, the portion relating to the assignee's rights reading in the main as follows:

Considering the claims above set forth in this subdivision, they consist of three items aggregating \$6,407.50, and are for obligations incurred by the defendant company, prior to the receivership, to laborers, on account of which claims the amounts thereof were advanced to the laborers by the assignors of the present holders of the claims, who hold the assignments by the laborers who did the work, and to whom the company's obligations were given, and for these claims receiver's certificates were likewise issued shortly after the receivership. The holders of these claims insist that, irrespective of their receiver's certificates, they are entitled to be paid the amounts due under the statute of North Carolina hereinafter recited, and that they stand in the place and stead of the laborers who assigned the claims, under the statute in question. Appellees, on the other hand, say that the statute under which they claim has no application, and that in any event the claimants are not entitled to the benefit of such statute because the advancements were to and upon the credit of the company, and not to the laborers themselves. The facts under which these several labor claims were acquired by the holders thereof were substantially these: The Southern Sawmills and Lumber Company executed notes to Edmund & White for \$2,957.50 and \$982.50, respectively, which were indorsed by Edmund & White to the Bank of Lumberton, and upon their indorsement the bank loaned the money

to Edmund & White, who, with said money, paid the pay rolls of the company covering wages due laborers for the months of August and September, 1902, which said pay rolls carried assignments from the laborers to Edmund & White, of which the Southern Sawmills and Lumber Company had full notice. Edmund & White did not deal directly with the laborers, but Mr. Morrow, superintendent of the Southern Sawmills and Lumber Company, obtained the pay rolls and assignments and paid the wages to the laborers, as agent for Edmund & White, and Edmund & White were paid a commission by the Southern Sawmills and Lumber Company, for obtaining the money. And as to the certificate issued to R. R. Barnes for \$2,467.50, the facts are as follows: On October 20, 1902, the Southern Sawmills and Lumber Company, being in need of funds with which to pay its laborers, applied to R. R. Barnes, who furnished the same to the laborers, and took assignments from them for their wages, together with the written consent to said transaction of the sawmills company. In this case, officers of the sawmills company acted for Barnes in procuring the assignments from the laborers.

The Supreme Court of the United States, in the case of *Shropshire, Woodliff & Co. v. Bush*, 204 U. S. 186, 27 Sup. Ct. 178, 51 L. Ed. 436, settles clearly the right to assign labor claims, and the right to subrogation to the purchaser of the lien of the laborers. It may be assumed as the settled doctrine, unless the claim is for money bona fide advanced to laborers, and upon the faith of their preference, for the amounts due them, as distinguished from a mere advance to the company of money with which to pay laborers, that the purchaser of such labor claims does not become subrogated to the rights of the laborer whose claim is assigned. We think the transaction as shown by the record, fairly considered and construed, entitled the holders of these claims to the benefit of whatever lien or right the laborer possessed, and that the money was advanced on the faith of the preference to which the laborer was supposed to be entitled as distinguished from the credit of the company. This was the view taken by the special master, and concurred in by the circuit judge, and we are not inclined to differ from their view, though the two claims assigned to Edmund & White come dangerously near the border line of claims that can not be given preference to because of the relation of the debtor company to the transaction. We allow the same, however, inasmuch as the money to pay the laborers was actually procured from the bank by Edmund & White, upon their indorsement and by their agent paid to the laborers, who in turn took the assignment in their favor from the laborers, and the money was subsequently repaid to the bank by Edmund & White.

This brings us to the status of the claims themselves as against the bondholders [whose claims were protected by a mortgage]. Appellants maintain that presumably claims of this class could not be paid out of the corpus of the estate, nor would the court have authority to issue receiver's certificates making them so payable out of the corpus of the estate preferentially over the bondholders. (Cook on Corporations (5th Ed.) vol. 3, pp. 2459, 2460.) But the question in this case is whether or not these claims are not entitled to priority under the statute of North Carolina providing for payment of debts of this character over the mortgage indebtedness. The statute is contained

in section 1255 (now section 1131 of the Revisal of 1905 of the Laws of North Carolina), and is as follows:

“Mortgages of corporations upon their property or earnings, whether in bonds or otherwise, shall not have power to exempt the property or earnings of such corporations from execution for the satisfaction of any judgment obtained in courts of the State against such corporations for labor performed, nor torts committed by such corporation whereby any person is killed or any person or property injured, any clause or clauses in such mortgage to the contrary notwithstanding.”

This statute has been passed upon by the court of last resort of North Carolina, by this court, and recently by a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, on appeal from this court. (*Guardian Trust Co. v. Fisher*, 200 U. S. 57, 26 Sup. Ct. 186; *Hampton v. N. & W. R. Co.*, 127 Fed. 662, 62 C. C. A. 388; *Railroad Co. v. Burnett*, 123 N. C. 210, 31 S. E. 602.)

It is earnestly insisted in behalf of the appellants that, because no formal judgment has been rendered for payment of these claims, this statute has no application, and that the laborers can only be paid, if anything, for such sums as may be due them for labor not exceeding a period of two months next preceding the time of the receivership, as provided in section 1206 of the Revisal of 1905. We do not concur in this view of the law. This latter section, giving to laborers of insolvent corporations a specific lien upon the assets of the company for two months' wages, at least was not intended to militate against rights that they might otherwise have under existing law for debts due them. This section gives a special lien for certain wages. The other section (1131) gives them a right of priority as to debts for labor generally, and as against which the prior and subsequent mortgages of the corporation are void. (*Railroad Co. v. Burnett*, 123 N. C. 210, 216, 31 S. E. 602.) Manifestly the two statutes should each be given effect where it can be done, rather than to declare inoperative one of them. (*Boston Safe Deposit Co. v. Hudson*, 68 Fed. 760, 15 C. C. A. 651.) The statute (section 1131) is exceedingly comprehensive in its terms, and was intended manifestly to prevent corporations within the State of North Carolina, and those doing business with them, from avoiding the payment of obligations due to laborers. The language of the statute is peculiar, “shall not have power to exempt the property or earnings of such corporation from execution for the satisfaction of any judgment obtained in the courts of the State against such corporation, for labor performed, nor torts committed by such corporation” etc., which language, as construed by this court, and the supreme court of North Carolina, in the last cited cases, makes, as to the particular indebtedness, the mortgage void altogether. The contention made, that in an administration suit of the affairs of a corporation it would be necessary to actually procure a judgment for the labor claim, would be an extremely narrow, instead of a liberal interpretation of this statute (*Foster's Fed. Prac.* 243; *Thomas v. Railroad (C. C.)* 91 Fed. 202), and, in any event, it would hardly seem to avail to defeat altogether the payment of a just claim due for labor, for the reason that with such claim, the fund in hand, and the amount undisputed, if the only objection to its payment was that it had not been reduced to judgment, the court would

at least withhold the distribution of that part of the fund until an opportunity was afforded to obtain the judgment; and it can hardly be doubted that the decree of a court of equity in such a suit, adjudging the amount of the claim, and that it was due for labor, would to all intents and purposes be such a judgment as would meet the requirements of the statute, according to its true intent, meaning, and spirit. These claims were confessedly of the class entitled to be paid under the statute for labor performed, and were seasonably presented by persons entitled to present them and claim the benefit of the statute; and the court passed upon the character and amount of the claims, and by its decree awarded certificates to pay for them. The fact that receiver's certificates, technically, should not have been issued upon the then state of the pleadings does not affect the decree of the court in determining the character and amount of these claims, and as such entitles them to payment under the peculiar statute with which we are dealing, out of the corpus of the property, prior to the bondholders.

CONTRACT OF EMPLOYMENT—INTENT TO DEFRAUD—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT—*Bailey v. State*, Supreme Court of Alabama, 48 Southern Reporter, page 498.—Alonzo Bailey was convicted of procuring advances under a fraudulent contract of employment, and was imprisoned. An application for a writ of habeas corpus was refused, whereupon he appealed to the supreme court of the State, which affirmed the ruling of the court below. The only point involved was the constitutionality of section 6845 of the Code of 1907 (sec. 4730, Cr. Code, 1896, amended Aug. 15, 1907), which penalizes the fraudulent procuring of advances on written contracts of employment. The constitutionality of this section was upheld, as appears from the following quotation from the opinion of the court, delivered by Judge Denson:

The statute, in its form as section 4730 of the Code of 1896, came before this court for construction in the case of *Ex parte Riley*, 94 Ala., 82, 10 South. 528, and there it was clearly pointed out that a mere breach of contract is not by the statute made a crime, but that the criminal feature of the statute consists in the entering into a contract with the intent to injure or defraud the employer, and the refusal of the employee to perform the contract, with a like intent. (*Dorsey's case*, 111 Ala. 40, 20 South. 629; *McIntosh's case*, 117 Ala. 128, 23 South. 668.) In neither of the cases cited was the constitutionality of the statute presented for consideration; but in the case of *State v. Vann*, 150 Ala. 66, 43 South. 357, the constitutionality of the statute, as section 4730 of the Code of 1896, was presented for determination, and it was there insisted that the statute was obnoxious to the twentieth section of the Bill of Rights of 1901, which is in this language: "That no person shall be imprisoned for debt." The insistence was overturned and the statute was held not to be unconstitutional, the court, as the basis of the ruling, again pointing out the fact that "a mere breach of contract is not by the statute made a crime," but that the criminal feature consists in the intent to injure

or defraud. This intent to injure or defraud marks the line of cleavage between the statute in judgment and the one approved March 1, 1901 (Acts 1900-1901, p. 1208), which made it a misdemeanor for any person, who had contracted in writing to labor for or serve another for any given time, etc., and who, before the expiration of such contract, and without the consent of the other party, and without sufficient excuse (to be judged by the court), shall leave such other party, etc. This last statute was by Judge Jones of the federal court held to be obnoxious to the state constitution (Peonage cases [D. C.] 123 Fed. 671 [Bulletin No. 50, p. 175]); and was by this court held to be unconstitutional in Toney's case, 141 Ala. 120, 37 South. 332 [Bulletin No. 57, p. 684], because of the restrictions it attempts to place on the right to make contracts. These two cases are now urged as authority in support of the insistence of appellant that the statute under consideration is violative of the constitution, and we are asked to overrule the Vann case, *supra*. While it is clear that a mere breach of contract can not be made the foundation for a criminal offense, and that undue restrictions can not be placed on the right of an individual to enter into contracts, yet when the individual enters into a contract, with the intention to perpetrate a fraud, it is equally obvious that he passes over the constitutional boundary line in respect to the free right to contract; and it is within legislative competency to enact a law penalizing the entering into a contract with such intent, and obtaining money or other personal property through such agency. This is all that is effectuated by the legislation in question. On its face the purpose is to punish fraudulent practices, not the mere failure to pay a debt. Thus considered, it is constitutional. Without further extension of the argument we not only decline to depart from the ruling made in Vann's case, on this subject, but reaffirm it.

In *Ex parte Riley*, 94 Ala. 82, 83, 10 South. 528, 529, it was said: "As the intent is the design, purpose, resolve, or determination in the mind of the accused, it can rarely be proved by direct evidence, but must be ascertained by means of inferences from the facts and circumstances developed by the proof. In the absence, however, of evidence from which such inferences may be drawn, the jury are not justified in indulging in mere unsupported conjectures, speculations, or suspicions as to the intentions which were not disclosed by any visible or tangible act, expression, or circumstance." It is no doubt true that the difficulty in proving the intent, made patent by that decision, suggested the amendment of 1903 (Gen. Acts 1903, p. 345) to the statute, which provides that the refusal or failure of a person who enters into such contract to perform such act or service, or refund such money, or pay for such property, without just cause, shall be *prima facie* evidence of the intent to injure or defraud his employer. This amendment has twice been declared by this court to be a constitutional enactment. (Thomas' case, 144 Ala. 77, 40 South. 271, 2 L. R. A. (N. S.) 1011, 113 Am. St. Rep. 17; Vann's case, 150 Ala. 66, 43 South. 357.) However, these cases are here assailed, and the conclusions reached therein are vigorously combated in brief of appellant's counsel. A reexamination of those cases, together with the consideration of others, has not only not shaken our faith in the correctness of the conclusion there reached, but confirmed it, and we decline to recede therefrom.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN VIOLATION OF STATUTE—CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE—COURSE OF EMPLOYMENT—*Strafford v. Republic Iron and Steel Company, Supreme Court of Illinois, 87 Northeastern Reporter, page 358.*—Russell Strafford sued the company named to recover damages for an injury received while in its service contrary to law, he being under 14 years of age, which is the minimum fixed by the law of the State. Judgment was in the child's favor in the circuit court of Rock Island County, and was affirmed on appeal to the appellate court. The same result followed a further appeal to the supreme court of the State, as appears from the following extracts from its opinion, which was delivered by Judge Farmer:

It was a controverted question of fact on the trial whether appellee was set at the work he was performing when injured by appellant's foreman, or whether he had been set to do other work, which he quit without orders to do so, and, without any directions from the foreman, but against his orders, began the work of feeding angle irons into the machine, which he was engaged in doing when injured. The proof offered by appellee tended to show he was set at the work he was engaged at when injured by the foreman, while the proof offered by appellant tended to show he was set at other work and ordered not to work at the straightening machine. Appellant's contention is that it was incumbent upon appellee to prove his injury was the direct and proximate result of the unlawful employment, and that if he had of his own accord left the work he was employed for, and directed to do and attempted to do a different character of work which he was forbidden to do, and was injured while so engaged, and his own negligence contributed to the injury then there can be no recovery.

