

MAINE STATE LEGISLATURE

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Public Documents of Maine:

BEING THE

ANNUAL REPORTS

OF THE VARIOUS

Public Officers and Institutions

FOR THE YEAR

1887

VOLUME I.

AUGUSTA:

BURLEIGH & FLYNT, PRINTERS TO THE STATE.
1889.

FIRST ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
BUREAU OF INDUSTRIAL
AND
LABOR STATISTICS

For the State of Maine.

1887.



AUGUSTA:
BURLEIGH & FLYNT, PRINTERS TO THE STATE.
1888.



INDEX TO SUBJECTS.

	PAGE
Agricultural wages in England.....	80
Comparative wages, Europe and Maine.....	79
Co-operation.....	176
in Maine.....	195
Cost of living of families.....	89
Deputy Commissioner of Labor, report of.....	214
Fisheries.....	118
Fishermen, condition and views of.....	111
Food question.....	95
Fortnightly payment of wages.....	167
Labor bureaus.....	5
history of organization.....	6
organizations.....	149
Carpenters' and Joiners' Unions.....	164
Granite Cutters' Union.....	164
Knights of Labor.....	155
in Maine.....	157
Locomotive Engineers.....	163
Firemen.....	162
Maine State Grange.....	165
Typographical Union.....	158
Labor's holiday.....	213
Letter of transmittal.....	1
Loan and building associations.....	171
Maine Bureau.....	11
Manufacturers.....	121
returns of.....	122
National convention of labor bureaus.....	12
preface.....	12
proceedings.....	13
papers read at.....	20
Official circulars and blanks.....	54
Pauperism.....	147
Profit-sharing.....	199
in Maine.....	202
Rates of wages.....	76
Railroad returns.....	84
Retail prices of provisions.....	93
Statistics, general.....	223
Strikes and lockouts.....	128
Summer resorts.....	239
Views of working-men and women.....	98
Wages, cost of living, &c.....	61
Working-men's returns.....	64

Note.

Governor Bodwell died Dec. 15th, 1887.

The letter of transmittal of this report, although bearing a subsequent date, was written and printed several days previous to that sad event.

It seems fitting that the first report of the Bureau should bear the name of the Chief Executive under whose administration the Bureau was established, and in the work and success of which he took so deep an interest.

STATE OF MAINE.

OFFICE OF COMMISSIONER OF INDUSTRIAL
AND LABOR STATISTICS,
Augusta, Dec. 31, 1887. }

TO HIS EXCELLENCY JOSEPH R. BODWELL, *Governor of Maine*:

SIR—In conformity with the provisions of the law creating the Bureau, I have the honor to present herewith this First Annual Report. The Act of the Legislature establishing a Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics was approved March 7, 1887. The Commissioner was appointed May 17, and immediately after his appointment, visited the office of the Bureau of Labor Statistics at Boston, in charge of Hon. Carroll D. Wright, from whom he received much valuable information and advice for which he here desires to express his grateful acknowledgments. The fifth annual Convention of the Chiefs and Commissioners of the several Bureaus of Labor Statistics in the United States, was held at Madison, Wis., June 8th, 9th and 10th. This Convention, which the Commissioner attended, afforded him much important information as to the character and purposes of the work to which he had been assigned, as well as to the best methods of accomplishing it. On his return he immediately entered upon the preliminary work necessary in the organization of a new department,—the preparation of blanks,—correspondence with the several State Commissioners,—by whom he was kindly furnished copies of their several reports;—and, especially, efforts, by means of correspondence and personal interviews with employers and employes, to secure coöperation and aid in the work of the Bureau. A glance at the law creating this department will show the magnitude of the work contemplated. The actual time allotted the Commissioner for accomplishing it has been less than one-half the year. The experience of every Bureau has been similar in this; that a year, or even a longer time, is required in which the public mind can be informed as to the real objects and

scope of a Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics. Referring to the obstacles to be overcome, the Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the State of Iowa, in his first biennial report, says: "At first, a misapprehension existed in the minds of the public,—especially among the labor organizations,—to the effect that this was a *Labor Bureau*, without reference to the very feature for which it was created, namely—to *gather statistics relative to labor*. It was by very many supposed, that upon all questions of strife between the employer and employed, of wages, etc., the Commissioner was to become, by this law, the arbitrator, and in him was vested power to settle all disputes of this character. It has been only after a long time, most extensive correspondence, and the fullest explanation, that this obstacle to the work has been largely overcome."

As an illustration of the misapprehensions of the law prescribing the duties of this Bureau, is the fact that numerous appeals for the enforcement of the act providing for the fortnightly payment of wages have been received at this office; appeals which have required and received explanations as to the duties and powers of the Commissioner. Another "misapprehension" has arisen from the supposed relations existing between the office of Commissioner of Statistics and that of Deputy Commissioner of Labor, an officer appointed under the provisions of the "Act to regulate the hours of Labor and the employment of Women and Children in manufacturing and mechanical establishments." The only legal relation between these offices is found in the section of the act, specifying the duties of the Deputy Commissioner of Labor;—"It shall be the duty of the Deputy Commissioner of Labor to inquire into any violations of this act, and also to assist in the collection of statistics and other information which may be required for the use of the bureau of industrial and labor statistics." The Commissioner is happy to be able to say that this duty has been cheerfully and efficiently performed by the Deputy Commissioner of Labor, L. R. Campbell, Esq.

The field of labor presented by the law is a broad one. To obtain full "statistical details relating to all departments of labor in the State," in the time allotted, would have required much larger means and more extensive machinery than are provided. Influenced by the belief that the main object of this Bureau is to investigate the condition of the wage-workers, the Commissioner has confined his labors, largely, to ascertaining the rates of wages of the various

classes of wage-workers. Blanks have been sent, or delivered in person or by deputy, to hundreds of working men and manufacturers, containing questions relating to the wages and social condition of employes. The forms of these blanks are embodied in this report. Having neither the power to compel information nor to employ special agents, the natural result has been that many of these blanks have not been returned; while of those that have come back, the questions therein asked have only been partially answered or are evidently inaccurately answered.

Doubtless the failure to give the information is, in many instances, to be attributed to the fact that both manufacturers and wage-workers had kept no records of the desired data, particularly in the case of manufacturers, regarding the amount and value of annual product, and the amount of annual expenditures on the part of working-men. It is hoped that the Bureau may prove, in the words of the Commissioner of the Kansas Bureau, "an inculcator of business methods, as well as a compiler of the results subsequently obtained." The facts gathered by means of blanks have been compiled and tabulated, and appear in this report. In addition to the facts, collected and tabulated, relating to the condition of wage-workers, many valuable facts relating to Maine's industries have been obtained by means of blanks sent to town officers. The officers of a few towns have failed to comply with the provisions of the law directing them "to furnish the Commissioner upon his request, all statistical information in reference to labor and labor industries, which shall be in their possession as such officers." Nearly all have, however, responded with more or less promptness.

The Commissioner is happy to be able to state, that, in the prosecution of his work he has found *all* ready to meet him in a spirit of kindness, and many with tenders of coöperation and aid. His relations with manufacturers and working-men have been, invariably, of the most agreeable kind. Thanks are due to the press of the State which has, with hardly an exception, expressed itself in terms of favor of the work of the Bureau, and has contributed largely in spreading among the people a knowledge of the character and scope of that work. I desire to sincerely thank your Excellency for the constant sympathy and support you have given me in the organization and labors of the Bureau. The recommendations made by you in your first Address to the Legislature, that trustee process, so far as it relates to the wages of a laboring man, be abolished,—that the em-

ployment in factories of children of a tender age should be prohibited by law,—that “the multiplication of machinery and the great addition to the power of manufacturing ought naturally to be followed by some amelioration in the hours of labor,”—are evidences of the sympathy and interest felt by your Excellency for the wage-earners.

Among the many who have shown a practical interest in the labors and success of the Bureau, the Commissioner would specially mention John Garner, Esq., of Lewiston, to whom he is indebted for valuable statistics and suggestions, T. J. Lyons, Esq., of Vinalhaven, G. N. McGregor of Rockland, R. A. Williams of Portland, J. Sherman Douglass of Bar Harbor, who have done much special work, the results of which are contained in this Report.

I am, sir, yours very respectfully,

S. W. MATTHEWS,

Commissioner.

PART 1.

LABOR BUREAUS.

Bureaus of Statistics of Labor in the United States, July 1st, 1887.

BUREAU OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Established January, 1885. CARROLL D. WRIGHT, *Commissioner.*

BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Established June, 1869. CARROLL D. WRIGHT, *Chief.*

BUREAU OF INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Established 1872. JOEL B. MCCAMANT, *Chief.**

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS AND INSPECTION, OF MISSOURI.

Established 1876. Enlarged 1883. OSCAR KOCHTITZKY, *Commissioner.*

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF OHIO.

Established 1877. A. D. FASSETT, *Commissioner.*

BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR AND INDUSTRIES, OF NEW JERSEY.

Established March, 1878. JAMES BISHOP, *Chief.*

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF ILLINOIS.

Established 1879. JOHN S. LORD, *Secretary.*

BUREAU OF STATISTICS, OF INDIANA.

WM. A. PEELLE, JR., *Chief.*

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF NEW YORK.

Established 1883. CHARLES F. PECK, *Commissioner.*

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF CALIFORNIA.

Established 1883. J. J. TOBIN, *Commissioner.*

BUREAU OF LABOR AND INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS, OF MICHIGAN.

Established March, 1883. ALFRED H. HEATH, *Commissioner.*

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF WISCONSIN.

Established April, 1883. FRANK A. FLOWER, *Commissioner.*

*Prof. ALBERT S. BOLLES has been appointed Chief.

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF IOWA.*Established March, 1884.***E. R. HUTCHINS, *Commissioner*****BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR, OF MARYLAND.***Established 1884.***THOMAS C. WEEKS, *Chief*.****BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF KANSAS.***Established May, 1885.***FRANK H. BETTON, *Commissioner*.****BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF CONNECTICUT.***Established April, 1885.***SAMUEL M. HOTCHKISS, *Commissioner*.****BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF NORTH CAROLINA.***Established March, 1887.***W. N. JONES, *Commissioner*.****BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF MAINE.***Established March, 1887.***SAMUEL W. MATTHEWS, *Commissioner*.****BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF MINNESOTA.***Established March, 1887.***JOHN LAMB, *Commissioner*.****BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF COLORADO.****SECRETARY OF STATE, *Ex-officio Commissioner*.***Established March, 1887.***C. J. DRISCOLL, *Deputy Commissioner*.****BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, OF RHODE ISLAND.***Established April, 1887.***J. B. BOWDITCH, *Commissioner*.****HISTORY OF THEIR ORGANIZATION.**

FROM REPORTS OF CHIEFS AND COMMISSIONERS, PRESENTED AT THE FIRST NATIONAL CONVENTION OF HEADS OF BUREAUS, HELD AT COLUMBUS, OHIO, SEPT. 25th, 1883.