In *American Car Co. v. Armentraut*, 214 Ill. 509, 73 N. E. 766, [Bulletin No. 59, p. 335] it was held that one of the purposes of the statute was to protect children from their own immaturity, inexperience, and heedlessness, and that, where a child under 14 years of age employed in violation of the statute was injured while engaged in the performance of the work he was directed to do, the negligence of the child, though it may have contributed to the injury, was no defense to the liability of the employer.

Appellant, assuming the fact to be as contended by it, that appellee had of his own accord left the work he was employed and directed to do and engaged in work he was forbidden to perform when injured, argues that there is no more reason for saying his injury resulted from his employment than there would be if he had, while in appellant's employment, been struck by lightning. It is true liability does not depend alone upon the employment, but the injury must be a consequence of such employment. The mere fact that a child employed in violation of law receives an injury in nowise resulting from the employment would not create a liability. But such is not the case here. The vital and distinguishing fact here is that appellee was employed by appellant to labor in its manufacturing establishment and while engaged in performing services for it in said establishment he was injured. He was in appellant's

plant by virtue of his employment to work for it, and the fact that he may have temporarily abandoned the work he was employed and directed to do and engaged in a forbidden line we think does not destroy the causal relation between the employment and the injury, and, if it does not, contributory negligence of appellee would constitute no defense, and the court did not err in refusing to submit that question to the jury. It is imposing no harsh burden on appellant to hold that, having unlawfully employed the appellee to labor in its plant, it is liable to him for any injury received by him resulting from the performance of services for it, whether those services were in the line he was directed to perform or not.

The fact that the statute under consideration does not in express terms provide a liability in damages for its violation, as is done by certain statutes relating to mines and miners, can make no difference under the construction given the statute in *American Car Co. v. Armentraut*, supra. The statute was enacted for the protection of the health and safety of children, and a liability for damages resulting from its violation is created whether it is expressly so declared in the statute or not.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—CONSTRUCTION OF STATUTE—ASSUMPTION OF RISK—ACTS IN EMERGENCIES—*Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago and St. Louis Railway Company v. Bossert*, Appellate Court of Indiana, 87 *Northeastern Reporter*, page 158.—Abraham Bossert had recovered damages for the death of one Scoonover, of whose estate he was administrator. The latter was employed by the company named as a section hand and met his death while aiding to remove hurriedly a hand car from the track to clear the way for an approaching train. Various errors were alleged as grounds for reversing judgment, none of which the appellate court allowed, and the judgment of the court below was affirmed.

The opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Watson, discussed among other matters the elements of a valid complaint under the statute on which the action was grounded and the status of an employer disregarding a statutory duty. It is in the main as follows:

1. The complaint is founded upon section 1, cl. 2, employers' liability act 1893, p. 294, c. 130 (section 7083, Burns' Ann. St. 1901), which provides "that every railroad * * * shall be liable for damages for personal injuries suffered by any employee while in its service, the employee so injured being in the exercise of due care and diligence, in the following cases: Second. Where such injury resulted from the negligence of any person in the service of such corporation, to whose order or direction the injured employee at the time of the injury was bound to conform and did conform." For a complaint to be good under this act it must show that defendant is a railroad (*Ft. Wayne Gas Co. v. Nieman*, 33 Ind. App. 178-181, 71 N. E. 59); that the injured employee was conforming to the order

and direction of some person in the service of the railroad whose order and direction he was bound to obey, and did obey, and that while thus complying with such order or direction, himself without fault, he was injured by the negligence of the employee to whose order he was conforming (*Indianapolis, etc., Transit Co. v. Foreman*, 162 Ind. 85-94, 69 N. E. 669, 102 Am. St. Rep. 185; *Ft. Wayne Gas Company v. Nieman*, 33 Ind. App. 178-181, 182, 71 N. E. 59); that the employee had no knowledge of the danger, for, if so, he is deemed to have assumed the risk as an incident of his employment (*Louisville Ry. Co. v. Corps*, 124 Ind. 427, 428, 24 N. E. 1046, 8 L. R. A. 636). The doctrine of assumed risk is read into the above-quoted statute, thus making that doctrine a part thereof (*Amer. Rolling Mill Co. v. Hullinger*, 161 Ind. 673-675-683, 67 N. E. 986, 69 N. E. 460; *Whitcomb v. Standard Oil Co.*, 153 Ind. 513, 55 N. E., 440); otherwise if the injury is due to the negligent nonobservance of a positive and fixed duty required by statute (*Island Coal Co. v. Swaggerty*, 159 Ind. 664-667, 62 N. E. 1103, 65 N. E. 1026). As said in *Monteith v. Kokomo, etc., Co.*, 159 Ind. 149-151, 64 N. E. 610, 58 L. R. A. 944: "A distinction is to be noted between statutes such as the employers' liability act, which provides in general terms that the employer shall be liable for injuries to an employee, * * * and statutes which require of the employer the performance of a specific duty. * * * Statutes of the former class do little more than declare the rule of the common law. Statutes of the latter class impose specific obligations. A violation of the second is an unlawful act or omission, a plain breach of a particular duty owing to the servant, and generally constitutes negligence per se." Assumption of risk is negated in a complaint by averments showing that plaintiff had no knowledge of the danger, or of facts and circumstances which, if he had known, would have apprised him of his peril. But the danger must not appear to have been open and obvious, else it will be presumed that the risk was assumed. The complaint need not, however, negative knowledge which the law imputes by reason of a person contracting for and engaging in a particular service. In this State to allege want of knowledge negatives also imputed knowledge. (*Amer. Rolling Mill Co. v. Hullinger*, supra; *Pennsylvania Co. v. Witte*, 15 Ind. App. 583, 43 N. E. 319, 44 N. E. 377; *Consolidated Stone Co. v. Summit*, 152 Ind. 297-299, 300, 53 N. E. 235.) Assumption of risk is an element distinct from contributory negligence, and is not affected by section 362, Burns' Ann. St. 1908, providing that want of contributory negligence need not be alleged, but shall be a matter of defense. (*Cleveland C. & St. L. Ry. Co. v. Scott*, 29 Ind. App. 519-531-533, 64 N. E. 896; *Bowles v. Ind. Ry. Co.*, 27 Ind. App. 672, 62 N. E. 94, 87 Am. St. Rep. 279; *Baltimore & O. S. W. R. Co. v. Hunsucker*, 33 Ind. App. 27, 70 N. E. 556; *Indianapolis Transit Co. v. Foreman*, supra.) One is a matter of contract; the other of conduct. (*Wortman v. Minich*, 28 Ind. App. 31-36, 62 N. E. 85.) Hence an allegation that plaintiff was injured "without any fault or negligence on his part" does not take the place of an averment showing that the risk was not knowingly assumed by plaintiff as an incident of the service. (*Indianapolis Transit Co. v. Foreman*, supra.) The complaint is clear in each of its essential requirements. Appellant's demurrer to the complaint was therefore properly overruled.

* * * * *

3. Appellant's third assignment of error for a new trial, viz., that the verdict is contrary to the law and the evidence, is all that we shall consider. Assumption of risk was negatived in the complaint by allegations showing that plaintiff, in pursuance of the command of Wm. Scoonover, proceeded to remove the hand car from the track without knowledge of facts calculated to apprise him of the immediate danger in the undertaking, which was a sufficient negation of assumption of risk to establish a *prima facie* case. The evidence shows very clearly that the rules of the company required section hands to be prepared at all times for extra trains, and under the present system of operating schedules by telegraph the rule could not well be otherwise. For this reason, and in the absence of any evidence to the contrary, we must conclude that Benjamin Scoonover assumed the duty and the risk of looking out for extra trains as an incident and a part of his employment as section hand. Admitting that the risk of removing hand cars from the track to allow trains to pass was ordinarily assumed by Benjamin Scoonover as an incident and a part of his employment as section hand, he can not be presumed to have assumed such a risk when ordered, as in this case, to remove a hand car by a person in charge and with authority to give and enforce such an order. In *Terre Haute, etc., R. Co. v. Rittenhouse*, 28 Ind. App. 633-640, 641, 62 N. E. 295, 297, the court said: "We think the general rule under the employers' liability act is that where one in the service of a railroad * * * has power and authority to direct and control the work of another employee, the former must be regarded as a superior of the master, and not a fellow-servant. In such case the negligence of the superior is the negligence of the corporation. * * * 'The object of the statute was to make one to whom is committed by a railway company the authority to direct and control employees in the same service the representative, in respect to that service, of the common employer, so that his acts, within the scope of his employment, are the acts of the company, and his negligence its negligence.'" In the case at bar Benjamin Scoonover was acting under the order and direction of the foreman, whose orders and directions he was bound by the terms of his employment to obey so long as the orders given were within the scope of said foreman's employment. We believe that the order in this case, "Help get this hand car off the track," was properly given within the scope of the general authority of the section foreman in controlling and directing work upon his section, and, as such, was the order of the railroad company for the negligence of which it is liable.

4. Appellant's attempt to show, by a series of tests and experiments, that Benjamin Scoonover might have saved himself from injury had he not been negligent; that he had four seconds in which to step off the track after the train came in sight, etc. But it must be realized that Benjamin Scoonover was not performing an experiment in attempting to get the hand car off the track. He was acting under circumstances which would exempt him from being amenable to the same degree of care that would be required under ordinary circumstances. He acted in an emergency and to avoid peril. In *Clarke v. Penn. Co.*, 132 Ind. 199-200, 31 N. E. 808 (17 L. R. A. 811) the court said: "One who does an act under an impulse or upon a belief created by a sudden danger attributable to another's negligence is not

to be regarded as guilty of contributory fault, even though the act would be regarded as a negligent one if performed under circumstances not indicating such peril." (Penn. Co. v. Roney, 89 Ind. 453, 46 Am. Rep. 173; Indianapolis, etc., R. Co. v. Carr, 35 Ind. 510.)

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—SAFE PLACE TO WORK—QUESTIONS FOR JURY—ASSUMPTION OF RISK—CONSTRUCTION OF STATUTE—CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE—COURSE OF EMPLOYMENT—*Harvey v. Texas and Pacific Railway Company, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 166 Federal Reporter, page 385.*—Mrs. Amanda Harvey had sued in the United States circuit court for the eastern district of Texas to recover damages for the death of her son, W. S. Harvey, who had lost his life by an accident while in the employment of the company named. This court directed the jury to return a verdict for the defendant company, from which the plaintiff appealed, securing a reversal of the judgment of the court below, and the cause was remanded for a new trial. W. S. Harvey was a hostler's helper and was riding on a locomotive at the time of the accident causing his death, in order to reach a coal chute where the engine was to be supplied. Harvey was not specifically ordered to do this work, but was doing it in pursuance of a system of exchange with his fellow-workmen, which was known to and allowed by his foreman. Death was occasioned by contact with a post supporting a portion of the roundhouse, this post standing but six or seven inches from the window of the engine cab in which Harvey was riding. Further facts in the case and the controverted points are set out with sufficient fullness in the portions of the opinion quoted herewith. The opinion was delivered by Judge Shelby, who, after stating the facts, said:

1. It is a general rule that the master must provide a reasonably safe place for the servant to work. He is not an insurer of his servant's safety, but as to the place of labor and the instrumentalities furnished, the master is bound to exercise such care as a prudent man would exercise under the circumstances, and he must see to it that the instrumentalities are not such as will expose the servant to unnecessary danger. It follows that the master is in default as respects his servants unless the plant and appliances furnished are such as would commend themselves to a reasonably prudent man—"such as a prudent man would furnish if his own life were exposed to the danger that would result from unsuitable or unsafe appliances." The doctrine is now unquestioned that the master is obliged to furnish adequate and reasonably safe appliances and premises with or in which the servant is required to perform his duties. (1 Labatt on Master and Servant, § 22a.) The difficulty is not in ascertaining the principle, but in its application.

The plaintiff's son was killed in the defendant's roundhouse by the defendant's engine. The deceased was riding on the engine, and

was crushed against one of the posts that supported the roundhouse. The post stood so close to the track that it came within about six inches of the engine cab as it passed the post. It does not appear from the record that it was necessary that the post should be so close to the track in order to serve its purpose as a part of the roundhouse. The record reveals nothing to forbid the inference that the post could have been placed at a greater distance from the track and still have served the same purpose.

It has been frequently held, and seems consonant with sound reason, that negligence may be imputed to a master whenever an instrumentality, plant, or place of business furnished by him is of such a character that his servant is subjected to unnecessary dangers, or to danger greater than is reasonable or proper.

It is not only the duty of the master to construct a safe plant or to have safe premises, but it is his duty to keep them safe. A structure too near the track may be permitted to stand for years without attracting attention until some unfortunate accident occurs. But this does not relieve the railroad company of the charge of negligence in so constructing the road, or in permitting it to remain in a condition dangerous to the safety of the servant. (*Wood v. L. & N. R. R. Co. (C. C.)* 88 Fed. 44.) If a post is unnecessarily too near the track for safety, it should be moved. The fact that it is a part of a permanent structure may add to the expense of the change, but the question of cost is insignificant "when weighed in the balance against peril to human life." (*L. & N. R. R. Co. v. Hall*, 91 Ala. 112, 123, 8 South. 371.)

Waiving other questions for consideration later, we are of the opinion that the case could not properly be taken from the jury on the ground that there was no evidence showing, or from which the jury might infer, that the defendant company was negligent in permitting the post to stand so near the track.

2. In the absence of a statute changing the rule at common law, it is implied in the contract of hire that the servant risks the dangers which ordinarily attend or are incident to the business in which he voluntarily engages for compensation. But in affirming this doctrine, the Supreme Court said:

"It is equally implied in the same contract that the master shall supply the physical means and agencies for the conduct of his business. It is also implied, and public policy requires, that in selecting such means he shall not be wanting in proper care. His negligence in that regard is not a hazard usually or necessarily attendant upon the business. Nor is it one which the servant, in legal contemplation, is presumed to risk, for the obvious reason that the servant who is to use the instrumentalities provided by the master has, ordinarily, no connection with their purchase in the first instance, or with their preservation or maintenance in suitable condition after they have been supplied by the master." (*Hough v. Railway Co.*, 100 U. S. 213, 217, 25 L. Ed. 612.)

It follows that a risk which the master has negligently created by doing or permitting something to be done, or by omitting some precaution which, in the exercise of ordinary care, ought to have been taken, can not be regarded as one of the ordinary risks of the employment which the servant, as matter of law, is presumed to have assumed.

But we need not examine this defense further as a question at common law, nor consider the effect of deceased's knowledge or want of knowledge of the defect, for there is a statute of the State of Texas which is applicable on this point.

The effect of this statute is that, if it be found that the death of the deceased was caused by the wrong or negligence of the defendant, and if the defendant knew of the defect and danger, the plea that the deceased had assumed the risk could not prevail; nor could such plea prevail if the facts were such that "a person of ordinary care would have continued in the service with the knowledge of the defect and danger." Even if the facts were such that at common law the deceased would have been held to have assumed the risk, this statute, on the evidence in the record, would forbid the trial court to instruct the jury peremptorily to find for the defendant on the plea of assumption of risk.

3. We come now to the question of contributory negligence. There are many cases in the state courts and the lower federal courts which show reluctance in submitting controverted facts, or facts from which different inferences may be drawn, to a jury when the action involves questions of negligence and contributory negligence in a suit by a servant against the master growing out of personal injuries. Labatt says that:

"The American courts * * * have gone to such extreme lengths in controlling and setting aside verdicts that it seems to be often difficult, if not impossible, to acquit them of ignoring altogether the true boundary line between their own functions and those of juries." 1 Labatt on Master and Servant, § 330.

Beven shows that there was the same tendency in the lower courts in England, caused, he suggests, by the fact that some judges were "impressed with the frequently unjust decisions of juries in favor of injured people against wealthy corporations." (1 Beven on Negligence, 148.) But the House of Lords in England, and the Supreme Court in this country, have endeavored to correct this tendency, and have indicated that these cases, like others with disputed facts or facts subject to different inferences, should be submitted to the jury. (1 Beven on Negligence, 149, and cases there cited; *Jones v. E. T. & G. R. R. Co.*, 128 U. S. 443, 9 Sup. Ct. 118, 32 L. Ed. 478.)

It was the duty of the enginemen, or hostlers, to move the engines in an out of the roundhouse. Harvey, the deceased, was a hostler's helper. It was his duty to help "coal" the engine at the coal chute, and to help the hostlers in moving the engines. He got on the engine in the roundhouse, and was with D. George, who was also a hostler's helper. Harvey and George sat down in the cab window, with their faces toward the inside and their backs toward the outside. Sitting this way, their hips protruded from the window. The engine was moved backward very slowly, and was to be backed only a short distance. His conduct is not to be measured by rules applicable to fast travel on an ordinary train. (*Denver & B. P. R. T. Co. v. Dwyer*, 20 Colo. 132, 136, 36 Pac. 1106.) George was sitting beside the deceased, but nearer the rear end of the cab. As the engine backed, George passed the post first and in safety, but Harvey was caught between it and the cab window, and killed.

Does the fact that the deceased sat in the window, in view of all the other evidence, show a want of ordinary care? Was the act so clearly

significant of negligence that, taken with all the evidence, no other inference could be reasonably drawn from it? If it be assumed that the deceased knew the proximity of the post and the danger his position put him in, no one could deny that his action was reckless; but to assume that he had knowledge of the peril caused by the post and the breadth of the cab would be to ignore the instinct of a man to protect his own life, and also to ignore his right to assume that the road was so constructed as to be reasonably safe to servants who gave or received signals from the window. Can it be that all reasonable men would infer from the evidence that the deceased had knowledge of the facts and the danger, and, with such knowledge, assumed the position of peril? Unless he is chargeable with knowledge of the danger, he is not chargeable with negligence. Contributory negligence is "predicable only where the servant understood the conditions and the resulting dangers;" and the learned author adds, "the case is always for the jury if it is not a necessary deduction from the evidence that he did understand those conditions and those dangers." (1 Labatt on Master and Servant, § 330.)

Riding on cars, and the position, whether standing or sitting, of the servant or passenger so riding, relates to conduct in the ordinary affairs of life, and, when the prudence or recklessness of such conduct is in question, it is a matter of ordinary reasoning which may be properly and justly left to the jury. (1 Beven on Negligence, 149.) To a judge who may not have had experience from observation of the ordinary conduct of young workmen riding on engines, the position taken by the deceased may seem not only wanting in dignity, but in ordinary prudence, while to a jury of 12 men coming from different walks in life, probably familiar from observation or experience with the ordinary habits and manners of men under the circumstances involved, the act of the deceased in taking his seat in the window of the cab, considered in the light of all the evidence, might not appear necessarily imprudent nor wanting in ordinary care.

In analogous cases there are many opinions and expressions of courts of high authority tending to support our conclusion that in a case like this the question of contributory negligence is for the jury.

We are of opinion that the learned trial judge was not authorized to direct a verdict for the defendant on the ground that, as a matter of law, the deceased was guilty of contributory negligence.

4. The learned counsel for the defendant contends that the deceased, at the moment of the accident, "had no duty to perform on the engine, and merely boarded it to be carried down to the coal chute, at which place his duty called him to assist in coaling the engine." It is true that he was not engaged in the performance of any work at the moment he was struck. The evidence tends to prove, or, at least, the inference is permissible, that he was not only on the way to the place where he was to work, but that he was subject to orders, and was ready to help, if needed, in the moving of the engine. The evidence tends to show he was on duty. He was on his way to the coal chute about 200 yards distant, where he was to help in putting coal on the engine, and had mounted the engine, as was usual, or, at least, as was not unusual, in the roundhouse, to go on it to the coal chute. We are of opinion that the servant should be deemed in the master's service whenever present to perform his duty and subject to orders,

although at the given moment he may not be engaged in the actual performance of any work. (East Line & Red River R. R. Co. v. Scott, 71 Tex. 703, 10 S. W. 298, 10 Am. St. Rep. 804; St. L., A. & T. Ry. Co. v. Welch, 72 Tex. 298, 10 S. W. 529, 2 L. R. A. 839.) "They also serve who only stand and wait."

The judgment is reversed, and the cause remanded for a new trial.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS — STRIKES — INJUNCTIONS — CONSPIRACY — INTERFERENCE WITH EMPLOYMENT — SECONDARY BOYCOTT — RECIPROCAL RIGHTS OF EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES — *Iron Molders' Union v. Allis-Chalmers Co., United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 166 Federal Reporter, page 45.*—This case was before the court of appeals on appeal from the circuit court of the eastern district of Wisconsin. An injunction had been granted by the latter court, which, with the pleadings, petition, and evidence are to be found under the title *Allis-Chalmers Co. v. Iron Molders' Union*, 150 Fed. 155. (See Bulletin No. 70, p. 734.) This decree enjoined four Wisconsin local unions of the national organization of iron molders and some sixty individuals who were officers and members—

(1) From in any manner directly interfering with, hindering, obstructing, or stopping the business of the said complainant, or its agents, servants or employees, in the maintenance, conduct, management or operation of its business.

(2) From compelling or inducing or attempting to compel or induce by threats, intimidation, force or violence any of the said company's employees to fail or refuse to work for it, or to leave its service.

(3) From preventing or attempting to prevent any person or persons by threats, intimidation, force or violence, from freely entering into or continuing in the said company's service.

(4) And from congregating upon or about the company's premises or the streets, approaches and places adjacent or leading to said premises for the purpose of intimidating its employees or preventing or hindering them from fulfilling their duties as such employees or for the purpose of [or] in such manner as to induce or coerce by threats, violence, intimidation or persuasion, any of the said company's employees to leave its service or any person to refuse to enter its service.

(5) From congregating upon or about the company's premises or the sidewalk, streets, alleys or approaches adjoining or adjacent to or leading to said premises, and from picketing the said complainant's places of business or the homes or boarding houses or residences of the said complainant's employees.

(6) From interfering with the said company's employees in going to and from their work.

(7) From going singly or collectively to the homes of the said company's employees for the purpose of intimidating or threatening them or collectively persuading them to leave its service.

(8) From enforcing, maintaining or aiding any illegal boycott against the said company, its agents or employees.

(9) From endeavoring to illegally induce people not to deal with said company, its agents and employees.

(10) From preventing or attempting to prevent by threats, intimidation, persuasion or in any other manner any person or corporation from performing work for said complainant and from doing business with it.

(11) From intimidating or threatening in any manner the wives and families of said employees at their homes or elsewhere.

(12) From doing any of the aforesaid or any other acts for the purpose of compelling and inducing or attempting to compel or induce the complainant by threats, intimidation, force or violence, against its will or the will of its officers, to employ or to discharge any person or persons whomsoever, and especially to employ members of said unions or discharge persons who are not members of said unions.

(13) From combining, associating, agreeing, mutually undertaking, concerting together or with other persons for the purpose of doing or causing to be done any of the aforesaid prohibited acts.

(14) From combining, associating, agreeing, mutually undertaking, concerting together or with other persons for the purpose of preventing [or hindering the complainant from doing or performing] any lawful act in the conduct of its aforesaid business, or for the purpose of injuring the complainant in its aforesaid business, or of compelling the complainant against its will from doing or performing any lawful act or from injuring the said complainant in its trade and business.

(15) From directing and abetting or counselling any acts whatsoever or in any manner whatsoever the conspiracy and combination found by the court to exist, to prevent the complainant and its officers and employees in the free and uninterrupted control and direction of its business and affairs and to prevent the complainant from doing or performing any and all lawful acts in the conduct of its business and to compel the complainant against its will from doing and performing its lawful business and to prevent the complainant from doing or performing all lawful acts in the conduct or management of its business.

(16) From by threats, intimidation, persuasion, force or violence, compelling or attempting to compel or induce any of the apprentices in the employ of the said complainant to break their contracts and leave the employ of the said complainant.