MASSACHUSETTS.*[From report by Mr. Wright.]*

The Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor was established in 1869. It was the first labor bureau organized. * * * The law under which its work is carried on is as follows :

SEC. 13. A Chief appointed by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Council, and a first clerk appointed by the Chief, shall constitute a Bureau of Statistics of Labor; a chief shall be appointed in May in the year 1881, and thereafter biennially in May. The Bureau shall collect, assort, arrange, and present in annual reports to the general court, on or before the first day in March in each year, statistical details relating to all departments of labor in the commonwealth, especially in relation to the commercial, industrial, social, educational and sanitary condition of the laboring classes, and to the permanent prosperity of the productive industry of the commonwealth.

SEC. 14. The Bureau shall have power to send for persons and papers, and to examine witnesses under oath; and such witnesses shall be sum-

moned in the same manner and be paid the same fees as witnesses before the higher courts of the commonwealth.

SEC. 15. The Chief of said Bureau shall receive an annual salary of twenty-five hundred dollars, and the first clerk an annual salary of fifteen hundred dollars.

SEC. 16. The Chief of said Bureau may employ such assistants and incur such expense, not exceeding five thousand dollars in each year, as may be necessary in the discharge of the official duties of said Bureau. Such assistants shall be paid for their services such compensation as the Chief of said Bureau may deem just; but no such assistant shall be paid more than four dollars per day in addition to his necessary traveling expenses.

The Bureau is also the census office of the State, as provided by chapter 31 of the Public Statutes, as follows:

SECTION 1. A census of the inhabitants of each city and town in the commonwealth on the first day of May shall be taken, under the direction of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor, in the year 1885, and in every tenth year thereafter, and shall contain a special enumeration of the legal voters residing in each town and in each ward of the several cities.

SEC. 2. In taking the census, the following particulars shall be ascertained, and enumerated in separate columns of the schedule, to wit:

1. Dwelling houses numbered in the order of visitation. 2. Families numbered in the order of visitation. 3. Name of each person in the family or dwelling. 4. Age of each person one year old and upwards. 5. Sex of each person. 6. Color of each person—whether white, black, mulatto, or Indian. 7. Place of birth, naming State, Territory, or country. 8. Condition—whether single, married, or widowed. 9. Profession, trade or occupation of every person over fifteen years of age. 10. Persons over twenty years of age who cannot read and write. 11. Whether deaf or dumb, blind, insane, idiotic, pauper, or convict. 12. Ratable polls. 13. Legal voters. 14. Naturalized voters.

SEC. 3. The census shall be taken, except in the city of Boston, by such of the assessors of the several cities and towns as the said Bureau shall appoint, or by agents appointed by said Bureau, under the provisions of the following section. Such assessors and agents shall be sworn, shall make out in words at length a return of the aggregates and results of said census, and shall sign and make oath to the truth thereof; and a certificate of the administration of the oath shall be annexed thereto. They shall, on or before the twentieth day of August of the same year, deliver the return to the sheriff of the county, who shall transmit it to the office of the said Bureau on or before the last day of said August; or they may themselves so transmit the return.

SEC. 4. Said Bureau may appoint agents, other than assessors, to take the census in a city or town; such agents shall be inhabitants of such city or town, and their appointment shall be subject to approval by the mayor and aldermen or the selectmen thereof. The number of such agents appointed in a city or town shall not exceed one for every fifteen hundred polls therein, and shall be as many less as may, in the opinion of said Bureau, be adequate for the duty; but at least one person may be so appointed in each town.

SEC. 5. Said Bureau shall, on or before the first day of May of each year in which the census is to be taken, transmit to the assessors or agents so appointed, printed forms for the returns required by the preceding sections, with such instructions as said Bureau may deem necessary, and a notice that the returns must be made into the office of said Bureau on or before the last day of August of the same year.

SEC. 6. Said Bureau, after it has gathered the facts as called for by this chapter, shall prepare and cause to be printed true abstracts of the same for the use of the general court; and shall make returns of the aggregate returns of the census as to population and voters into the office of the Secretary of the commonwealth.

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SEC. 8. If an assessor or agent appointed under sections 3 or 4 willfully refuses to perform any duty required of him by said sections, he shall forfeit a sum not exceeding five hundred dollars; and if he is guilty of willful deceit or falsehood in the discharge of his duty, he shall forfeit a sum not exceeding two thousand dollars, or be imprisoned for not more than one year. A sheriff who willfully refuses or neglects to perform the duty required by section 3, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars.

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SEC. 11. There shall be allowed and paid out of the treasury of the commonwealth to each person employed by the said Bureau in the city and town (except the city of Boston) in taking the census, three dollars for each day of ten hours actually employed in such service. The account of each person so employed shall be verified by his affidavit, and shall not be paid unless approved by the Chief of said Bureau.

SEC. 12. Upon the request of the mayor and aldermen of any city (except Boston) made to said Bureau on or before the fifteenth day of April next preceding the taking of a census, said Bureau shall direct its agents, appointed to take such census in such city, to make the enumeration in the manner provided in section 9, and also to make the duplicate returns therein required.

In collecting information, the Bureau uses both the voluntary circular or blank plan, and personal investigation by agents. When returns are needed from State, city, or town officers, or persons holding important positions, the circular plan works more or less satisfactorily, but in original investigations the employment of agents to travel and take down facts on suitable blanks has been found to yield the best results. The cost has been greater, but the results more than counterbalance the increased expense. * * *

The law creating the bureau defines its duties to be the presentation of "statistical details" relating to labor. The Bureau decides upon its own subjects for investigation. In several instances, however,

the Legislature has directed the Bureau to make specific investigations, and has at times made additional appropriations therefor. The Bureau may make recommendations or suggest a bill in its reports; the report is referred to the Committee on Labor, and that committee can report a bill in accordance with the Bureau recommendations. * * * The Bureau has no executive functions, the district police being empowered to enforce the labor laws of the Commonwealth.

This is a wise provision. No bureau of labor statistics should be obliged to prosecute those upon whom it depends for statistical information. By such a union of duties one branch of the work would be sure to suffer, and be neglected in order that both branches might not be failures.

PENNSYLVANIA.

[From report by Mr. McCamant.]

The Bureau of Industrial Statistics of Pennsylvania is a part of the department of Internal Affairs, under the supervision of the Secretary of Internal Affairs.

The law requires that the Bureau shall: First, "impartially inquire into the relations of capital and labor in their bearings upon the social, educational and industrial welfare of all classes of working people;" second, "shall further collect, compile and publish statistics in regard to the wages of labor, and the social condition of the laboring classes;" third, "shall also be required to collect, compile and publish annually the productive statistics of mining, manufacturing, commercial and other business interests of the State." Statistics are collected by blanks sent to the various industries of the State, on which inquiries are printed, requiring the average number of persons employed, the number of days in operation during the year, and the total amount of that year's product; also the classification of their employes in their various occupations, giving the average number of each class employed, with their average daily wages. Blanks are also prepared and forwarded to the working classes, distributed among the various industries throughout the State, with inquiries in reference to their daily wages, annual earnings, cost of living, etc. So far as the wages of employes are concerned, especially in the leading industries, there is a general uniformity in the several districts, so that a report of the same from one firm gives a fair showing of the whole in that locality, and the wages of other and miscellaneous industries are governed more or less by the wages paid at the leading establishments.

OHIO.

[From report by Mr. Luskey.]

The Bureau, as the law plainly indicates, was created for the benefit of the working people of the State; to gather and systematize statistics relating especially to the commercial, industrial, social, educational and sanitary condition of the laboring classes, and thus enable legislators to act intelligently and justly in reference to all matters presented aiming to ameliorate their condition by legislation. Among other things, attention has been given to the question of inadequate means of egress in factories, employment of children, payments of wages in scrip, store orders, etc., the employment of incompetent persons as engineers in places where steam is used; and the result has been the passage of laws forbidding the payment of wages of working people in other than lawful money, and requiring that all factories and workshops two stories in height or over, must be provided with suitable and adequate means of egress.

NEW JERSEY.

[From report by Mr. Bishop.]

The Bureau of Statistics of Labor and Industries of New Jersey was established in 1878, the preamble to the bill reading as follows: "*Whereas*, As guardians of the public welfare, the State authorities are called upon to consider, and in all legitimate ways endeavor to improve, the physical, mental and moral condition of the citizens of the State, especially those whose daily toil contributes so largely to the prosperity of manufacturing and other productive industries: therefore,"

The duties prescribed are very similar to those of the Massachusetts Bureau in all essential particulars.

The results of the voluntary circular and blank plan of collecting statistics having proved so unsatisfactory the first year, a change was made, and at present, except when returns are required from city, township or county officers, competent agents are employed to make original investigations, and take down the facts upon suitable blanks from personal examination. These returns are all filed in the office at Trenton, where the work of collating, tabulating and preparing for the press is performed.

THE MAINE BUREAU.

The Maine Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics was established by Act of the Legislature approved March 7th, 1887.

The Act is as follows :

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in Legislature assembled, as follows :

Section 1. There is hereby established a separate and distinct department, which shall be called the Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics.

Section 2. It shall be the duty of this department to collect, assort, systematize, and present in annual reports to the governor, to be by him transmitted biennially to the legislature, statistical details, relating to all departments of labor in the state, especially in its relations to the commercial, industrial, social, educational and sanitary condition of the laboring people; and to the permanent prosperity of the productive industries of the state, and also to inquire into the immediate causes of strikes, lock-outs or other disturbances of the relations between employers and employees.

Section 3. The governor shall, with the advice and consent of the council, appoint immediately after this act goes into effect, and thereafter biennially, on the first Wednesday in February, some suitable person, who is identified with the industrial and labor interests, and who shall be designated commissioner of industrial and labor statistics, with an office in such place as shall be designated by the governor.

Section 4. The commissioner herein named, shall receive an annual salary of fifteen hundred dollars, and to aid in carrying out the provisions of this act, said commissioner is hereby authorized to employ such assistance and incur such expense, not exceeding one thousand dollars per annum, as shall be necessary to carry out the provisions of this act.

Section 5. The commissioner shall have power to take and preserve evidence, examine witnesses under oath, and administer the same, and in discharge of his duty, may enter any public institution of the state, and at reasonable hours when open for business, any factory, workshop, mine or other place where labor may be employed.

Section 6. All state, county, city and town officers, are hereby directed to furnish to said commissioner upon his request, all statistical informa-

tion in reference to labor and labor industries, which shall be in their possession as such officers, and said commissioner shall cause to be published and circulated in this state, ten thousand copies annually of the results of its labors, as to the objects for which commission is created.

Section 7. There is hereby appropriated out of any money remaining in the state treasury the sum of five thousand dollars for the ensuing two years for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of this act; the commissioner herein named shall receive his salary in quarterly instalments, and the expenses of the bureau shall be paid on the vouchers presented by the commissioner, after the same shall have been audited and approved by the governor and council.

Section 8. Chapter one hundred and one of the resolves of eighteen hundred and seventy-three, and all other acts and parts of acts inconsistent with this act, are hereby repealed.

PROCEEDINGS

AT THE FIFTH ANNUAL SESSION OF THE NATIONAL CONVENTION OF CHIEFS AND COMMISSIONERS OF THE BUREAUS OF STATISTICS OF LABOR IN THE UNITED STATES HELD AT MADISON, WISCONSIN, JUNE 8, 9 AND 10, 1887, WITH PAPERS READ BEFORE THE CONVENTION.

PREFACE.

The first National Convention of Commissioners and Chiefs of Bureaus of Labor Statistics was held at Columbus, Ohio, in September, 1883. Eleven States had at that time established departments of this character, Massachusetts having been the first. The representatives of six of these met at Columbus. At that meeting a permanent organization was perfected, and in June, 1884, the second Convention met in St. Louis. Two additional Bureaus had been added to the list, making the number thirteen. Ten of these were represented in St. Louis. In October of the same year the Commissioners of eight States spent several days at Pullman, Illinois, investigating the industrial system there developed. The third annual Convention was held in Boston in June, 1885. Three additional Bureaus had been created, and thirteen of the sixteen were represented. The fourth Convention was held at Trenton, New Jersey, in June, 1886. At this meeting there were fourteen representatives. The fifth Convention was held in Madison, Wisconsin, commencing June 8, 1887. Here it was shown that five new Bureaus had been created during the preceding year in North Carolina, Maine, Minnesota, Colorado and Rhode Island, making twenty-one in all (including that of the United States). The officers of three of these new Bureaus were at Madison.

The proceedings of this Convention, together with papers read during its session, are herewith presented:

PROCEEDINGS.

The fifth annual Convention of the Chiefs and Commissioners of the several Bureaus of Labor Statistics in the United States met at Tonyawatha Spring Hotel, at two o'clock, on the afternoon of June 8, 1887.

The meeting was called to order by the President, Mr. CARROLL D. WRIGHT of Massachusetts, who addressed the Convention as follows :

Gentlemen:—In calling you to order for the sessions of our fifth annual Convention it is a matter of great satisfaction to be able to state that there are now twenty State Bureaus of Labor Statistics in this country, as well as a United States Bureau of Labor. It is eighteen years since the first bureau was established. Five bureaus have been created during the present calendar year. Maine, Rhode Island, North Carolina, Minnesota and Colorado have seen fit to follow the example of the fifteen States that had created kindred offices. I know it is a matter of some concern with men who have the very best interest of these bureaus at heart, who are anxious to do something to solve the great problems of labor and other social and industrial problems that are pressing upon the people, whether these bureaus can furnish the necessary aid for such solutions. I have heard it remarked that in time (and not a very long time has been allowed for such a result) the United States Bureau would absorb all the functions of the State bureaus. Let me answer, so far as my own observation goes, these two questions. I believe most emphatically that the bureaus of statistics of labor can furnish the necessary elements for the solution of some of the great questions alluded to. I do not believe that the United States Bureau will absorb the functions of the State offices. The rapid extension of the Bureau of Labor idea should cause neither alarm in one direction nor misgiving in the other, for this extension is the direct result of the popular demand for correct data ; and it is the duty of the bureaus to answer the demand with the proper supply.

I have often pointed out to the members of this Convention the dangers which may arise should the bureaus become the objects of political contest ; that is, should they be considered by the State governments under which they act as places for ordinary political service. Nothing can be more detrimental to the permanent uses for which the bureaus have been established. Let it be granted, if you

wish, that they have been established in accordance with the demand of labor alone; let it be granted, if you wish, that they have been organized for scientific purposes; or let it be granted that they have been organized that capital may learn all the conditions of labor; what has all this to do with the legitimate work committed to our charge? It is our bounden duty to see to it that nothing goes to the people that is not absolute truth, so far as it lies in our power to give the truth. In this lies the key-note of the success of the bureaus. And it is a matter of congratulation to be able to say that notwithstanding the attitude of the executives of the different States to the bureaus, in so far as they may have in any instance considered them as the spoils of office, the gentlemen who have occupied the chief positions in these bureaus have been content to serve the best interests of the people without regard to their political proclivities and without regard to the fact that they may have been appointed for political purposes.

Looking upon the bureaus, then, in this light, weighing their work by the results thereof, it seems to me safe to predict for them brilliant futures, useful careers, and results which shall place the State bureaus on so high a plane in the service of the various commonwealths that the question of their perpetuity cannot be raised. The many questions which belong to the peculiar conditions of each State, or of groups of States, render it absolutely essential that the autonomy of the State bureaus, as such, be preserved; and this renders it impossible, were there any desire to the contrary, for the United States Bureau to absorb the duties of the State offices. Such a result would be undesirable in itself, were there not weighty considerations against such a proceeding. The United States Bureau is engaged, of course, in work kindred to that of the States, but it cannot, as a rule, take up like specific questions to those which should engage the attention of the State offices. Their work will be confined to those questions which belong to the State itself as an independent body politic. It seems to me, therefore, that all the offices, State and National, should act in the utmost harmony, as it is the desire of all the members of this convention that they should act; that even under a disposition for some other action, there can be no absorption by the one of the duties of the other.

It has also been intimated that after a few years the bureaus will have considered all the questions that need consideration at their hands. One needs but a very slight study of the science of statis-

tics, a very slight comprehension of the ramifications of industry, of social science, of all that belongs to the welfare of the people, either morally, socially or economically, to set aside this question, or this fear, as one too trivial for serious contemplation. The science of statistics is a new science. Nearly all the great questions, whether of one form or another, which affect the people in their mutual relations, must either be settled, or receive great primary aid in settlement, through statistical efforts. The European statistician, trained in the schools for his work, skilled by his experience for the very best accomplishments, has not yet devoted much attention to the line of investigations which are specifically the province of our bureaus. He has devoted himself to the movements of population, to the statistics of life; but he has not yet gone into the vital questions which grow out of the progress of industrial organization; he has not had the facility of governmental protection and stimulation, nor has he had the benefit of the great intelligence of the masses which comes from free educational custom. These give the American bureaus of labor an advantage over the governmental bureaus of statistics of European States. Our field is a broad, open one; our functions are of the most important character, and our services, our consciences, our abilities should be bent in the direction of exploring these broad fields in the most careful and accurate manner.

The question has often arisen, as we have met together, as to some uniform work. The province of our bureaus leads me to make some suggestions at this time for such work, and I know you will pardon me if I refer to efforts of my own to solve some of the problems which agitate the public mind. Two of the most important of these problems relate to the distribution of wealth, and the proportion of product which goes to labor and to capital. The questions might be called one in the concrete; abstractly I will consider them as two separate questions. In regard to the distribution of wealth there does not exist any line of data which help us beyond a primitive, tentative line, in the solution of the question: "Is wealth more generally distributed now than formerly?" The problem has been discussed from various points of view, but generally from the observation of an individual or from a desire to establish a theory. Neither of these points are safe ones from which to approach so important a question. The Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor is now engaged in collecting a line of facts which will bear upon the solution

of this question. They will not solve it; they will not determine the facts conclusively, but they will give *prima facie* evidence of the direction of the distribution of wealth. As a basis the bureau has collected all the information for three great periods, from the probate courts of the commonwealth. The periods adopted have been the years 1829, 1830 and 1831; 1859, 1860 and 1861; and 1879, 1880 and 1881; that is, for three periods of three years each, covering in the whole fifty years. The information collected has been as to the number of estates settled, either under will or otherwise, whether solvent or insolvent, the amount of real and personal property involved, etc. These facts will be brought into relation with death rates, showing whether a larger or smaller number of estates have settled in one period or the other considered in comparison with number of decedents, and whether as to amounts there has been more or less property distributed as time progresses. Of course, there will be a proper grading of amounts, so that the size of estate may be determined, and whether more of large estates or small estates have been involved. As collateral facts, the question of estate valuation, the distribution of bank shares, of shares of manufacturing and other corporations, and all the facts available relative to wealth, will be collected. Now I would offer it as a suggestion that such a study be taken up by each of the bureaus in the country, that the same line of facts be gathered, and that the same periods be considered. If this work is done carefully and accurately, without regard to the results, with no influence from preconceived ideas, or notions, or theories, it seems to me no greater service can be done. I have not, of course, given all the details of the investigation, but have stated enough to show you the practicability of engaging in the study outlined.

The other question, as to the proportion of product which goes to labor and to capital respectively, is one which involves a great deal of difficulty. In nearly all the censuses that have been taken in this country prior to 1885 in which industrial statistics have been involved, the facts as to capital invested have been sought. This is true both of federal and state censuses. I take courage to assert, however, that every argument, conclusion or deduction, based upon the statistics reported as giving the capital invested in manufacturing are absolutely vicious in their influence and thoroughly false in all their elements. To illustrate this assertion, and to prove it, too, I will give you a specific instance. I know a factory which is worked

on a capital actually paid in of \$900,000. This is the sum reported in the census, whenever taken. The product is given as \$1,000,000. The usual calculation, as these figures would appear in the census columns, is to deduct the total cost of the raw materials used and of the wages paid in securing this product from the total value thereof, leaving a balance of product out of which capital is to be paid for its share as profit or interest, or compensation for superintendence, as well as all the expenses of insurances, losses, commissions, etc. This would show probably an immense margin of profit upon the capital invested. In this particular case, as relates to the factory referred to, the facts are that instead of \$900,000 capital actually employed in securing a product of \$1,000,000 there is a capital of \$1,600,000, divided as follows: Out of the original \$900,000 cash paid in by the stockholders, \$800,000 is invested in plant (meaning thereby buildings, machinery, apparatus, tools, and implements), \$100,000 being reserved in the treasury as working cash capital. Now, the concern borrows on an average, through discounts, \$700,000; this sum, in addition to paid up capital, being actually essential for the production of the \$1,000,000 worth of goods. In simple terms, then, the corporation uses \$800,000 in plant and \$800,000 cash to produce \$1,000,000 worth of goods. You at once see the viciousness of the old method of reporting capital invested.

This instance which I have given you represents the usual condition of manufacturing in this country. The conditions vary, of course, for in some cases the whole sum necessary for production has been paid in and no credit capital is required, while in others a less credit capital is needed, in accordance with the amount actually paid in; but in all cases where credit capital is essential, the census statistics are fallacious, and this vitiates the whole body of returns of capital invested. In collecting the statistics for the decennial census of Massachusetts for 1885 I have sought to correct this error, which has been growing in this country since 1810. I have asked the manufacturers of Massachusetts to report their capital invested in itemized sums, giving the separate amounts involved; that is to say, in such a way as to enable me to analyze the capital invested in each great industry in the State. I have asked them to report the money invested in plant, dividing plant into its various constituent elements—in permanent cash capital, in credit capital, first, that borrowed by the concern in any way, second, that borrowed by long

credits on the purchase of raw material—and by this process of analyzing capital I am encouraged to believe that we shall solve, if not completely, yet so fully as to show the old error, this question of capital invested. You at once see the importance of the step. You also see the various results which have come from the old method. It does not matter where capital comes from in the production of goods, whether it be paid in or whether it be borrowed, or whether it be the result of long credits in the purchase of material; so long as these elements are essential to secure a given product they constitute capital invested.