On the appeal it was claimed that the injunction improperly included the unions, since they were voluntary, unincorporated associations; that it wrongfully denied the use of persuasion and of pickets; that it was not supported by the evidence, and that the finding of the existence of a boycott was contrary to the evidence.

The injunction was modified and affirmed, but no illegal boycott was found to exist. The opinion of the court, delivered by Judge Baker, and concurred in by Judge Grosscup in a brief supplement, discussed the reciprocal rights of organized action by employers and employees, and the bearing of the Wisconsin statute on conspiracy on the acts in question. Both opinions are reproduced in full.

Judge Baker said:

No Wisconsin statute authorized an unincorporated voluntary association to be sued in its common name. So the objection might have prevailed if it had been seasonably made. (*Karges Furniture Co. v. Amalgamated Wood Workers' Union*, 165 Ind. 421, 75 N. E., 877, 2 L. R. A. (N. S.) 788 [Bulletin No. 63, p. 564]; *Pickett v. Walsh*, 192 Mass. 572, 78 N. E. 753, 6 L. R. A. (N. S.) 1067, 116 Am. St. Rep. 272 [Bulletin No. 70, p. 747].) But the members could have been reached, of course, either by naming and serving them all, or, if that were impracticable on account of their numbers, by suing some as representatives of all. The bill treated the unions as representative of their membership; an individual member filed a verified answer in the names of the unions, alleging that he had been authorized by them so to do; and the case was carried through three hearings (temporary injunction, contempt, final decree) without a suggestion that there was a defect of parties, or rather a defect in the form under which appellee asked to have the membership of the unions brought into court. An objection of this kind will not be entertained on appeal unless it has been first duly presented in the trial court. (*Barnes v. Chicago Typographical Union*, 232 Ill. 424, 83 N. E. 940, 14 L. R. A. (N. S.) 1018 [Bulletin No. 76, p. 1016].)

The evidence showed that appellee was entitled to injunctive relief. To keep other workmen out of appellee's foundries, some of the union men went to the extent of using vile and abusive language, threats of violence, and actual assaults. This was effective enough to damage appellee's business quite seriously, and was carried on under circumstances that might be held to indicate the unions' tacit approval. None of the appellants ever challenged by appeal the justice of the temporary injunction or of the punishments for its violation. And on this appeal from the final decree not a shadow of justification is found for these acts of violence and intimidation. The only substantial question is whether or not the trial court has stepped beyond the line of safeguarding the legal rights of appellee and has thereby deprived appellants of some of their legal rights.

To organize for the purpose of securing improvement in the terms and conditions of labor, and to quit work and to threaten to quit work as means of compelling or attempting to compel employers to accede to their demands for better terms and conditions, are rights of workmen so well and so thoroughly established in the law (*Thomas v. Rld. Co.* (C. C.) 62 Fed. 803; *Arthur v. Oakes*, 63 Fed. 320, 11 C. C. A. 209, 25 L. R. A. 414; *Wabash Rld. Co. v. Hannahan* (C. C.) 121 Fed. 563 [Bulletin No. 49, p. 1374]), that nothing remains except to determine in successive cases as they arise whether the means used in the endeavor to make the strike effective are lawful or unlawful.

By section 4466a, St. Wis. 1898, and, appellee asserts, by the common law as well, it is illegal for two or more persons to combine for the purpose of "doing a harm malevolently for the sake of the harm as an end in itself, and not merely as a means to some further end legitimately desired." (*Aikens v. Wisconsin*, 195 U. S. 194, 25 Sup. Ct. 3, 49 L. Ed. 154 [Bulletin No. 57, p. 678].) As the combination among appellants was entered into and carried on in Wisconsin, a threshold inquiry is whether the present is a malicious mischief case

under this paragraph, wherein otherwise innocent means are condemned because the end is wicked, or a true strike case under the preceding paragraph, wherein, because the end is lawful, all means may be called into play except those that are unlawful in themselves.

The record shows that the local unions had a conference in regard to conditions in all the foundries in the city and county of Milwaukee; that they formulated demands respecting wages, overtime, double time on holidays, piecework, weekly pay day, limitation of the number of apprentices, and a joint arbitration board; that these demands were made alike upon all the foundry owners within that territory; and that when the demands were rejected the union men in all the foundries struck. Nothing in the record indicates that there was any want of good faith in making these demands, or that the strike was undertaken with any other purpose than to enforce them, or that appellee received or was singled out to receive different treatment from that dealt out to other foundry owners. So the employment of assault and duress in the progress of the strike should be attributed to a combination to accomplish a lawful end by unlawful means, rather than the employment of unlawful means should be taken as proof that the end sought to be accomplished by such means was itself unlawful. And consequently the parts of the decree which prohibit the use of persuasion and picketing can be justified only on the basis that such means are not lawfully to be applied in a genuine struggle of labor to obtain better terms and conditions; for surely men are not to be denied the right to pursue a legitimate end in a legitimate way, simply because they may have overstepped the mark and trespassed upon the rights of their adversary. A barrier at the line, with punishment and damages for having crossed, is all that the adversary is entitled to ask.

So far as persuasion was used to induce apprentices or others (section 16 of the decree) to break their contracts to serve for definite times, the prohibition was right. And the reason, we believe, is quite plain. Each party to such a contract has a property interest in it. If either breaks it, he does a wrong, for which the other is entitled to a remedy. And whoever knowingly makes himself a party to a wrongful and injurious act becomes equally liable. But in the present case the generality of the men who took or sought the places left by the strikers were employed or were offered employment at will, as the strikers had been. If either party, with or without cause, ends an employment at will, the other has no legal ground of complaint. So if the course of the new men who quit or who declined employment was the result of the free play of their intellects and wills, then against them appellee had no cause of action, and much less against men who merely furnished information and arguments to aid them in forming their judgments. Now it must not be forgotten that the suit was to protect appellee's property rights. Regarding employments at will, those rights reached their limit at this line: For the maintenance of the incorporeal value of a going business appellee had the right to a free access to the labor market, and the further right to the continuing services of those who accepted employment at will until such services were terminated by the free act of one or the other party to the employment. On the other side of this limiting line, appellants, we think, had the right, for the purpose of

maintaining or increasing the incorporeal value of their capacity to labor, to an equally free access to the labor market. The right of the one to persuade (but not coerce) the unemployed to accept certain terms is limited and conditioned by the right of the other to dissuade (but not restrain) them from accepting. For another thing that must not be forgotten is that a strike is one manifestation of the competition, the struggle for survival or place, that is inevitable in individualistic society. Dividends and wages must both come from the joint product of capital and labor. And in the struggle wherein each is seeking to hold or enlarge his ground, we believe it is fundamental that one and the same set of rules should govern the action of both contestants. For instance, employers may lock out (or threaten to lock out) employees at will, with the idea that idleness will force them to accept lower wages or more onerous conditions; and employees at will may strike (or threaten to strike), with the idea that idleness of the capital involved will force employers to grant better terms. These rights (or legitimate means of contest) are mutual and are fairly balanced against each other. Again, an employer of molders, having locked out his men, in order to effectuate the purpose of his lockout, may persuade (but not coerce) other foundrymen not to employ molders for higher wages or on better terms than those for which he made his stand, and not to take in his late employees at all, so that they may be forced back to his foundry at his own terms; and molders, having struck, in order to make their strike effective may persuade (but not coerce) other molders not to work for less wages or under worse conditions than those for which they struck, and not to work for their late employer at all, so that he may be forced to take them back into his foundry at their own terms. Here, also, the rights are mutual and fairly balanced. On the other hand, an employer, having locked out his men, will not be permitted, though it would reduce their fighting strength, to coerce their landlords and grocers into cutting off shelter and food; and employees, having struck, will not be permitted, though it might subdue their late employer, to coerce dealers and users into starving his business. The restraints, likewise, apply to both combatants and are fairly balanced. These illustrations, we believe, mark out the line that must be observed by both. In contests between capital and labor the only means of injuring each other that are lawful are those that operate directly and immediately upon the control and supply of work to be done and of labor to do it, and thus directly affect the apportionment of the common fund, for only at this point exists the competition, the evils of which organized society will endure rather than suppress the freedom and initiative of the individual. But attempts to injure each other by coercing members of society who are not directly concerned in the pending controversy to make raids in the rear can not be tolerated by organized society, for the direct, the primary, attack is upon society itself. And for the enforcement of these mutual rights and restraints organized society offers to both parties, equally, all the instrumentalities of law and of equity.

With respect to picketing as well as persuasion, we think the decree went beyond the line. The right to persuade new men to quit or decline employment is of little worth unless the strikers may ascertain who are the men that their late employer has persuaded or is

attempting to persuade to accept employment. Under the name of persuasion, duress may be used; but it is duress, not persuasion, that should be restrained and punished. In the guise of picketing, strikers may obstruct and annoy the new men, and by insult and menacing attitude intimidate them as effectually as by physical assault. But from the evidence it can always be determined whether the efforts of the pickets are limited to getting into communication with the new men for the purpose of presenting arguments and appeals to their free judgments. Prohibitions of persuasion and picketing, as such, should not be included in the decree. (*Karges Furniture Co. v. Amalgamated Wood Workers' Union*, (supra); *Everett-Waddy Co. v. Typographical Union*, 105 Va. 188, 53 S. E. 273, 5 L. R. A. (N. S.) 792 [Bulletin No. 65, p. 346].)

We have not found anything in the evidence that justified the decree as to an "illegal boycott." No attempt was made to touch appellee's dealings or relations with customers and users of its goods. (*Oxley Stave Co. v. Coopers' International Union* (C. C.), 72 Fed. 695 [Bulletin No. 7, p. 783]; *Loewe v. Cal. State Federation of Labor* (C. C.), 139 Fed. 71 [Bulletin No. 61, p. 1067]; *Loewe v. Lawlor*, 208 U. S. 274, 52 L. Ed. 488 [Bulletin No. 75, p. 622].) After the strike was on, appellee sent patterns, on which the strikers had been working, to foundries in other cities. The strikers procured the molders in those foundries, who also were members of the Iron Molders' Union of North America, to refuse to make appellee's castings. Those molders notified their employers that they would have to cancel their contracts to make castings for appellee, or they would quit work. Some employers discharged the notifiers, others refused to cancel and the union men struck, and others complied and the union men stayed. In those instances where the foundrymen fulfilled their contracts, appellee was not damaged; in those where foundrymen broke their contracts, there is no proof that appellee has not collected or can not collect adequate damages. That might be taken as a reason why appellee on this branch of the case is not entitled to the aid of equity. But there is a more important reason. Appellants were aiming to prevent, and appellee to secure, the doing of certain work in which the skill of appellants' trade was necessary. Here was the ground of controversy, and here the test of endurance. If appellee had the right (and we think the right was perfect) to seek the aid of fellow foundrymen to the end that the necessary element of labor should enter into appellee's product, appellant had the reciprocal right of seeking the aid of fellow molders to prevent that end. To whatever extent employers may lawfully combine and cooperate to control the supply and the conditions of work to be done, to the same extent should be recognized the right of workmen to combine and cooperate to control the supply and the conditions of the labor that is necessary to the doing of the work. In the fullest recognition of the equality and mutuality of their rights and their restrictions lies the peace of capital and labor, for so they, like nations with equally well drilled and equipped armies and navies, will make and keep treaties of peace, in the fear of the cost and consequences of war.

The decree is modified by striking out "persuasion" and "persuading" from the 4th and 7th paragraphs; further modified by

adding after "picketing" in the 5th paragraph "in a threatening or intimidating manner"; vacated as to the 1st, 8th, 9th, 10th, 14th and 15th paragraphs; affirmed as to the 2nd, 3rd, 6th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 16th and the modified 4th, 5th and 7th paragraphs. Costs of this court to be divided equally.

Grosscup, Circuit Judge (concurring) said:

The foregoing opinion so compactly and clearly sets forth the correlative rights and the correlative obligations of employer and employees when engaged in a strike or lockout, that it is with hesitation that I add this word; and I only add it that nothing that is contained in the opinion, may be construed to relate to the correlative rights and the correlative obligations of employer and employees in any relationship other than their somewhat anomalous relationship pending a strike or lockout.