There is another class of cases not amenable to statistical science; as, for instance, a man goes into the business of manufacturing any line of goods with little or no capital—say \$5,000—but he has an excellent credit. He purchases raw material and all his supplies on long time—three, four, six months—but sells the product of his establishment for cash or its equivalent. Under this condition of affairs he produces we will say \$200,000 worth of goods. Having but \$5,000 actually invested, in all census statistics this would be the only sum that would appear, while \$200,000 would appear as the product. The truth is that he has borrowed of his own customers the capital sufficient to produce the \$200,000 worth of goods.

I trust I have made it clear to your minds that the figures of a census relating to capital invested which appear so innocently in the columns comprehending them are the most vicious figures that can be printed.

You ask, how can these State bureaus aid in solving this ugly problem? You cannot take a census unless your legislature commit the census work to your charge, as they have in my own State, but you can collect a sufficient amount of information from great representative manufacturing establishments which will enable you to report how much capital, both invested and borrowed, is essential for the production of a dollar's worth of goods. Here is a line of work attractive, efficient, valuable. I commend it to your most serious consideration.

With these two problems that I have suggested the bureaus can do contemporaneous and harmonious work. The United States bureau cannot touch it, only to a limited extent, but the United States census of 1890 should be so directed as to aid the States in coming to an accurate conclusion as to the relation of capital invested to product. With this relation clearly established, or even approxi-

mately determined, the proportion of product which goes to labor and to capital, respectively, can be determined with some degree of intelligence.

Gentlemen, let us grapple with these and other great problems. Let us show to the country that no mistake has been made in creating these bureaus. Let us be scientific in our methods; let us aim to give the conditions of industry; let us prove to the working men and to the capitalists that they are safe when they follow the facts; let us show that they are unsafe when they follow mere theories, or when they adopt the empirical use of statistics as their guide. Let us devote ourselves to the faithful investigation of all conditions where facts should be known, and into all causes of bad conditions, of whatever nature, and fearlessly promulgate the results of our investigations. The popular education of the masses in the elementary facts of political and economic science and in the principles of social science, is the greatest educational end of the day; but let us remember that to attempt to turn the functions of our labor bureaus to base purposes is a crime, not easily punished by law, but which can and will be punished by an unwritten law which will reach us through a decree more to be dreaded than any merely judicial order or sentence: the sentence public opinion always passes upon the man who prostitutes the cause of humanity.

Upon calling the roll the following were found to be present:

CARROLL D. WRIGHT, Commissioner of the Massachusetts Bureau; CARROLL D. WRIGHT, Chief of the National Bureau; OSCAR KOCHTITZKY, Commissioner of the Missouri Bureau; A. D. FASSETT, Commissioner of the Ohio Bureau; JAMES BISHOP, Chief of the New Jersey Bureau; EDWARD J. KEAN, Chief Clerk of the New York Bureau; ALFRED H. HEATH, Commissioner of the Michigan Bureau; FRANK A. FLOWER, Commissioner of the Wisconsin Bureau; M. J. SIMPELAAR, Deputy of the Wisconsin Bureau; HENRY SIEBERS, Factory Inspector of the Wisconsin Bureau; JAMES C. MOORE, Assistant Factory Inspector of the Wisconsin Bureau; E. R. HUTCHINS, Commissioner of the Iowa Bureau; SAMUEL M. HOTCHKISS, Commissioner of the Connecticut Bureau; FRANK H. BETTON, Commissioner of the Kansas Bureau; SAMUEL W. MATTHEWS, Commissioner of the Maine Bureau; JOHN LAMB, Commissioner of the Minnesota Bureau; C. J. DRISCOLL, Deputy Commissioner of the Colorado Bureau.

The Secretary announced that there were twenty-one bureaus in the country, the officers of fourteen of which were present.

On motion of J. W. BISHOP, the Convention proceeded to the election of officers.

Mr. CARROLL D. WRIGHT was nominated for President. There being no other nomination, the Secretary was directed to cast the ballot for Mr. WRIGHT, which was done, and he was declared President.

Mr. BISHOP of New Jersey was nominated for Vice-President, but declined, and nominated Mr. FLOWER of Wisconsin, who was elected.

Mr. HUTCHINS of Iowa was elected Secretary and Treasurer.

On motion of Mr. HUTCHINS, the selection of the next place of meeting was taken up, and on the third ballot Indianapolis, Indiana, was selected.

By N. O. NELSON of St. Louis.

THE EQUITABLE DIVISION OF PROFITS,

Upon which you have kindly invited me to offer some suggestions, is a subject which relates in equal parts to economics and to ethics. Distribution bears an important relation to the creation of wealth, and likewise to the progress and happiness of mankind. I have little sympathy and no approval for any philosophy which ignores the social elevation of mankind, and serenely incloses itself within the walls of splendid masses of wealth, or loses its vitality in the mazes of dialectics. Political economy is at this day urging its claim to recognition as a science capable of demonstrating the principles involved in the production of wealth, and in this respect is of great value. But when this is conceded, the equitable division of the wealth produced is not touched, and this I hold to be of yet greater moment. Political economy may demonstrate that more wealth will be produced under the admittedly superior system of free labor than by that of slave labor. It may possibly prove that liberal wages will result in more net wealth than extremely low wages. But under either of these conditions, the equity of division is only indirectly considered. Wealth is regarded in its totality, and not in its relation to any individual concerned in its accumulation. It is alleged by some that free competition will inevitably allot the due proportion to each producer, whether as capitalist, superintendent or laborer. But this predicates a purely hypothetical simplicity of organization at variance with existing facts. The industrial system is joined with the entire commercial system, and this again with the State

functions. It is useless to say what ideal competition should be, when we know that existing conditions preclude it. This is supplanting the inductive with the deductive method, and leads into the barren field of metaphysics. If pure ethics be made the test, the difficulty is at once met that there are efficient non-ethical forces at work in the State and in society. Ethics pleads in vain for the strong to expend their strength in common with the weak. Mr. Herbert Spencer has with phenomenal analysis shown what scientific ethics should be. He has constructed an ethical system, grand in conception and a marvel of structural completeness. But no one admits more freely than he the necessity of conforming to environment. An altruistic community in the heart of London would be futile because utterly incongruous.

Taken separately, neither political economy nor ethics is competent to devise a plan of division which shall be approximately just. Pure Christianity, indeed, every religion in its original purity, may be construed as teaching the doctrine that, according to his need, should every individual be supplied. But this doctrine is quite foreign to the spirit of our civilization and to any reputable political system. It cannot be separated from abuses and invariably becomes demoralizing. For the purpose of any argument which it is worth while to make here, it may be assumed that division according to the value of services is equitable.

In a primitive society, each individual retrieves from nature whatever his industry, daring or skill enables him to appropriate. But in a highly evolved society, the special product of each is merged into an impersonal aggregate. If the article created by one person were directly exchanged for that produced by another, there would be no difficulty to solve. But the history of a single manufactured article, passing from hand to hand, in various stages, from the raw material, with contributions of brain, ingenuity, character and physical effort, is like the history of a people. The genesis of an ordinary stock of merchandise would be as curious as it would voluminous. It is throughout this intricate process of manufacture and exchange that profit is charged much in the manner of indirect taxes. Profit may arise from the superior industry or judgment of the manager, or it may be entirely due to a faculty of manipulating contributing causes. It is apparent that by every method of acquisition and distribution known to history the tendency has been constant to centralize wealth in relatively few hands. The term "merchant prince" is

literally accurate. Abnormal wealth is acknowledged to be an evil alike to the possessor and to society. Poverty, no doubt, has its compensations; but extremes in this, as in its opposite, are attended with a train of ills. Unconsciously we approve the Hedonic theory of testing all social systems and all laws by the standard of happiness to be derived under them.

Having suggested that neither the economic nor the moral theory can separately adjust the division of product, we also find that the complexity of productive energy prevents a simple process of exchange. Designing to retain the incentive to industry which is contained in the sense of ownership and in social advantages, it becomes pertinent to seek a plan by which every person shall secure such a proportion of product as his efficiency bears to the total efficiency. Competition, if untrammelled, would have this effect. But competition is not, and cannot be, untrammelled. Men's brains will devise methods by which so-called ruinous competition shall be obviated. The processes by which this is accomplished are too familiar to require illustration.

Without attempting to formulate a theory which should with scientific precision define a perfectly just system of division, I venture to outline a basis which is alike philosophical and practical.

In prosperous periods, when services are in demand, wages will become reasonably adjusted to the relative value of the respective services. This adjustment of wages serves as a starting point. Capital is an accumulation of productive force, and is likewise entitled to such wages as it will command in the market. To those who aver that that interest is an illegitimate charge, I answer that reserve force stored up in the form of capital, bears too important a relation to social progress to be lightly discouraged. We can well afford a standing premium for its safe keeping. If we reduce its increase to mere interest it will not prove an oppressive charge. The wages of capital may properly be fixed at the rate it would in any given case be required to pay for a bank loan upon reputable collateral. Having thus fixed by ordinary methods the relative value of each factor, a productive enterprise would represent a partnership between capital and labor, the latter including every person rendering services of whatever kind. If, after paying these wages to labor and capital, together with expenses and repairs, there remain a surplus, the equities in this surplus are the question before us. There are many instances in which business does not pay a profit. These are not under consideration. Whatever the causes may be, they

have nothing to divide. Theoretically they have made a full division in the payment of wages. As to these, it may be remarked, that the agreement to make a division of profits might prove such an incentive to coöperative efficiency that profits would come to be earned. But whether to meet the allegation that manufacturing and commercial enterprises do at times make excessive profits, or to make a fair division of whatever profits are in any case made, it is clear that our inquiry is confined to this class of cases; and it is also clear that so far as wage earners are concerned, the other or losing class is not in question. Having ascertained the equitable proportion of wages as an initial division of product, we have therein an equally equitable basis for division of the surplus. Computing the entire amount of wages paid to labor and capital, we can apportion the surplus or net profits in precisely the same ratio that the original wages were apportioned. The individual owner of capital receives dividends upon his interest; the manager, superintendent, clerk, mechanic and laborer upon their wages. It has been argued that business profits belong entirely to the Entrepreneur whose superior skill has enabled him to earn profits in a competition where the base line is no profit, that the employer class will be recruited from the wages class to the extent of always keeping up this base line. But aside from the weakness of this argument in ignoring the complex organization of commerce, as best illustrated in sweeping panics, in legislation and in combinations, it may be remarked that equity is not satisfied with the letter of the law. Even if it were true that profits universally represent the superior ability of the management, the equitable dictum would still be that the men of inferior ability have an equitable interest in that superiority. The man of brains and the man of manual skill have joined hands to conduct a joint undertaking. Neither should be a pariah nor a parasite. The spirit of society is mutual service, advantage and helpfulness. Public spirit, in which we justly pride ourselves, is inspired by a sense of reciprocal duty. The heroism of the patriot soldier, the engineer, the volunteer in pestilence, receives our highest applause because it recognizes to the fullest, the obligation they owe to mankind. He who is endowed with the qualities of an industrial leader owes duties to those about him as imperatively as he does to his commercial note.