A strike is cessation of work by employees in an effort to get for the employees more desirable terms. A lockout is a cessation of the furnishing of work to employees in an effort to get for the employer more desirable terms. Neither strike nor lockout completely terminates, when this is its purpose, the relationship between the parties. The employees who remain to take part in the strike or weather the lockout do so that they may be ready to go to work again on terms to which they shall agree—the employer remaining ready to take them back on terms to which he shall agree. Manifestly, then, pending a strike or a lockout, and as to those who have not finally and in good faith abandoned it, a relationship exists between employer and employee that is neither that of the general relation of employer and employee, nor again that of employer looking among strangers for employees, or employees seeking from strangers employment. And it is with respect to this somewhat anomalous relationship that, as I understand it, this opinion speaks; a statement that it seems to me ought to be made to confine the opinion to the actual situation to which it is intended to relate—to differentiate what we say from what might arise in cases where, neither strike nor lockout pending, persuasion is resorted to to induce other employers not to employ given applicants for employment, or to persuade employees not to take employment with given employers, upon which questions we do not as I understand it, express any opinion.

DECISIONS UNDER COMMON LAW.

EMPLOYER AND EMPLOYEE—DISCLOSURE OF TRADE SECRETS—CONFIDENTIAL RELATIONS—INJUNCTION—*Stevens & Company v. Stiles, Supreme Court of Rhode Island, 71 Atlantic Reporter, page 802.*—This was a case in which N. C. Stiles, a former employee of the company named, had been enjoined from using a list of names copied from the company's books while he was in its employ as an examining optician. Stiles appealed from the decree, which was, however, affirmed, and the cause remanded to the lower court for further proceedings.

Judge Johnson, who delivered the opinion of the court, took up first the question as to the relations of Stiles to his employers, and spoke as follows:

Counsel for the respondent makes no question that equity will restrain the disclosure of confidential communications, trade secrets, and the contents of private papers. But he urges that in the case at bar the relations of the parties were not confidential; that there was no agreement that respondent, upon severing his relations with the complainant company, should not enter into competition with it; that the only names copied from the complainant's lists were those of customers he personally examined; and that to copy and use such a list of names is not a breach of trust, or a breach of confidence. As to the argument that the relations of the parties were not confidential, we do not understand that the fact of agency is denied. It is admitted that the respondent was in the employ of the complainant in its store, examining the eyes of patrons, prescribing glasses, and making records of the cases examined and treated, as also of prescriptions which came to the store from physicians outside. We do not see how such relations can be considered as other than confidential. As to the absence of an agreement not to enter into competition with the complainant, it is sufficient to say that the decree does not enjoin such action on the part of the respondent. Particular stress is laid upon the claim that the only names copied from complainant's lists were those of customers whom the respondent personally examined, and it is argued that to copy and use such a list of names is not a breach of trust or a breach of confidence. The argument does not commend itself to us. It is elementary that what is done by the agent in the course of his employment is in the legal sense done by the master himself. The respondent could have no more right to copy records made by himself, while acting for the complainant, than he would have to copy any other records of the complainant to which he had access.

A number of English cases on the disclosure of trade secrets were then presented, after which the court said:

The same doctrine prevails in this country. Judge Story, after speaking of the prevention by injunction of the use of names, marks, letters, or other indicia of a tradesman, by which to pass off goods to purchasers as the manufacture of that tradesman when they are not so, states the doctrine broadly, as follows: "Upon similar grounds of irreparable mischief courts of equity will restrain a party from making a disclosure of secrets communicated to him in the course of a confidential employment. And it matters not in such cases whether the secrets be secrets of trade or secrets of title, or any other secrets of the party important to his interests." (2 Story, Eq. Jur. § 952.) In 1 High on Injunctions, § 19, it is thus stated: "The disclosure of secrets which have come to one's knowledge during the course of a confidential employment will be restrained by injunction. And where a confidential relationship has existed, out of which one of the parties has derived information or secrets concerning the other, equity fastens an obligation upon his conscience not to divulge such knowledge, and enforces the obligation, when necessary, by in-

junction. Thus persons who, in the capacity of attorneys, agents, or in other confidential relations, have obtained the custody of books and documents of their principals, or have come into possession of secrets relating to their affairs, will be restrained from making them public." (See, also, 5 Pomeroy's Eq. Jur. § 267.) In *Peabody v. Norfolk*, 98 Mass. 452, 96 Am. Dec. 664, there was a contract not to disclose secrets as to machinery. The court, Gray, J., says (page 461 of 98 Mass.): "A secret of trade or manufacture does not lose its character by being confidentially disclosed to agents or servants, without whose assistance it could not be made of any value. Even if, as is argued in support of the demurrer, the process is liable to be inspected by the assessor of internal revenue or other public officer, the owner is not the less entitled to protection against those who in, or with knowledge of, violation of contract and breach of confidence undertake to disclose it or to reap the benefit of it."

In *Loven v. People*, 158 Ill. 159, 42 N. E. 82, the bill alleged, *inter alia*, that Loven fraudulently, and without the knowledge or consent of his employers, copied the names of a great number of their customers, together with post-office addresses, by means of his duties as correspondent, from the books kept by his employers. A decree was entered enjoining Loven "from in any manner corresponding with complainant's agents or customers, or soliciting them to buy defendant's medicines of any kind, or divulging the names of complainant's customers and agents, or any of the secrets of the business, or interfering therewith."

Upon the authorities considered, it is clear, not only that equity will restrain defendants from disclosing secrets pertaining to plaintiff's business, where the knowledge of such secrets has been acquired while in the employ of the plaintiff, under an agreement that, in consideration of the employment, they would not divulge such secrets, but also that in such case it is not necessary that there should be an express covenant upon the part of the defendant not to disclose the secrets of the plaintiff's business, if such agreement may fairly be implied from the circumstances of the case and the relation of the parties. (See, also, *Stone v. Goss*, 65 N. J. Eq. 756, 55 Atl. 736, 63 L. R. A. 344, 103 Am. St. Rep. 794; *Westervelt v. Nat. Paper Co.*, 154 Ind. 673, 57 N. E. 552; *Eastman Kodak Co. v. Reichenbach*, 79 Hun, 183, 29 N. Y. Supp. 1143.)

Our conclusion is that the doctrine that equity will restrain as well from breach of trust or confidence arising from the confidential relation of employer and employee as from breach of express contract is clearly established by the authorities, and is in accordance with sound reason.

The preliminary injunction was properly granted. The appeal is dismissed, the decree below is affirmed, and the cause is remanded to the superior court for further proceedings.

EMPLOYER AND EMPLOYEE—WRONGFUL DISCHARGE—REMEDY—DUTY TO SEEK NEW EMPLOYMENT—BURDEN OF PROOF—*Quick v. Swing*, *Supreme Court of Oregon*, 99 *Pacific Reporter*, page 418.—This was an action on a contract between Elmer Quick and John Swing, by

which Quick sought to recover for breach of contract and wrongful discharge. Quick was employed as engineer and deck hand on a tugboat for one year from May 1, 1905, for the sum of \$1,000, but was discharged without cause on October 29 of that year. Judgment was rendered in Quick's favor in the circuit court of Coos County, which was, on appeal, affirmed by the supreme court. The grounds of the appeal, and the reasons for affirming the judgment appear in the following quotation from the opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Moore.

After stating the facts, Judge Moore said:

At the trial the plaintiff, appearing as a witness in his own behalf, was asked on direct examination what work, if any, he had performed between October 29, 1905, when he was discharged, and May 1, 1906, when his services would have terminated pursuant to the agreement. An objection to the question, on the ground that it was immaterial, irrelevant, and incompetent, because the action was for the recovery of wages under the contract, and not for damages resulting from a breach of the agreement, having been overruled and an exception allowed, the witness replied that between the days specified he had performed no labor. It is contended by defendant's counsel that in permitting the challenged question to be answered an error was committed. It is insisted by plaintiff's counsel, however, that the complaint herein sets forth the contract of employment, asserts a breach thereof by a wrongful discharge, affirms an ability and willingness to continue the service, and avers the sum of money that would have been received under the agreement, and that sufficient facts being thus stated to authorize the recovery of the damages sustained, though damages as such are not claimed, the testimony objected to was admissible. No demurrer appears to have been interposed to the complaint; and, as its sufficiency was not challenged, all reasonable intendments are to be invoked in favor of the pleading, to which no objections were made until the trial. The remedy of an employee who has been wrongfully discharged before the expiration of his term of engagement is not in assumpsit for implied services or for wages, but is for damages resulting from a breach of the agreement. (*Hamilton v. Love*, 152 Ind. 641, 53 N. E. 181, 54 N. E. 437, 71 Am. St. Rep. 384; *Howard v. Daly*, 61 N. Y. 362, 19 Am. Rep. 285; *Weed v. Burt*, 78 N. Y. 191.) In a case of this kind the complaint usually sets forth the contract of employment, alleges a breach thereof by a wrongful discharge prior to the expiration of the term of service, asserts the ability and willingness of the servant to perform the work required, and concludes with the allegation that, in consequence of the failure of the defendant to keep and perform the terms of the agreement, the plaintiff has sustained damages in a stated sum, for which judgment is demanded. The complaint in the case at bar does not aver that the plaintiff has been damaged, but, after stating the facts in substance as hereinbefore detailed, concludes with a demand for judgment for a specified amount of money.

In a note to the case of *Howay v. Going-Northrup Co.*, 6 L. R. A. (N. S.) 49, 68, it is said: "Even an averment in a complaint that

there is now due the plaintiff by virtue of the contract of employment a specified sum in effect charges that the plaintiff's damages for such breach amount to that sum, and constitutes a claim, not technically for wages, but for compensation for the breach of the contract"—citing in support thereof *Winkler v. Racine Wagon & Car Co.*, 99 Wis. 184, 74 N. W. 793 [Bulletin No. 17, p. 645]. To the same effect, see 26 Cyc. 1002; *Bartlett v. O. F. Sav. Bank*, 79 Cal. 218, 21 Pac. 743, 12 Am. St. Rep. 139; *Paige v. Barrett*, 151 Mass. 67, 23 N. E. 725. The sufficiency of the complaint herein not having been assailed by a demurrer, its averments should be liberally construed, to the effect that the plaintiff's damages for the breach of the agreement amount to the sum for which judgment was demanded, and that the allegations of his primary pleading formulate not an assertion for wages but a compensation for the breach of the agreement. With these preliminary observations in respect to the form of action as disclosed by the averments of the complaint, attention will be called to the objection interposed to the testimony given by the plaintiff. The burden of proving that, after the plaintiff was discharged, he could have secured other employment, and thus have reduced the damages which he claimed, to the extent of the wages received from other sources, was imposed upon the defendant. (*Winkler v. Racine Wagon & Car Co.*, 99 Wis. 184, 74 N. W. 793.) Though the plaintiff was not obliged to anticipate such defense (*Wirth v. Calhoun*, 64 Nebr. 316, 89 N. W. 785), we can not see how the defendant was prejudiced by the testimony to which objection was made, and conclude that no error was committed in permitting the question to be answered.

Exceptions were taken to the court's refusal to charge the jury as requested, which instructions practically present the same questions considered as to the sufficiency of the complaint and the admissibility of the plaintiff's testimony.

Believing that no error was committed as alleged, the judgment is affirmed.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—DUTY OF EMPLOYER AS TO EMPLOYMENT OF COMPETENT FELLOW-SERVANTS—EVIDENCE OF INCOMPETENCE—CONTRACT WITH TRADE UNION AS DEFENSE—*Pearson v. Alaska Pacific Steamship Company*, Supreme Court of Washington, 99 Pacific Reporter, page 753.—N. W. Pearson had obtained a judgment against the company above named on account of injuries received while in its employment as a hatch tender, from which it appealed. The ground of the action was the negligence of the employer in hiring an incompetent coservant as driver of a winch. By the negligent handling of the winch Pearson was injured, and the charge of negligence in this regard was sustained by the finding of the superior court of King County, and, on appeal, by that of the supreme court. An added point of interest is found in the fact that the steamship company had secured the incompetent workman under a contract with the Longshoremen's Union (of which Pearson was also a member),

and held itself excused from liability for his incompetence on that ground. This point is discussed in the opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Rudkin, who also set forth the rule as to the employer's duty in the choice of workmen.