The President suggested that the gentlemen now state the subjects to be discussed in their next reports. The Secretary called the roll and the responses were as follows :

U. S. Bureau.—MR. WRIGHT: The report of the United States Bureau is just out of press. It is the second annual report, and is almost entirely upon the subject of convict labor. The third annual report, in process of construction, will consist mainly of statistics in relation to strikes, covering a period including the year 1881 and closing December, 1886. Its work, so far as the field is concerned, is about completed. The bureau will be able to make its third annual report in the autumn, contemporaneous with other bureaus. In addition to strikes, we may be able to include the statistics of distribution on a line we have been carrying on. What I mean by that is the tracing of each of the great articles of consumption, like iron, wool, grains, etc., from their production to their consumption, whether by the people for their own use or by the people in factory consumption. We shall show each step from the production to the consumption which adds to the cost, and bring out the facts concerning distribution. We shall next take up statistics relating to marriage and divorce, for which a special appropriation has been made by Congress. We contemplate taking up the statistics of divorce over a period of years. We shall have to take up in that, not only the statistics as regards the number of divorcees, but also as to the causes, the duration of the married period, the number of children involved in each case, and the locality in which the marriage was celebrated and the locality in which the divorce was granted.

Massachusetts.—MR. WRIGHT: The work of the bureau of Massachusetts, so far as it will be illustrated in the eighteenth annual report, which will be published late in the summer, will have but two points: the distribution of wealth and another investigation to which I shall call your particular attention, the facts of which are drawn entirely from the decennial census of 1885. It is the total time lost by reason of non-employment in the industries of our commonwealth. We have taken these facts so carefully, that we shall be able to state by months the time lost by the closing up of industries.

Ohio.—MR. FASSETT: The men in Ohio are turning their attention to the arbitration of trade disputes. I have prepared two blanks, upon which I shall gather information in connection with the plan of the employment of special agents in the towns where there are special industries. I do not pursue any investigation outside of such towns. I propose that each town shall stand by itself. The agent will inquire the name of each industry established in the town (though the name will not be used for publication), what they manu-

facture, the number of men they employ, the number of women they employ, how often they pay their employés, the value of their actual product and the amount of capital invested. That is a blank that I intend for manufactories in every industry established in the State. From the workshops I am getting information that bears upon this. Next, how many belong to organizations of labor; how many do not; how many are women; the wages paid to those not belonging to organizations of labor; the wages paid to women and the hours they work daily. With the exception of some matters in the nature of grievances that I have on hand, I am pursuing no other inquiries.

New Jersey.—MR. BISHOP: The ninth New Jersey report is just through the press. The work I contemplate for the coming report will be a history of the labor organizations of the State. Beyond that, it will depend upon the amount of room I have left.

New York.—MR. KEAN: We brought before us about three hundred representative men from the labor organizations, and we asked them questions, one of which was: to what did they attribute what is bad in the system? The principal causes that they gave were placed on a list, and we concluded to take up one subject each year and give it prominence. The first topic was the condition of working women. Another question that came before us was boy labor. They gave that as one cause of all the labor trouble. We investigated that subject, and it forms the opening chapters of the forthcoming report. We have a complete history of every case that went before the courts in the State of New York. We then took up four industries in the State, and covered them most completely. We took the number of men engaged in the industry, the number of boys and girls. We grouped them together where the number of boys exceeded the number of men, as ten to one. This investigation naturally led us into the subject of training in public schools, and we sent blanks to the principals of each public school in the State, asking his or her opinion; also to prominent men and professors in colleges in the State, and we made a table by localities and also by sex. We took up the subject of technical training as against manual training; and we then continued our work upon strikes and boycotts.

Michigan.—MR. HEATH: I have prepared blanks and sent them out to supervisors and assessors of each township throughout the State. The subject relates to the land question; that is, whether the land is occupied by owner or tenant. Next, the amount of land,

number of acres improved and unimproved, number of acres owned not mortgaged, its assessed valuation, the number of acres mortgaged and its assessed valuation, the amount of the mortgage indebtedness and the rate of interest paid; and in addition to that, on the same blank, I require the supervisor to give me a report of the nationality. I also require him to ascertain the amount the foreigner was worth upon his arrival in the United States, also the number of men employed, the average wages paid and the number of months employed.

Wisconsin.—Mr. FLOWER: It is hardly possible to tell what our next report will contain. As stated before, the Wisconsin bureau is required to perform an enormous amount of work outside of gathering, collating and publishing statistics. We are required to examine and inspect hotels, public and private school-houses, boarding and lodging houses, and factories of all kinds, and to enforce all the laws in relation to fire-escapes, sanitary conditions, dangerous machinery, modes of exit, etc., that pertain to any of these classes of structures. We are also required to enforce the laws restricting and prohibiting child labor—in fact, we have the most extensive executive department in the State.

As to statistics, we shall try to show in our next report the profits, peculiarities, drawbacks, moral and physical dangers, and the opportunities for promotion of the leading trades, with a view to discovering which is the most desirable for the young men now coming upon the field of activity.

We expect also to complete a list of deaths, accidents and dangers for use in formulating an employer's liability law. We once had such a law, but it was wiped out several years ago by railway influence, and has been kept from our statute books ever since by the same influence.

Iowa.—Mr. HUTCHINS: The principal features of my next report will be two that have been directed by the Legislature. One is convict labor, and upon this I have received very full reports from nearly all the prisons in the States. From these I hope to be able to make a comprehensive report.

The other is on the subject of taxation. I have a blank prepared, of twenty-four questions, taking up the subject of taxation and the incidents thereto, the method of assessment, the method of assessing banks incorporated, National and State, the assessment of live stock and of houses, and the difference between the assessments on high priced houses, where the wealthy people live, and the commoner

houses. I had expected to find difficulty in obtaining replies to these blanks, but I have already received full and complete ones from a large number of the counties.

One other subject that I shall take up somewhat fully is one that gives much trouble to coal miners, and that is the screen question. The screen question is becoming a very serious one to a large class of the wage-workers of Iowa. In my blank, to which I am receiving many answers, I put the question as to the dimensions of the screen, cost of powder and the percentage of pea coal and slack that goes through the screen, and for which the miners in Iowa claim they do not get any pay.

An investigation of this character probably will draw hostility upon me from some coal operators, yet unjustly so, for I simply present facts as given me by the miners. To the operators I offer the same facilities for presenting facts in their possession, and to the public I leave the drawing of conclusions. In addition to these subjects, I shall present tables of working men's and women's wages, cost of living, etc.

Connecticut.—Mr. HOTCHKISS of Connecticut stated that as yet no plans had been made, he having just been appointed to the office.

Missouri.—Mr. KOCHTITZKY: Our next report will relate to manufacture, transportation and mining, cost of plant, amount of insurance, number of employes, skilled, and unskilled, male and female, number of females under fourteen years of age and the value of the total articles manufactured.

About the same in regard to railroads and mines.

Kansas.—Mr. BETTON: Our next report will relate to the extent of pauperism in the State, selecting the five counties having cities of the first class, and three or four of the second class cities. Also, cost of living of working men, as obtained by monthly blanks.

Maine.—Mr. MATTHEWS of Maine stated that theirs being a new bureau they had formed no definite plans, and he was here for the purpose of instruction. He cited an interesting case of profit sharing in the largest shoe industry in the State, at Auburn.

Minnesota.—Mr. LAMB: We shall take up the collection of statistics relative to the distribution of wealth, as suggested by the President.

Colorado.—Mr. DRISCOLL: The Colorado bureau has just been established. We will probably investigate the subject of mining, condition of railroad employes, condition of employes in the build-

ing trades, also the condition of children employed, and that of working women. We shall try, also, to give a history of labor organizations.

The reports being concluded, Mr. WRIGHT said he really envied the Commissioners here, from the fact of their having so large a field to work in. Massachusetts has a large number of workers in various departments who publish returns annually, and thus the work of the Bureau of Labor Statistics there is somewhat curtailed; yet that Bureau has, since its creation, had an ample field in which to work, and will find plenty of work in the future. Continuing, he said, if the public could listen to this discussion to-night he believed they would say that every appropriation for this work ought to be doubled.

Prof. FOLWELL said that when he accepted the invitation to attend this Convention, he had a good deal of suspicion that he was getting in with a lot of political rousters, but the idea had been entirely dissipated. He had listened to the remarks made this evening, with great delight, and it seemed to him that the gentlemen came here with the best of spirit, and most admirable common sense. He felt sure that could the public know how reasonably and seriously the propositions are made, and the keen desire to impart valuable information, they would demand that larger appropriations should be made.

Several of the students of the State University were present, and expressed their gratification at being allowed to be listeners, and for the large amount of knowledge gained by the meeting to-night. Such knowledge would greatly aid them, and has inspired them for more zealous effort in the future.

The meeting adjourned at 11.15 o'clock.

By FRED SHURR, a Pressman of Milwaukee.

EMIGRATION AND LABOR.

What has been the cause of all strikes, riots and ill-feeling between capital and labor, for the past few years, throughout the United States, is often the question that suggests itself to the minds of our better informed men in the labor ranks, but it is seldom that they look deep enough into the matter to get a correct solution, and in consequence it is always laid at the door of capital. Capital is held responsible for all the poverty, crimes and misdoings of the working men, and so long as they listen to the arguments of some of the so-

called leaders, the delusion will remain unchanged. But let them look the matter squarely in the face, ponder over it, look back some thirty years, so as to become thoroughly convinced of the advancement of the wage-workers in this country, and I have no doubt but they will have to change their minds. In looking back over the past five years it seems to me that the whole trouble can be safely laid at the door of agitation. Agitation, for what? Largely for agitators to better their own condition at the expense of the workers.

These agitators, as a class, are not workingmen. They are not men that earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brows, but they belong to a class with one object in view, and that is to make money out of the workingmen. As a rule they are well educated, fair speakers, and can paint a picture of misery for labor that turns the heads of a great many of the common workingmen.

Many of these men understand very little of the English language, and promises are made in a foreign tongue. As a matter of course the sensible workingman has taken a different view, and pays little or no heed to them, but as long as they are allowed to misrepresent labor and show only the dark side of the picture, they gain converts, especially among that portion of their own countrymen who do not understand the English language, and naturally believe what is said to them, without further investigation. If men, when emigrating to this country with their families, would take into consideration that they come here to build up a new home, to live under different laws, and mingle with different people from those they have been familiar with, and try and adapt themselves to the change by honestly going to work so as to earn their living and lay by a little for a rainy day, they could not help but see that in their toil they lay the foundation for their advancement.