The opinion is in part as follows:

The principal ground of negligence charged in the complaint was the allegation that the appellant employed and retained in its employ an incompetent and inexperienced winch driver. The appellant contends that the hatch tender and the winch driver were fellow-servants, that the only evidence of incompetency or inexperience on the part of the winch driver was the single act of negligence which caused the injury complained of, and that a single act of negligence on the part of a servant is not sufficient evidence of incompetency or unskillfulness to charge the master with knowledge of such incompetency or unskillfulness. That the hatch tender and winch driver were fellow-servants may be conceded for the purpose of this appeal, and we might also concede that the appellant's further contention is sound, if the single act of negligence which caused the injury were the only evidence of incompetency or unskillfulness on the part of the winch driver; but we think the testimony of the winch driver himself tends very strongly to show that he was both inexperienced and incompetent. When the master places a servant in charge of dangerous machinery where special knowledge, skill, or experience is required for its safe and successful operation, he must make reasonable effort to ascertain the qualifications of the servant thus employed, and, if he fails to do so, he can not escape liability by showing that there was nothing in the conduct of the servant during the course of two hours' employment to demonstrate or give notice of his incompetency. The rule is thus stated by this court in the recent case of *Seewald v. Harding Lumber Company*, 96 Pac. 221: "It was respondent's duty to make reasonable effort to learn the qualifications of the engineer, having regard to the safety of the other men, and it was for the jury to say whether it had learned, or by the exercise of reasonable care might have learned, of that incompetency in time to have removed him and prevented this accident. Speaking of the degree of care required of a master in the selection of servants, the court, in *Wabash Ry. Co. v. McDaniels*, 107 U. S. 454, 460, 2 Sup. Ct. 932, 27 L. Ed. 605, said: 'It is such care as, in view of the consequence that may result from negligence on the part of employees, is fairly commensurate with the perils or dangers likely to be encountered.'"

There is nothing in the record before us to indicate that the appellant made any effort to ascertain the qualifications of the winch driver at the time of or prior to his employment, except an offer to prove that the appellant had a contract with the Longshoremen's Union of Seattle, of which the respondent is a member, under which the appellant agreed to employ members of that union exclusively; and we are clearly of opinion that the testimony was ample to warrant the jury in finding that the winch driver was incompetent and inexperienced, that such incompetency and inexperience might have been ascertained by the appellant prior to the injury by the exercise of reasonable diligence on its part, that the incompetency and inexperience of the winch driver was the direct and proximate cause of the

injury, and that the respondent was not guilty of contributory negligence. The motions for nonsuit and for a directed verdict were therefore properly denied.

The appellant offered to prove that it had a contract with the Longshoremen's Union, of which the respondent is a member, whereby it agreed to employ members of that union exclusively, that said union is an association organized for the purpose of furnishing experienced men in loading and unloading vessels at the port of Seattle, that the union furnished the winch driver in question pursuant to a request from the appellant, and that the appellant relied upon the fact that the winch driver thus furnished was competent to discharge the duties assigned him; but an objection to the offer of proof was sustained. As stated above, there was in our opinion ample evidence to establish the fact of incompetency on the part of the winch driver, and, in view of the fact that the safety of other employees of the common master required that the winch driver should possess special knowledge and skill, it was incumbent on the master to make reasonable effort to ascertain his competency and fitness. It is conceded that the master made no inquiry itself, and that no inquiry was made by the union which the master constituted its agent for that purpose. Admitting therefore that the master is presumed to exercise proper care in the selection of his servants, that presumption can not prevail when it affirmatively appears that both the master and the agency to which he intrusts that duty have been negligent and derelict in that regard. There was therefore no error in the ruling complained of.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—BOYCOTT—SECONDARY OR COMPOUND BOYCOTT—CONSPIRACY—INJUNCTION—UNINCORPORATED ASSOCIATIONS—
The American Federation of Labor v. The Buck Stove and Range Company, Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia, 37 Washington Law Reporter, page 154.—The corporation named above had secured an injunction against the American Federation of Labor and certain officers of the same. (See Bulletin No. 74, p. 246, and No. 80, p. 124. For the injunction, see Bulletin No. 74, p. 254.) The action in the present case was an appeal from the injunctive order and resulted in its being modified and affirmed. The facts were stated in the earlier reports of the case and are in brief as follows: The Buck Stove and Range Company is a corporation engaged in the manufacture of stoves and ranges, which it sold over a large part of the United States, but on account of difficulties with some of its employees a boycott against its products was declared by the local and national organizations of workingmen connected or affiliated with the trades, and the name of the company was published in the *American Federationist*, the organ of the American Federation of Labor. This act was enjoined, among others, and it was this publication and various other acts of alleged interference with the complainant's business that led to the prayer for the injunction. The opinion of

the court was delivered by Judge Robb, Chief Justice Shepard dissenting. The following extracts from the opinion of the court disclose the facts and rules of law leading to the conclusions reached:

The American Federation of Labor in November of each year holds a convention, which is composed of delegates from the various subordinate bodies. At the November, 1906, convention a resolution was introduced for an endorsement of the action of the St. Louis bodies in their controversy with the complainant and to have complainant published in the "We Don't Patronize" list of the American Federationist, the official organ of the Federation. This resolution was referred to the executive council with power to act, and said council at its next meeting in March, 1907, placed complainant and its product upon the "We Don't Patronize" list of the Federation and directed the publication thereof in said list in the Federationist, and such publication was thereafter made. The executive council is composed of the president, secretary, treasurer, and the eight vice-presidents of the Federation. Immediately following the action of said executive council in so placing complainant upon said list of the Federation the following circular was given wide publicity:

"IMPORTANT NOTICE!

The Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor, in session at Washington, D. C., March 18-23, 1907, placed the

Buck's Stove and Range Company,
of St. Louis, on the
Unfair List.

The publication of this concern will be made in the 'We Don't Patronize' list commencing in the May issue of the American Federationist.

This firm is commencing to advertise in daily papers all over the country, endeavoring to offset the above action. All members take notice. Appoint committees to visit the dealers and bring it to the attention of all friends of organized labor."

The effect of the action of the local and national bodies upon the business of the complainant was immediate and far-reaching. In St. Louis dealers were waited upon by officers and representatives of the various local organizations, notably the Central Trades and Labor Union, and were told that they must cease handling complainant's product or they would themselves be boycotted. On October 18, 1907, which it will be noted was subsequent to the action of the Federation in endorsing the position of the local bodies, a committee composed of the secretary of the Central Trades and Labor Union, the vice-president of the Metal Polishers Union, and a representative of the International Metal Workers Union, called upon the St. Louis House Furnishing Company and notified the company that if it did not cease handling the product of the complainant it would be boycotted. The representative of the company informed the committee that the company had about \$5,000 worth of Buck's stoves and ranges on hand, and offered to discontinue dealing with the complainant if the committee would purchase the stoves the company had in stock. This

the committee refused to do, and left with the admonition that if the company did not stop it would be put upon the "unfair" list. Thereupon, the company continuing to handle the product of the complainant, a boycott against it was prosecuted by the local unions and circulars were distributed in the following form:

"BOYCOTT
ST. LOUIS HOUSE FURNISHING CO.,
904 Franklin Ave.,
AGENT FOR BUCK'S STOVES AND RANGES,
—which are—
UNFAIR TO ORGANIZED LABOR.

Indorsed by { Metal Polishers Union No. 13.
 Stove Mounters No. 86.
 Steel Range Workers No. 34.
 Central Trades and Labor Union of St. Louis and vicinity."

H. D. Hackman, a hardware dealer of St. Louis, and the Hencken & Broeken-Kroeger Furniture Company, of East St. Louis, were also boycotted for dealing in complainant's product.

Notices were given other local dealers, but, owing to their acquiescence in the demands made upon them, further action was not taken against them. The action taken in St. Louis is typical of that pursued throughout the country.

The Strauss-Miller Company, of Cleveland, Ohio, was compelled to cancel all back orders and abandon all relations with complainant owing to the position taken by the labor unions of that city.

The H. L. McElroy Company, of Youngstown, Ohio, after a conference with union representatives, wrote complainant: "It would be a serious calamity for us to be compelled to change our line at this time, but we can not endanger the success of our entire business by arousing the antagonism and animosity of the labor unions."

F. S. Bode, of Kenosha, Wis., wrote that he needed stoves but could not handle them owing to the labor unions in his city. His letter concludes: "Always had nice dealings with you but I'm forced to do this."

A letter from the Schunk-Marquardt Company, of Toledo, Ohio, stated that: "Again we have been notified by the labor unions that the Buck Stoves and Range Co. are still on the unfair list, and that if we continue to handle Buck stoves and ranges they will boycott us. Not only on Buck stoves and ranges, but on all hardware."

Similar letters were received from many other cities, but we do not deem it necessary to make further allusion to them in this connection.

Different traveling salesmen of complainant testified to loss of patronage in different cities because of representations made by representatives of labor unions that dealers handling Buck's stoves would themselves be boycotted.

The bill charges that the publication of concerns in the "We Don't Patronize" list of the Federationist is "for the purpose of singling out and designating individuals and concerns so named, and of notifying their customers, and the public generally, and all the members of said twenty-seven thousand local unions in their several localities,

and of the several national and international unions, state federations and central city labor unions that they are to be treated by them as unjust and hostile to the unions upon whose application such action is based, and that their business, products, and customers are to be boycotted, by each and all the members of the American Federation of Labor and their friends and sympathizers, and that the whole power of its vast organization and combination is to be used against them to injure and destroy their business thereby, and that all the members of the American Federation of Labor are to abstain from purchasing or using said products, and from dealing with any person who purchases, handles or uses said product."

The bill proceeds to set out specific instances of boycotts against complainant's patrons because they had continued to handle complainant's stoves.

In answer to these averments in respect to the publication in the "We Don't Patronize" list of the Federationist defendants "deny that the purpose thereof is to use 'the whole power of its (American Federation of Labor) vast organization and combination' 'to injure and destroy their (those not patronized) business thereby.' They deny that said 'We Don't Patronize' list prohibits or interferes with any constituent organization or its members 'dealing with any person who purchases, used or handles said product.'"

They also disclaim knowledge concerning specific instances of boycotting mentioned in the bill.

The first question, therefore, to be determined is whether the defendants were connected with, and under this complaint responsible for, the acts above set forth. The complainant on the one hand contends that the action of said executive council and the publication in the "We Don't Patronize" list of the Federationist signified to each labor union throughout the land that they were to boycott not only complainant's product but all those who upon demand did not cease business dealings with complainant. In other words, that what actually happened was the result intended. The defendants, on the other hand, earnestly contend that the sum total of their offending has been a concerted severance of business intercourse with complainant, and that they are not responsible for what actually occurred.

The record shows that Mr. Gompers has been the president of the Federation since 1886 and that he is a man of ability and a natural leader of men. It is apparent from a perusal of the record that during all these years he has been a dominant factor in the affairs of the Federation, and that the general policy of organized labor throughout the land is shaped and controlled by the association of which he is the president. The record shows that a very large number of boycotts have been declared and prosecuted by the Federation in the past, and that as a result of these boycotts considerable litigation has ensued. The decisions of the courts in the various labor cases where the boycott has been under consideration have been the subject of frequent discussion by Mr. Gompers and he has frequently issued instructions and advice to the members of the Federation both in the annual conventions of the Federation and through the editorial columns of the Federationist. We will briefly review the previous position of the Federation in respect to the boycott in our effort to ascertain the significance of the "We Don't Patronize" list.

In the annual convention of 1894 delegates from an organization that had refused, or neglected, to enforce a boycott against a wholesale clothing house were not seated, and it was resolved "to recommend to the public and organized labor to refuse to patronize or deal with any retail clothier handling the goods of said manufacturers."

The convention of 1899 was held at Detroit, Mich. Mr. Gompers, in his annual report to that convention under the head "Boycott—The Right and Practice," said:

"It has been my purpose for some time to present, in a comprehensive manner, the right of the workers to employ the power of the 'boycott.' With that object in view, the editorial appearing in the October issue of the American Federationist, under the caption, 'The boycott as a legitimate weapon,' was written and published. It is commended to your serious consideration."

This report was referred to a committee, which in its report endorsed the above editorial and urged its careful reading. In the editorial referred to Mr. Gompers said:

"A sympathetic boycott is as legal and legitimate as a sympathetic strike. Just as men may strike for any reason, or without any reason at all, so may they suspend dealings with merchants or others for any reason or for no reason at all. Thus a boycott may extend to an entire community without falling under the condemnation of any moral or constitutional or statutory law. But I shall be triumphantly told, boycotters never do confine themselves to moral suasion and appeal; that they resort to threats, intimidation and coercion, and it is this which makes what is called 'compound boycotting'—that is, boycotting which extends to parties not concerned in the original dispute—criminal and aggressive. * * * This sounds very plausible. It is easy to deduce from such premises that boycotters interfere with property rights and the pursuit of lawful callings, and that under the national and state constitutions, to say nothing about explicit anticonspiracy laws, they are to be held civilly and criminally liable. * * * But this argument about the employment of threats and intimidation is fallacious and superficial. Its apparent validity disappears when, not satisfied with ugly looking words, we demand precise definitions. No one pretends for a moment that it would be proper for a boycotter to approach a merchant and say 'You must join us in suspending all dealings with that employer, or newspaper, or advertiser, on pain of having your house set on fire or physical assault.' This would be an unlawful threat, and people who would try to enlist others in their campaign by threats of this character would certainly be guilty of a criminal conspiracy. Do boycotters use such threats? Do they contend for the right to employ force or threats of force? Our worst enemies do not contend that they do. They 'threaten,' but what do they threaten? They 'intimidate,' but how? Let Judge Taft, who issued his sweeping antiboycotting injunction, be a witness on this point. He said: 'As usually understood, a boycott is a combination of many to cause a loss to one person by coercing others against their will to withdraw from him their beneficial interests through threats that unless those others do so the many will cause similar loss to them.' * * * No man in his senses will dispute this axiomatic proposition, namely, that a man has a right to threaten that which he has a right to carry out. * * *

You may tell a man that if he does a certain thing, you will never speak to him or call at his house. This is a threat, but it is a threat that you have a right to make. Why? Because you have a right to do what you threaten. The same thing is strictly true of boycotting. * * * A man may be coerced by actual force, by the threat of force, or by indirect means which the law can not and does not prohibit. Coercion by a threat to suspend dealings is, to revert to our illustration, in the same category with coercion through a threat to cease friendly intercourse. * * * Labor claims the right to suspend dealings with any and all who refuse to support what it considers its legitimate demand."

In his testimony Mr. Gompers took occasion to say that he had not uttered a word of which he was not proud and which he would not reaffirm. Counsel for the defendants in their brief refer to this editorial as correctly setting forth the position of organized labor in respect to the boycott.

Under date of November 26, 1907, an official statement over the signature of Mr. Gompers as president, and attested by Frank Morrison as secretary, "By order of the executive council of the American Federation of Labor," was sent out "To all organized labor and friends." In this statement we find the following:

"As you are well aware, so inimical to the welfare of labor was the Bucks' Stove and Range Co.'s management that the organization concerned felt obliged to declare the product of that company unfair. The workmen's organization appealed to the American Federation of Labor to indorse its action. *After due investigation that indorsement was given and is still further affirmed.* The circumstances leading to this action are so widely known that they need not be here recounted."

It will thus be seen that in the nomenclature of the Federation, "We Don't Patronize" is synonymous with and equivalent to boycott; the publication of the former being notice to the craft that the latter is to follow. The record shows that during the year 1907 Mr. Gompers was in the city of St. Louis at least four different times, and that while there he was in conference with some of the labor leaders who were responsible for the inauguration of the boycott against complainant. It further appears that in his lecture tours and in his official capacity as president of the Federation he frequently visited other sections of the country. It also appears that the Federation has in the field over 1,200 so-called "organizers," whose duty in part appears to be to aid in pushing boycotts and to report thereon to the Federation. Nowhere in his testimony, nor in the testimony of any of the defendants who were called as witnesses, is the denial made that the publication of complainant in the "We Don't Patronize" list was not intended to inaugurate exactly the sort of boycott that was in fact prosecuted. Nowhere does it appear in the testimony of these defendants that any one of them ever even suggested to any of the subordinate organizations and membership of the Federation that they modify in any way their boycott against complainant. It will be noted that the answer to the specific averment of the bill hereinbefore set out only goes so far as to deny that the "'We Don't Patronize' list *prohibits or interferes* with any constituent organization or its members" dealing with persons who handle complainant's stoves. The answer does not deny that the "We Don't

Patronize" list does not indicate to subordinate organizations the course of conduct that was in fact pursued.

It is also highly significant that throughout the country the notice to dealers that they must cease handling complainant's product was not the sporadic and unauthorized act of individual unionists, but, on the contrary, the act of accredited leaders. From whom did they derive their inspiration? Was it a mere coincidence that they acted in such perfect harmony and ever to the same end and purpose? We think not.

In the editorial, to which allusion has been made and which was brought to the attention of and endorsed by the Federation in convention assembled, Mr. Gompers contended for the right to do and advised the doing of exactly what was done in this case.

The bill of complainant was filed August 19, 1907. The defendants were therein notified of the exact nature of the boycott that was then being prosecuted against complainant; but notwithstanding the knowledge thus obtained we find the executive council of the Federation on November 26, 1907, reaffirming without qualification and in an official statement, as before stated, what has been done.

In view of all this we think there is no room for doubt that this combination or boycott which had its inception in St. Louis was inaugurated in accordance with the settled policy of the American Federation of Labor, and that when the Federation in due course approved and endorsed the same it acted with full knowledge not only of what had already occurred but of what would be likely to follow. If, therefore, anyone is responsible for what happened, these defendants certainly are. (*Insur. Co. v. Hillmon*, 188 U. S. 218; *United States v. Babcock*, 24 Fed. 915; *United States v. Standard Oil Co.*, 152 Fed. 294.)

Eliminating, as we have, all collateral considerations, the clean-cut question is presented, whether a combination, such as was entered into in this case, which has for its object the coercion of a given firm through the instrumentality of the boycott, is lawful.

The supreme law of the land guarantees protection to all who desire to engage in a lawful calling or business, subject, of course, to such reasonable regulations as it may be necessary to impose. And when Mr. Gompers advised his followers that a man is entitled to protection against a threatened destruction of his house but none against a malicious destruction of the business which enables him to maintain his house, Mr. Gompers is mistaken. Was the combination entered into by appellants unlawful? A conspiracy has been defined as a combination of two or more persons to accomplish something unlawful or something not in itself unlawful by unlawful means. (*Pettibone v. United States*, 148 U. S. 203.) In determining whether the acts of the appellants are within this definition we will here review a few of the adjudged cases on this branch of the law.

Callan v. Wilson, 127 U. S. 540, was an information in the police court of the District of Columbia, charging the defendants with a conspiracy to prevent certain members of a local union, who had been expelled therefrom, from pursuing their calling as musicians in the United States. The conspiracy as set forth in the complaint was to be effected by the defendants and the members of other associations with which they were affiliated refusing to work in any capacity with the expelled members, or with, or for any person or firm working with

or employing them, and by warning and threatening every person or firm employing such expelled members that, if they did not cease to employ and refuse to employ them, they would not receive the custom or patronage either of the persons so conspiring or of the members of affiliated organizations. The question before the court was whether the offense charged was a petty offense or one of so serious a nature that the defendants were entitled to a trial by jury. The court held that the offense charged was of the latter character.

Mr. Justice Harlan, in reviewing *Callan v. Wilson*, in *Arthur v. Oakes*, 63 Fed. 310, said: "It thus appears that combinations and conspiracies by two or more persons, with the intent to injure the rights of others were illegal at common law." He further said: "According to the principles of the common law, a conspiracy upon the part of two or more persons with the intent by their combined power to wrong others or to prejudice the rights of the public, is in itself illegal although nothing be actually done in execution of such conspiracy. This is fundamental in our jurisprudence. So a combination or conspiracy to procure an employee or body of employees to quit service in violation of the contract of service would be unlawful, and in a proper case might be enjoined if the injury threatened would be irremediable at law. It is one thing for a single individual or for several individuals each acting upon his own responsibility and not in cooperation with others, to form the purpose of inflicting actual injury upon the property or rights of others. It is quite a different thing in the eye of the law for many persons to combine or conspire together with the intent not simply of asserting their rights or of accomplishing lawful ends by peaceful methods, but of employing their united energies to injure others or the public. An intent upon the part of a single person to injure the rights of others or of the public, is not in itself a wrong of which the law will take cognizance, unless some injurious act be done in execution of the unlawful intent. But a combination of two or more persons with such an intent and under circumstances that give them when so combined a power to do an injury they would not possess as individuals acting singly, has always been recognized as in itself wrongful and illegal."

So far as we are advised, the decisions of the federal and state courts throughout the country, with the single exception of Montana, are in harmony with those to which specific allusion has been made.

From these decisions it will be gathered that the boycott as generally understood is a combination to harm one person by coercing others to harm him. The combination in this case, in our opinion, not only answers this definition of a boycott but also the definition previously given of a common law conspiracy. The immediate purpose and result of this combination, as we have seen, was to interfere with complainant's lawful business and to deprive complainant and its customers of their right to trade intercourse. It matters not that the remote object of the combination was to benefit such members of the local unions as should be employed by complainant, because the law looks to the immediate and not to the incidental object of the combination. If the immediate object is unlawful, the combination is unlawful. If the immediate object is lawful, as in the case of legitimate trade competition, including strikes, the combination, gen-

erally speaking, is lawful. This distinction will be found in the cases cited.

That no physical coercion was practiced in this case does not alter our conclusion, since restraint of mind, as the evidence in this case clearly demonstrates, is just as potent as a threat of physical violence.

The contention is put forward that inasmuch as each member of the Federation has the right to bestow his trade where he will, according to his whim or fancy, it can not be unlawful for a combination of members to do what each acting separately may do, and that, therefore, the combination may lawfully discontinue or threaten to discontinue business intercourse with a given firm and all who handle its product, or, to state the proposition bluntly, that the boycott as previously defined is lawful. To admit the soundness of this contention is to give legal support and standing to an engine of harm and oppression utterly at variance with the spirit and theory of our institutions, place the weak at the mercy of the strong, foster monopoly, permit an unwarranted interference with the natural course of trade, and deprive the citizen of the freedom guaranteed him by the Constitution. The loss of the trade of a single individual ordinarily affects a given dealer very little. Being discriminating, the purchasing public, if left free to exercise its own judgment, will not act arbitrarily or maliciously, but will be controlled by natural considerations. But a powerful combination to boycott immediately deflects the natural course of trade and ruin follows in its wake because of the unlawful design of the conspirators to coerce or destroy the object of their displeasure. In other words, it is the conspiracy and not natural causes that is responsible for the result. From time immemorial the law has frowned upon combinations formed for the purpose of doing harm, and we think public policy demands that such a combination as we have found to exist in this case be declared unlawful. As was said by Mr. Chief Justice Fuller of a similar combination: "The combination charged falls within the class of restraints of trade aimed at compelling third parties and strangers involuntarily not to engage in the course of trade except on conditions that the combination imposes; and there is no doubt (to quote from the well-known work of Chief Justice Erle on Trade Unions) 'at common law every person has individually, and the public has collectively, a right to require that the course of trade should be kept free from unreasonable obstruction.'" (*Loewe v. Lawlor*, 208 U. S. 294 [Bulletin No. 75, p. 622].) The action in that case was brought under the Sherman Act, but the quotation given nevertheless is applicable here. In our opinion, it is more important to wage-earners than to employers of labor, that we declare this combination unlawful, for, if wage-earners may combine to interfere with the lawful business of employers, it follows that employers may combine to coerce their employees.

It is next contended that the decree entered in this case is an infringement of the constitutional guaranty of freedom of speech and of the press. In so far as it seeks to restrain acts in furtherance of the boycott we do not think it constitutes either a censorship of the press or an abridgment of the right of free speech. An unlawful combination was found to exist, which, unless checked, would destroy complainant's business and leave complainant without adequate redress. The court, therefore, very properly sought to restrain the cause of the

mischiefs, the *unlawful combination*. The "We Don't Patronize" or "Unfair" list and oral declarations of the boycott were included in the decree because they were among the means employed in carrying out the unlawful design.

Courts of equity have refused to enjoin the publication of a mere libel, but they have not hesitated to enjoin either written or oral publications constituting a means to the carrying out of an unlawful combination.

In *Swift v. United States*, 196 U. S. 375, Mr. Justice Holmes, speaking for the court, said: "It is suggested that the several acts charged are lawful and that the intent can make no difference. But they are bound together as parts of a single plan and the plan may make the parts unlawful." Again, in *Aikens v. Wisconsin*, 195 U. S. [Bulletin No. 57, p. 678], the same Justice said: "No conduct has such an absolute privilege as to justify all possible schemes of which it may be a part. The most innocent and constitutionally protected of acts or omissions may be made a step in a criminal plot, and if it is a step in a plot neither its innocence nor the Constitution is sufficient to prevent the punishment of the plot by law."

The cases relied upon by appellants are not in point here for the reason that they involved mere libels, which, as above stated, courts of equity have uniformly refused to restrain.

Oral and written declarations in furtherance of a conspiracy are tentacles of the conspiracy and must be treated as such and not as independent acts. It would be an anomalous situation, indeed, if a court of equity, having ample jurisdiction to restrain the carrying out of a conspiracy to deprive a citizen of rights guaranteed him by the Constitution, could be prevented from affording relief by the interposition of such a claim as is here made. Freedom of action is at least as sacred as an untrammelled tongue or pen, and those who conspire to defeat the former right ought not to be permitted to interpose a plea based upon the latter.