Take, for instance, our Norwegian population in this State, and see for yourselves what kind of citizens they have made. Along in 1848-9 and '50, they used to land at the head of Huron Street, Milwaukee, in lots of from three to four hundred, two or three times a week. The Celts that predominated in the old Third ward used to remark, "Here comes another drove of heathen; surely the country is going to the devil; where will an honest man get anything to do after a while?" and "we will all have to return to the old sod if the people do not put a stop to this soon." These emigrants did not tarry in the city, but were carted by wagon trains into the interior of the State, and as they had come here to better

their condition, went to work with a will, earned a few dollars, invested in land, took out their naturalization papers, and in course of time became citizens—citizens that I think all people may be proud of. I think I am safe in saying that the war records will produce the names of as many Ole Olesons and Peter Petersons as it will of the Schmidts and O'Briens. Yes, they made good citizens, and good soldiers as well as citizens. A great many of them can count their gains by the hundreds of thousands of dollars, while quite a number are holding some of the most responsible positions in the country. These men have "grown up with the country." Their object was to settle in this country, and have something to say about its management, and not to agitate, and sow seeds of discontent among their countrymen; and they have succeeded in proving to the American citizens that all emigrants are not a detriment and drawback to the successful growth of a country.

I do not disparage this kind of men from other foreign countries. What the American citizens want are emigrants of that class; men who will become good citizens; men who are not afraid to work, and not political refugees and agitators, who recognize no flag, except, perhaps, the red, and come here with the express purpose to feed upon the working class. With emigrant workmen of that class, matters will run smoothly enough between capital and labor, to the profit of both.

Ireland produces a good quality of emigrants, but one great trouble is that they make poor agriculturists, and in consequence remain in the large cities, where it is hard work for the common laborer to better his condition.

The Germans are a hardy race and have, to a great extent, prospered in this country, but many of them have one great drawback, notwithstanding a long residence here. I allude to their inability to speak the English language, showing that they take very little interest in American affairs. They are good workers, and with proper education would make good citizens.

We are not in need of imported labor, under the contract system, for those men who are sent from foreign countries through the capitalists' agents generally turn out a poor lot of vagabonds. As a rule they are nothing but the floating scum of their own nations, and they come here to make what money they can, so as to take it back when they get tired of their agreement, thereby taking wealth out of the country, and doing nothing towards its advancement. They

thus deprive the honest settlers of situations that they have held for years, by undermining them in the price for labor. We have no use for them, neither ought the capitalists to have.

The Italians are a fair sample of this class of contract laborers. Roused to anger they are worse than anarchists.

Skilled labor in America is better paid than in any country in the world, and to a great extent is supplied from foreign markets, England, Scotland and Germany producing some of the best workmen. Those countries have apprentice laws, whereby boys wishing to learn a trade must work a certain number of years at all the different branches, the employers being held responsible, in case they do not do their part towards advancing them, and in consequence most all of the mechanics coming from those countries are first-class workmen. The American boy does not stay more than four or five months in one place, and at the end of a year or two he considers himself a journeyman, perhaps never having worked at but one branch of a business that would at least require five years to learn thoroughly. This matter could all be remedied if the Legislature would pass a State apprentice law. Skilled workmen, as a general rule, live up to their income, and in consequence claim that they do not get ahead. Unfortunately a great many draw their money on Saturday nights, and have three or four dollars less by the time they arrive at home. This is because they have dealings with the saloon keeper during the week. If these men were to save up these three or four dollars per week, thus spent, in a few years they would be living in their own houses and have something that they could call their own, and not bring up the old story that it is impossible to get ahead.

I see no necessity for strikes, except in extreme cases, and believe that all difficulty between capital and labor should be settled by arbitration. Arbitration should be compulsory on both sides, and the decision final for a certain length of time. It should be the aim of the capitalist as well as the working-man to favor the project, for it would save millions of dollars that are now lost annually through strikes that, as a rule, benefit no one.

For the past thirty years I have held membership in typographical and pressmen's unions, and must say that properly organized bodies in skilled labor have turned out successfully to both employer and employé. In no case are strikes allowed unless all attempts of arbitration have failed. The best men in printing offices are members of unions, and in all cities of note are given the preference by their employers.

The organization called the Knights of Labor, the strongest organization in the country, if they live up to their constitution and by-laws, and listen to the advice of such men as Mr. Powderly, and not that of professional agitators, leaving all difficulties to be settled by arbitration, will be a great benefit to the country, for their great aim is to advance the workman, socially as well as financially. Such an organization should not be condemned by capital, simply because the great majority of its membership is found in the ranks of unskilled labor. I have no doubt that if they are judiciously controlled they will convince capital that labor is entitled to some rights and to respect.

Henry George's great land scheme is altogether too complicated to be understood by the common workman, and if it should turn out to do no good, certainly can do no harm, and therefore can safely be laid on the shelf for the present. It is like a great many other schemes that have been advanced theoretically, but if the workman wants to better himself he must look at it in a practical way, which only comes by good, honest industry, and he will be more apt to obtain land in that way than by taking chances with Henry George.

I have always been a strong advocate for eight hours per day, and hope that the time is not far distant when such will be the rule. The movement should be universal, for no one employer can work his men eight hours a day, while others are working theirs ten, especially where there is competition.

In closing, I desire to express the hope that I may be understood in my thoughts as expressed herein on agitation. I recognize the value, and, indeed, the necessity of agitation, carried on legitimately, and for proper ends, but I am free to denounce such agitation as comes from professional agitators, and whose fruits I have personally seen in my own city, and of which you have read so recently in Chicago. Of such, I speak in terms of unqualified disapproval.

The paper of Mr. SHURR brought out a lengthened discussion participated in by Messrs. KEAN, BETTON, DRISCOLL, HOTCHKISS, MATTHEWS and FASSETT, but it took such latitude that a detailed report of it is deemed unnecessary.

Prof. FLOWELL, who occupies the chair of Political Economy in the State University of Minnesota, having been invited by the secretary to be present, and having been a very welcome attendant

during the entire Convention, was now invited to address the meeting. He did so, to the delight of all present, as follows :

THE TRUE NATURE OF PROFIT.

No practical question of economics is more agitated at present than that of profit-sharing. Labor and capital both are looking to profit-sharing as a possible reconciliation of the perennial discord which has vexed and parted them.

While listening to the able and earnest papers and discussions of this convention upon this topic, it has occurred to me that such discussions would be more fruitful if the true nature of profit was understood and kept steadily in mind.

The subject of profit falls in the department of distribution, one of the four traditional primary subdivisions of political economy. Any discussion or controversy about distribution of itself postulates three things : first, a mass of products belonging in some sense to a producing community ; second, a body of coöperating workers, entitled in some way to regulate the division ; and third, a fair and equitable partition.

Unless these points are mutually granted and assured there can be no occasion for discussion. Distribution, then, is a social business. Property is a trust and society is its guardian. Human society is essentially coöperative in production, and must be to some extent socialistic, in the good sense of the word, in distribution.

On the basis of these postulates, many plans have been proposed for the actual distribution of wealth and services. These plans are apparently reducible to three types—distribution according to works ; distribution according to needs ; distribution according to sacrifices. Professor Cairnes, in his "Leading Principles," has shown how unworkable these are. They are all, in lawyer's phrase, "void for uncertainty." There is no standard of works, of needs, or of sacrifices, nor is there any infallible tribunal to which appeal may be made. In some smaller and isolated communities the common product may have been assigned to the coöperators according to some one of these principles, but no great people have divided wealth by any one of them.

Still, while philosophers and economists have been vainly struggling with the problem of distribution, the working world has always been

solving it. From the beginning of time the wealth of the world has been distributed.

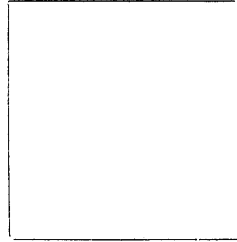
This has been done by what we call competition, which is simply the social right of every coöperator in production to take what we can from the mass of produce, subject to the equal right of every other to do the same. Among barbarians this right may degenerate into mere unregulated plunder. The civilized man has learned to find in the right of all the guarantee of the right of each.

The chief merit of the competitive plan of distribution is that it works, and works of itself. No cabinet, or council, or syndicate is needed to put it into operation. It adapts itself to all conditions of men. It is highly favorable to liberty, and is the keenest stimulus to industry and frugality. Given perfectly just men, competition will give just results, and no plan will do that while men are unjust. Competition can never be disused, for the simple reason that without it values can never be determined. Valuations become values only by the higgling of the market.

As a matter of convenience competition has been spoken of as the sole means of distribution. Such a representation needs correction. A study of the subject will show that there is a considerable portion of the economical field in which competition is so much weakened that its effects may be neglected, like remote decimals in money calculations. A considerable amount of wealth is distributed by non-competitive means. Professor J. B. Clarke, in his ingenious work on the "Philosophy of Wealth," has shown the desirability of carrying over additional increments from the competitive to the non-competitive field. There were, as shown by the census for 1880, fifty millions of people in the United States, of whom seventeen millions were engaged in gainful occupations. Two-thirds of the whole population are thus, in greater or less degrees, liberated from the struggle for existence. Competition is active in the proximate division of produce among producers. It is feeble, often imperceptible, in the ultimate assignment of goods to individual consumers. Furthermore, society devotes large masses to the general welfare, in advance of private distribution. The State is allowed to levy and collect taxes and duties, the church is made almoner of vast sums devoted to religion, charity and education. The German economists distinguish "public" and "caritative" distribution from "private" distribution.

Let us now attempt an analysis of distribution, with a view to eliminate profit from its complications.

Let us assume that it is settling day with any economic community. It is immaterial for this purpose to what political unit such a community may correspond. Here is a mass of products, the result of the joint economic activity of the community. We may represent it graphically by a square figure.



1

The first elimination is for public, the second for charitable or caritative uses. Our figure stands:

The next stage of partition is that between labor and capital; labor taking wages, capital rent for land and interest for money or money's worth.

But this partition exhausts the whole dividend, and profit has not appeared at all.

Taxes.
Charity, etc.

2

In geometry a false conclusion to a correct demonstration argues the falsity of some hypothesis or postulate. And this is the mischief here. We assumed a general settling day, and a definite sum of products. Neither of these are justifiable. Society does business on a perpetual "running account." There is and can be no universal clearing. Affairs go on like a perennial game of pool, in which individuals are continually going in and passing out.

Taxes.
Charity, etc.
Wages.
Rent.
Interest.

3

Again, the mass of produce is never an ascertainable amount. Sometimes it is nothing at all, or even a minus quantity. The ship has gone to the bottom, the mine has "petered out," the harvest has been ruined by the tornado, the town has been swallowed by an earthquake or engulfed in a tidal wave.