But, we think the decree in this case goes too far when it enjoins the publication or distribution through the mails or otherwise of the *Federationist* or other periodicals or newspapers containing any reference to complainant, its business, or product, as in the "We Don't Patronize," or "Unfair" list of the defendants. The court below found, and in that finding we concur, that this list in this case constitutes a talismanic symbol indicating to the membership of the *Federation* that a boycott is on and should be observed. The *printing* of this list, therefore, was what the court sought to prevent and what, in our opinion, the court had power to prevent; but the decree should stop there and not attempt to regulate the publication and distribution of other matter over which the court has no control. In other words, this branch of the decree should merely prohibit the printing of complainant, its business, or product, in the "We Don't Patronize" or "Unfair" list *in furtherance of the boycott*. The italicized words should be added, for, when the conspiracy is at an end, the *Federation* will have the same right that any association or individual now has to comment upon the relations of complainant with its employees. It is the existence of the conspiracy that warrants the court in prohibiting the printing of this list. Manifestly, when the conspiracy ends the prohibition ought also to end.

We are of the opinion that the decree is too broad in other respects. It, being based upon a finding that a conspiracy to boycott exists, should deal with acts of commission and not acts of omission. To be more specific, we think it should attempt no more than a prohibition of the boycott and the means of carrying it on, that is, the declarations or threats of boycott or other manner of intimidation against complainant's patrons or those handling or wishing to purchase its product. We have no power to compel the defendants to purchase complainant's stoves. We have power to prevent defendants, their servants and agents, from preventing others from purchasing them.

There being no evidence in any way connecting counsel for defendants with the prosecution of this boycott, we think the decree should not be so worded as to include them. While "attorneys" probably was used in the decree in a tautological sense its inclusion at all was unnecessary.

The point is made that this decree should not include the Federation because it is a mere voluntary association. This point appears to be well taken since there is no such legal entity as an unincorporated association; *Taff Vale Ry. v. Amalgamated Society of Ry. Servants*, 1901 Appeal Cases 426. This, however, is not a suit at law for damages but a proceeding in equity against certain representative members of an association composed of a large number of members, service upon all of whom individually would be impossible. In such a case it has been held "that a number of members may be made parties defendant as representative of the class." (*Pickett v. Walsh*, 192 Mass. 390 [Bulletin No. 70, p. 747].) We think it clear in this case that the named members of the Federation fully represent its membership, and that service upon them is sufficient.

For the reasons given the decree is modified and affirmed as follows: It is adjudged, ordered and decreed that the defendants, Samuel Gompers, Frank Morrison, John B. Lennon, James Duncan, John Mitchell, James O'Connell, Max Morris, Denis A. Hayes, Daniel J. Keefe, William D. Huber, Joseph F. Valentine, Rodney L. Thixton, Clinton O. Buckingham, Herman C. Poppe, Arthur J. Williams, Samuel R. Cooper, and Edward L. Hickman, individually and as representatives of the American Federation of Labor, their and each of their agents, servants, and confederates, be, and they hereby are, perpetually restrained and enjoined from conspiring or combining to boycott the business or product of complainant, and from threatening or declaring any boycott against said business or product, and from abetting, aiding, or assisting in any such boycott, and from directly or indirectly threatening, coercing or intimidating any person or persons whomsoever from buying, selling or otherwise dealing in complainant's product, and from printing the complainant, its business or product, in the "We Don't Patronize" or "Unfair" list of defendants in furtherance of any boycott against complainant's business or product, and from referring, either in print or otherwise, to complainant, its business or product, as in said "We Don't Patronize" or "Unfair" list in furtherance of any such boycott.

The costs of this appeal are equally divided between appellants and appellee.

Modified and affirmed.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—INTERFERENCE WITH EMPLOYMENT—LIABILITY FOR PROCURING DISCHARGE—RIGHTS OF MEMBERS—*Blanchard v. Newark Joint District Council of United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America et al., Supreme Court of New Jersey, 71 Atlantic Reporter, page 1131.*—Elmer E. Blanchard was a member of the organization named above and sued the same for damages for procuring his discharge from employment. From a judgment in his favor the union appealed, the appeal resulting in the judgment of the court below being affirmed. The facts appear in the opinion, which was delivered by Judge Bergen, and which is, except for the preliminary statement, as follows:

The case shows that plaintiff was suspended as a member of the order, and fined \$100 by the district council, which plaintiff refused to pay, claiming that the fine was not imposed according to the laws of the order, whereupon the defendants notified V. J. Hedden & Sons that, unless they discharged plaintiff, all the members of the order would refuse to work for the firm, and to avoid the loss of such labor, and for no other reason, Hedden & Sons discharged the plaintiff. Subsequently plaintiff paid the fine and appealed to a superior tribunal in the order, and was allowed to resume work. On his appeal plaintiff was sustained, reinstated in the order, and the district council required to refund the fine illegally exacted. The case discloses that plaintiff was illegally required to pay \$100, and upon refusal deprived of employment by the acts of the defendants. This creates a right of action under *Brennan v. Hatters*, 73 N. J. Law, 729, 65 Atl. 165 [Bulletin No. 70, p. 746].

The appellants, the defendants below, urged several points in support of their appeal.

First. That the conduct of the defendants in inducing the discharge of the plaintiff by Hedden & Sons was within their legal rights. The argument on this point is that Hedden & Sons had no contract with plaintiff, and therefore might discharge him without cause. This does not meet the point, which is that plaintiff was deprived of employment because of unlawful threats made to Hedden & Sons, which influenced them to discharge him, and that this would not have happened except for defendants' conduct.

Second. That defendants did not request the discharge of plaintiff. On this point it is sufficient to say that what they did amounted to such a request, and was accompanied with a threat if not complied with.

Third. That the court was without jurisdiction to retain the case when motion for nonsuit was made, because the plaintiff had taken an appeal from the order of suspension and the imposition of the fine, from which it is argued he had submitted to the jurisdiction of the order. Taking an appeal from an order relating to the discipline of such an association does not amount to a waiver of damages resulting from the illegal act of the defendants in procuring the discharge of the plaintiff in order to enforce the act appealed from.

Fourth. That there was error in admitting in evidence a printed copy of the trade rules of the order. The secretary of the association had been subpoenaed to produce the minutes showing the by-laws of

the association. This he did not do, but produced a printed book which he said was a copy of the by-laws printed by the defendants for the use of its members. Whether competent or not its admission did not harm defendants, because the illegality of the proceedings suspending and imposing the fine which the by-laws were offered to prove had been decided in plaintiff's favor by a proper tribunal, and the plaintiff reinstated in the order and the fine returned to him.

Fifth. That the nonsuit should have been granted because of failure to offer in evidence the constitution of the national organization. This was not relevant to the issue being tried.

Sixth. That two letters were improperly admitted. One of these letters was written by the president of the national association, and the other by the general secretary of the association, each containing a notice to the district council of the disposition made of plaintiff's appeal. They were produced by the defendants on notice, and were competent.

The remaining points relate to admission of testimony, which we do not find to be erroneous.

The judgment below is affirmed.

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State.	Name of bureau.	Title of chief officer.	Location of bureau.
UNITED STATES.			
United States.....	United States Bureau of Labor.....	Commissioner.....	Washington, D. C.
California.....	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	Commissioner.....	San Francisco.
Colorado.....	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	Deputy Commissioner	Denver.
Connecticut.....	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	Commissioner.....	Hartford.
Idaho.....	Bureau of Immigration, Labor, and Statistics.....	Commissioner.....	Boise City.
Illinois.....	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	Secretary.....	Springfield.
Indiana.....	Bureau of Statistics.....	Chief.....	Indianapolis.
Iowa.....	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	Commissioner.....	Des Moines.
Kansas.....	Bureau of Labor and Industry.....	Commissioner.....	Topeka.
Kentucky.....	Department of Agriculture, Labor, and Statistics.....	Commissioner.....	Frankfort.
Louisiana.....	Bureau of Statistics of Labor.....	Commissioner.....	Baton Rouge.
Maine.....	Bureau of Industrial and Labor Sta- tistics.....	Commissioner.....	Augusta.
Maryland.....	Bureau of Industrial Statistics.....	Chief.....	Baltimore.
Massachusetts.....	Bureau of Statistics.....	Director.....	Boston.
Michigan.....	Bureau of Labor and Industrial Sta- tistics.....	Commissioner.....	Lansing.
Minnesota.....	Bureau of Labor.....	Commissioner.....	St. Paul.
Missouri.....	Bureau of Labor Statistics and In- spection.....	Commissioner.....	Jefferson City.
Montana.....	Bureau of Agriculture, Labor, and In- dustry.....	Commissioner.....	Helena.
Nebraska.....	Bureau of Labor and Industrial Sta- tistics.....	Deputy Commissioner	Lincoln.
New Hampshire.....	Bureau of Labor.....	Commissioner.....	Concord.
New Jersey.....	Bureau of Statistics of Labor and In- dustries.....	Chief.....	Trenton.
New York.....	Department of Labor.....	Commissioner.....	Albany.
North Carolina.....	Bureau of Labor and Printing.....	Commissioner.....	Raleigh.
North Dakota.....	Department of Agriculture and Labor.....	Commissioner.....	Bismarck.
Ohio.....	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	Commissioner.....	Columbus.
Oklahoma.....	Department of Labor.....	Commissioner.....	Guthrie.
Oregon.....	Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspec- tion of Factories and Workshops.....	Commissioner.....	Salem.
Pennsylvania.....	Bureau of Industrial Statistics.....	Chief.....	Harrisburg.
Philippine Islands.....	Bureau of Labor.....	Director.....	Manila.
Rhode Island.....	Bureau of Industrial Statistics.....	Commissioner.....	Providence.
South Carolina.....	Department of Agriculture, Com- merce, and Industries.....	Commissioner.....	Columbia.
Texas.....	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	Commissioner.....	Austin.
Virginia.....	Bureau of Labor and Industrial Sta- tistics.....	Commissioner.....	Richmond.
Washington.....	Bureau of Labor.....	Commissioner.....	Olympia.
West Virginia.....	Bureau of Labor.....	Commissioner.....	Wheeling.
Wisconsin.....	Bureau of Labor and Industrial Sta- tistics.....	Commissioner.....	Madison.
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Argentina.....	Departamento Nacional del Trabajo.....	Presidente.....	Buenos Aires.
Austria.....	K. K. Arbeitsstatistisches Amt im Handelsministerium.....	Vorstand.....	Wien.
Belgium.....	Office du Travail (Ministère de l'In- dustrie et du Travail).....	Directeur General.....	Bruxelles.
Canada.....	Department of Labor.....	Minister of Labor.....	Ottawa.
Canada: Ontario.....	Bureau of Labor (Department of Pub- lic Works).....	Secretary.....	Toronto.
Chile.....	Oficina de Estadística del Trabajo.....	Jefe.....	Santiago.
Finland.....	Industriystyrelsen (a).....	Helsingfors.
France.....	Office du Travail (Ministère du Tra- vail et de la Prévoyance Sociale).....	Directeur.....	Paris.
Germany.....	Abteilung für Arbeiterstatistik, Kais- erliches Statistisches Amt.....	Präsident.....	Berlin.
Great Britain and Ireland.....	Labor Department (Board of Trade).....	Commissioner of La- bor.....	London.

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State.	Name of bureau.	Title of chief officer.	Location of bureau.
FOREIGN COUNTRIES—conc'd.			
Italy.....	Ufficio del Lavoro (Ministero di Agricoltura Industria e Commercio).	Direttore Generale....	Rome.
Netherlands.....	Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (*).	Directeur.....	'S-Gravenhage.
New South Wales.	State Labor Bureau.....	Director of Labor.....	Sydney.
New Zealand.....	Department of Labor.....	Minister of Labor.....	Wellington.
Spain.....	Instituto de Reformas Sociales.....	Secretario General.....	Madrid.
Sweden.....	Afdelning för Arbetsstatistik (Kgl. Kommerskollegil).	Direktör.....	Stockholm.
Switzerland.....	Secrétariat Ouvrier Suisse (semiofficial).	Secrétaire.....	Zürich.
Uruguay.....	Oficina del Trabajo (Ministero de Industrias, Trabajo é Instrucción Pública).	Montevideo.
International.....	International Labor Office.....	Director.....	Basle, Switzerland.

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