At other times the returns of production may exceed the dreams of the most ardent. Vast mineral deposits may have been brought to daylight, a new invention may have given man a new mastery over the forces of nature, the barns of a continent may be bursting with plenty. Most employments have more or less of the lottery element in them. No man can foretell the outcome of a season's industry or a business venture.

The returns of a production, then, can not be represented by a square. A figure like 4 will serve better.

The simple partition illustrated by figure 3 is now seen to be inadequate, because there is a new and fluctuating element in the actual dividend. Fortunately we are allowed to drop from present consideration the cases of loss, when returns are insufficient for the average reward of the coöper-

	Loss.	Profit.
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4

ating parties. Industries which do not "pay" are abandoned, when losses are not balanced up by gains. A "margin of profit" may be assumed as the general fact, but the width of that margin is an element of uncertainty entering into every social and individual transaction.

The question now arises, to whom shall this unascertained margin of profit belong? "Why, to all," hastily responds some economist of the closet; "let all parties come in for a fair share of this unearned increment. Take your figure 3, extend the several horizontal lines, and you have a correct representation of just distribution." At first glance this seems a simple and charming scheme, but it will not stand the light of the hard outside world of facts and business.

Taxes.	
Charity, etc.	
Wages.	PROFIT.
Rent.	
Interest.	

5

Let us look over the list of our parties and see how they severally

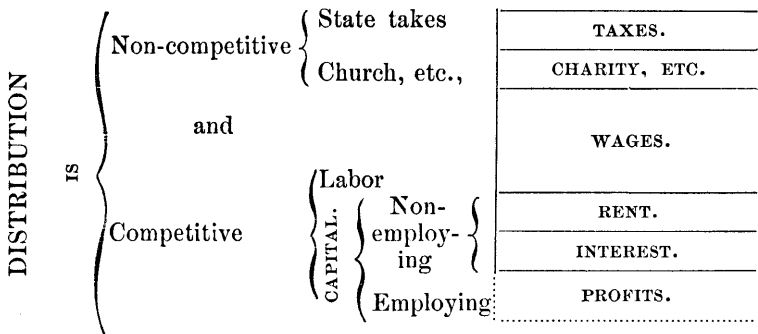
stand affected towards the margin of profits. First, the State. She demands a contribution sufficient to cover the public expenses, whether crops be plentiful or scanty. Then the church, asking ready money to prosecute her beneficent work, and desiring no interest in business ventures. Next labor, needing daily bread, distrustful of the future, unwilling and generally unable to wait for returns from unfinished enterprises. Finally capital, in two detachments, land owners and money owners. These want birds in bushes less, if possible, than the laborers. They lay no claim to the margin of profit, content with a certain income of rent or interest. So it appears that all the parties so far brought on the stage decline any share of profit. Why? Simply because the acceptance of a share

in profit means sharing in possible losses, or at least in uncertain amounts of gain. Men desire certainty and present gratification. They hate postponement of pleasure and indefinite income. We have, however, not far to seek to find a man who is ready and desirous to take possession of the margin of profit. Let us call him the "business man." Seeing the other coöperating parties so anxious for certain shares in distribution, and so loath to take chances, he says to labor and capital: "I am the man you want; I will pay a fixed rent for land, a certain interest for money, definite wages for labor of all kinds. I will take all the chances of loss, but you must allow me to hold as my own any margin of returns due to good fortune, my foresight, courage and skill—in short, I will do business for profit." To this proposal all others happily agree. Laborers, landowners, money owners, make the business man their assignee of profit, in consideration of a certain share in hand paid and exoneration from possible loss or probable diminution of gain.

This arrangement is in its general form equitable, and were it not also generally acceptable could not continue to exist.

The business man, of course, exerts himself to widen as far as possible the margin of profits, often by means indefensible among honest people. In making their assignments to him, the laborers and lenders have conveyed not merely their interests in some reasonable average margin, but they have invested him with full power to swell his profits to any possible magnitude, by prudent choice of enterprises, by skillful conduct of his business, by economies in material, and, perhaps, most of all, by shrewd use of the markets. All these may swell profits, but they are not the ground of profits. They do not make profits to be, but they make them to be more or less. Commonly, the business man is able to conceal from his coöperators the amount of his profits. All trade is regarded by those engaged in it as an "art and mystery." Speculation, a disease of honest trading, has for its object to mass and engross profits, without having rendered any return to society in the way of services.

We may now, I think, attempt a graphic illustration of economic distribution which will show where profit belongs.



The employing capitalist or business man is the assignee of profits in the present condition of the industrial world. In this statement I differ from the school of Gen. Francis A. Walker, who, following French example, teach, apparently at least, that profits go to an empty-handed "entrepreneur," manager or "captain of industry," and are the reward of mere managing ability.

The "entrepreneur" must be a capitalist. He must possess some wealth as a basis of credit, otherwise he is a mere employé, receiving wages of superintendence. Without some capital it is impossible for him to take the risks of business; and no man can ever get profits who does not in fact take the risks of loss. He alone who can put up a margin of realized wealth can share those risks. No empty-handed manager or boss can do that.

It follows as a corollary from this discussion that laborers can not expect, nor justly demand any share in profits, until they are in a condition to take the risks of business. Any division of money among employés by generous employers is either a mere bonus or an addition to wages.

Coöperation, making the same men laborers and capitalists, employers as well as employés, seems to be the only means by which laborers can become entitled to share in profits. Such coöperation is now feasible in a few employments and may become adapted to others. It will always be difficult to introduce coöperation into lines in which the risks are great, the markets distant and the returns slow to come in. Further, coöperative associations are in view of law individuals, and they can not evade competition with individuals or other associations. Coöperation may mitigate, regulate, and in some cases annul competition, but can not possibly replace it.

Another and, in my judgment, more promising means to increase wages at the expense of excessive profit, is by obtaining knowledge

of business affairs on the part of employés. In the modern world of schools, the newspaper and statistics, it should soon become impossible for employers to keep the community in the dark as to the cost, the risks and the profit of business. All corporations enjoying franchises ought to be obliged, by effective laws, to make known to the public the complete details of their operations. Employers generally will at length find it to their advantage to take their employés into their confidence, and convince them that wages cannot be increased without peril to the business. When employers are as ready to prove as they are to assert that they are paying as much wages as the business will stand, employés will be likely to believe them; but so long as the books are shut, mere words will not convince. To collect and diffuse such information for the benefit of the people of your respective States is, I suppose, the actual if not always the avowed object of the creation of bureaus of labor statistics. The whole people are entitled to know, and they mean to know, all the secrets which from time immemorial have been a part of the "art and mystery" of trade and manufacture. Such a state of things calls for a high degree of intelligence, moderation and self control on the part of labor. It will be useless to open the ledgers to the workmen's committees till the committeemen at least understand double-entry book-keeping. With larger knowledge of markets, of ways and means of production, and of accounting, the risks of business may be greatly diminished, and both capital and labor may work together zealously to increase the fund from which wages and profits may alike be increased. It is not a vain dream, that some day all industry directed by the highest knowledge and strictest honor, may, without charters and constitutions to restrict free movement or free sales, combine the vigor flowing from competition with the stability and order to come from true coöperation.

This very able address was greatly strengthened by the diagrams which the professor readily charcoaled before his audience. He was questioned freely by the gentlemen present, who were as freely answered by the speaker, and the hour was one of rare interest and value.

By C. C. BONNY of Chicago.

STATISTICS AS A BASIS OF LEGISLATION.

Law is sometimes called the science of human experience. Experience consists of facts. Statistics are net facts, classified. It is only by classification, study and analysis, that the principles which

give vitality to facts can be discovered. Such a principle, when discovered and declared, clothed in words, and equipped for human service, is recognized and applied as a law. The great body of our jurisprudence consists of such laws, comparatively few of which have ever felt the mending, or more likely the marring, hand of the legislator. For instance, the law of common carriers, negotiable instruments, evidence, fraud, accident, mistake and equity procedure, not to mention other departments, consists, for the most part, of inherent principles, declared by the courts or the great jurists, and only to a comparatively small extent of rules enacted by legislative authority.

The office of legislation is four fold :

1. To enact new rules which experience has shown to be necessary or expedient, to govern cases for which the existing laws do not properly provide.
2. To repeal laws which advancing civilization has either outgrown, or has discovered to be founded on some unsound principle.
3. To settle by enactment, questions on which the courts have disagreed, or are in doubt.
4. From time to time to condense and simplify the laws relating to any given topic, that they may be more cheaply published, and more easily understood and applied.

It should be observed in passing, that it is beyond the power of the legislature to enact what the law was in the past. Only the courts can do that. The legislature may only declare what the law shall be as to cases thereafter to arise.

One of the greatest of all the defects of modern law-making is legislation based on the narrow and incomplete experience of a few persons, which may be, and often is, merely exceptional. Because the laws affect the whole people, therefore the experience of the whole people should be the basis of legislation. Laws based on the experience, or planned to meet the needs of a locality or a class, will almost certainly be found to be antagonistic to some other place or interest. But if all the facts are known, the rules to be declared will be modified, and such exceptions made as justice may require. Legislation without a proper knowledge of the facts is simply campaigning in the dark. The shot which the zealous legislator intends for a foe may astonish and grieve him by bringing down a friend. He may *guess* that a new rule is needed, or that an old one should be repealed, or that an unsettled question should be

determined *pro*, instead of *con*. But if he really knows the facts, if he has studied and gathered the results of a wide experience, he can act as a master of the situation, and wisely prepare the remedy that the occasion demands.

Now we come to the heart of the matter. The only means by which the results of a wide and varied experience in any department of life can be collected, classified, analyzed and studied, is that which is known by the name of STATISTICS. Hence it follows that the statistical machinery of government should everywhere be increased, and more liberally supported, to the end that all the departments of control may act in the light of knowledge, instead of blundering along in the dark. The machinery of government should be so arranged that what may be described as a census report on any particular subject could be obtained from all parts of the State or country within a few days; or, in case of emergency, by the use of the telegraph, in a few hours.

Statistics of legal proceedings in a large city would be utterly misleading as a basis of legislation for the rural districts. So of the administration of estates, the collection and disbursement of the revenue, and the like. The grand reason why the great cities of the country are so wretchedly misgoverned is that the powers delegated to them are so generally well and prudently exercised in small towns and country districts, that the rural legislator cannot understand why that which works well in a county or a village should breed crime and disorder in a large city. The only way to enable a legislative body to see and be guided by the truth in the matter of municipal government, which may serve as a general illustration, is to carefully collect and classify the statistics, and show the exact results, good, bad or indifferent, of the course pursued in the different departments. Piece-meal and class statistics, by themselves, are of no practical value. They are as worthless as a map of a small section of a battlefield would be to a commanding general. He must have the entire field in view if he would wisely direct his forces.

A widely extended and systematic collection, classification, and publication of statistics would not only be of such great value to legislators, and other officers of government, but would also confer immense benefits upon the people at large. If from time to time the supply, at all points, of the various articles of commerce could be made known, and the demand for each as shown by transporta-

tion orders be simultaneously declared, with the prices demanded, and the rates charged, not only would Congress and the State legislatures have a living and continuous basis of legislation, but the people, especially the producers, would see how to regulate their production, and guard against the mistakes which they are constantly making for want of such knowledge, and which, from time to time, lead to overproduction, stagnation of trade, and finally a calamitous period of insolvency.

It would not be necessary to create a new army of officials. Post-masters, collectors and other officers could be utilized for such a service. The proper blanks could be prepared by skillful hands, and distributed through the mails, and efficiency in performing the work be secured by a fair compensation, and proper penalties for neglect or misconduct. The so-called statistics collected by various investigating committees are doubly defective. They are derived from too limited sources, and they are out of date before proper action can be had upon them.

The advent of the statistician in politics, using the word in the higher sense of government, is an auspicious event. It indicates that we are about to use facts as a basis of action, instead of popular sentiments and suppositions. It suggests that we are now advancing to a real science of government, and that when it shall have made its way among the people, and commanded, first, their admiration of its excellence, and then their love for its utility, they will see that the principles of liberty and government are not less fixed or fascinating than those which hold in their unchanging orbits the constellations that adorn the skies.

This paper met with a very warm endorsement from the Convention, representing as it did the need of a thorough knowledge of statistics for thorough legislation.

In the discussion of the paper, Mr. KEAN of New York, in endorsing the sentiment of the paper, expressed the hope that the time would speedily come when the people in selecting legislators would select such as are well versed in statistics.

Mr. LAMB of Minnesota called attention to the fact that bad legislation largely comes from a want of facts in possession of legislators.

Mr. FLOWER of Wisconsin thought if there was poor legislation it was the fault of the people. Men should be elected by the people who were qualified to make proper legislators.

The Secretary now read the following paper from Mr. C. S. BYRKIT of Des Moines, Iowa, prefacing the reading by the statement that the paper came from the brain of a working man—a practical mechanic :

DICTATION OF WAGES.

Dictation is a word especially obnoxious to a native of our republic. At birth the very atmosphere that first inflates his lungs, comes vitalized by contact of a thousand miles o'er happy homes and boundless fields, whose humble tenants know no eviction ; his senses are early greeted in cradle song and story of ancestral deeds, of heroic and successful struggles in the overthrow of despotism, and the up-building of an ideal republic whose charter should be a guarantee of freedom and equality to all. Perhaps it is largely due to this training, to this early distilled hatred of everything savoring of autocracy, that it is generally accepted as an argument unanswerable, carrying conviction in itself, when the champion of that enthusiastic doctrine that each shall be entirely free to act for himself, so long as his actions do not directly interfere with the business of another, meets the plea for better wages to the laborer with the inquiry : "Would you dictate what wages I shall pay, or would you prevent another from accepting terms which you have refused?" It does seem incompatible with the teachings of our boasted declaration of freedom and independence, to answer in the affirmative ; likewise an abandonment of personal liberty and the right to live and prosper, in answering no, for there are always mercenary men who will purchase labor in the market at its lowest price, as they were wont to do in the southern marts in palmy days, when human hearts and hands were sold in consideration of the amount of manual labor expected in return, and there is always, alas, under existing circumstances, muscle in the market. The vicissitudes of life demand, and must have, money without regard to usury paid.

In order to determine what wages a working man should justly receive, it is necessary to ascertain what is expected of him. That service which demands the least exercise of mental and the greatest amount of physical force seems in all ages to have been but poorly paid ; thus in foreign countries, the employment at fair wages of an intelligent head to think for and direct the movements of the mass of automatons employed for a given contract, seemed to cover the exigencies of the case, and little more than manual labor was expected of the common toiler, but as the demands of nature for food

and clothing were imperative, the market for common labor was abundantly supplied at wages inadequate to more than scantily meet the daily demands for sustaining life for the laborer and dependents ; thus his children grew up in ignorance and poverty to take the father's place in greater number in the tread-mill of life ; and thus was ever the supply in excess of the demand, and the market for manual toil, of flesh and blood, cheapened. But the situation of the American laborer of to-day is quite different ; much more is expected of him. He is not only a manual, but a mental laborer. If he is an artisan he may point with pride to the greatest inventions of the age that have sprung from the little secluded work-shop. His inventions have made the night to rival the day for brightness. Everywhere the locomotive travels the vast network of metal rails like an animate being, crossing in its flight the greatest steel bridges ever designed by engineer, yet the many improvements that have made the American locomotive a thing of perfection and admiration the world over, is a glowing tribute to the intelligence of the American mechanic in whose fertile brain they originated. From an humble garret came forth the sewing machine to lighten the toil, and bless the homes and mothers of the world. An humble hungry American mechanic voiced the iron wire, and it speaks to-day in every language known to civilized man. But a few years since the busy housewife ran to and fro all the long weary day, like a spider, drawing forth the woolen thread to weave the fabric for the household garments, but now the intricate mechanical spinner darts forth to buzz for a moment like an angry bee and then to retreat and briefly hum and chatter like a thing of life, and thus eight hundred threads of many times the "old-time" length are drawn and finished, yet it is but the spirit of an inventor who in life felt the pangs of hunger and of want.

Another thought. The man who has a wall, or house, or barn to build, does not, unless the job is very extensive, hire an overseer to guide the men who work, but in every country town the carpenter, the blacksmith and the mason are "boss" and workman all in one ; the man who works for him to-day may, in his turn, have the job of to-morrow. The rich banker visits the dusty shop of the knight of lath and lumber, and on a common level capital and labor sit, and whittle and higgles over a prospective contract, not that Dives doubts for a moment the ability of his man to do the work, but the price is the sticking point.

And what shall be said of the farmer? While the artisan has toiled at the forge, he has not been idle in the furrow, and the map which but a quarter of a century since marked all that vast expanse of country west of Missouri as "the great American desert," now bounds half a dozen new States and Territories teeming with busy people who have made the desert to literally blossom as the rose, bearing upon its prolific bosom the greatest crops a nation ever garnered. Vast herds of cattle cover grand pastures, larger than many an empire of the old world. What have these men done towards self-government and what is expected of them? From their ranks was largely recruited the greatest invading army earth has ever reviewed, fighting their battles systematically and successfully, and when victory was achieved, returning again to the peaceful routine of a busy life, thus demonstrating to a wondering world—old and adept in the profession of war—what they had always denied, that a citizen soldiery—an army made up of thinking bayonets—was a success, and that a people with a country worthy their patriotism, fought more bravely than for gold; and it demonstrated more, that up from the depths of a tannery, unhonored and unknown, could be recruited the greatest leader for this army that ever buckled sword. No royal blood was needed, no purchased commission, a system of promotion free to all comers, where merit alone is crowned with success. In the line of statesmanship a few words speak volumes. Up from the log cabin, up from such hardships of life that he said it were better to remain unwritten, up from the galling labor of a rail-splitter, *he* stands to-day on the pages of history, absolutely without a parallel.

These, and a thousand other examples, are but a paragraph of the history the common people of America have written in the past, on the pages of progress.

It is upon this wonderful combination of genius and acquired intelligence which seems to predominate in the American people, that we base our claim of superiority as a nation. Rome was once looked upon as the acme of all that pertained to war; it was the realization of a long and systematic training of her people in the one direction. Greece was long regarded as the seat of science and letters, the crystalization of all that was known of art, into one government. But Rome crumbled for want of internal support, and Greece fell by the hands of barbarians, because it knew nothing of war.

In order to build up a strong and enduring nation, the industrial class must be protected and developed.

In order to render the most valuable service they must have. *first*, food, not only in sufficient quantities, but it must be wholesome. It may be demonstrated that life can be sustained on a diet of rats and rice, but in the case of our working men it must not only be sustained, but the physical man built up and strengthened by pure blood and a clean system, not easily susceptible to disease. His food must, also, be of that nature which is muscle creating; these two requirements being essential to great physical endurance. The working man who feels not the pangs of hunger, whose liver is active and vigorous, whose muscle is well developed, must be able to render the greatest physical service; his senses are most acute, his perception of and willingness to meet the requirements are quickened. He must also have brain food; his intellectual faculties must be developed to the fullest extent, not only that our reputation as a nation of inventors be sustained, but that the bridges, buildings and great engineering schemes of the future be intelligently consummated, safety insured and economy practiced. *Second*, he must have clothes, strong as a matter of economy, warm and clean as a sanitary measure. *Third*, he and his family must be educated. One of the greatest factors in accomplishing the latter requirement is the modern newspaper. The intelligent craftsman has rendered it possible, through many inventions and improvements, to furnish each morning at his own home, and at normal cost this, the greatest blessing of the century. Through its columns he may learn of the political policies of his own and other nations; through it fraudulent and improper schemes are exposed, and reforms inaugurated and championed; the policy of our home government is contrasted with that of foreign, and the course of those entrusted by the people as their rulers is reviewed and criticised. As a result, the working man of to-day is a reading and a thinking man, and it is safe to say that the fishery question is better understood by the common people of the States than the course of the home government towards Ireland, by the peasantry of England. This is as it should be. Was our nation called to arms to-day the response would be by those who as thoroughly understood the issues as the leaders themselves. Our work shops would open to-morrow for the construction of repeating guns and "turtle-back" forts of the latest and most approved patterns, by automatic machinery of the most ingenious and rapid delivery. In no country

on the face of the earth is the newspaper so well and favorably known and appreciated, as by the middle class of Americans.

The working man must have a trades paper, one of the many for which this country is famous, devoted to his special line of service, that he may be kept well informed of the latest progress of the world at large in his specialty. He must have a religious paper if he wishes. Perhaps the average employer would protest against this as an unnecessary addition, but its influence in the promotion of honor, of subordination and toleration as well as the tendency towards suppression of vice and intemperance, the upbuilding of homes and sustaining of that which is pure, recommends it as a politic investment for the promotion of good government, if no other reason were urged.

Perhaps the grandest mile stone that marks the march of progress by this great nation is the free school system. It needs no encomium, its grand results are apparent everywhere; look at Iowa, our own proud "Hawkeye" State, proverbial for her schools "on every hill top;" fourteen thousand public schools open alike for rich and poor without regard to race or color; she officially stands at the head in the least percentage of its inhabitants who cannot read or write. Therefore, *fourth*, the working man must be able to take advantage of this great blessing; he must be able to meet from his wages the very small percentage of the expense required (much larger, no doubt, than is just and proper) in the purchase of the monopolists' books, that his children may grow up eminently fitted to grasp the moving lever of business with no uncertain hand, well qualified to place the commerce and business of our nation a great step in advance with every decade. And our working man should have more; he should be able, barring misfortune and evil habits, such as drink, tobacco, etc., *fifth*, to lay aside something for old age. This should be done in the way of an early investment in such amount of ground as is proper, and the addition year by year of such improvements as a small surplus aided by willing hands will permit. Not only will this tend towards contentment, but each addition will be a deposit in the savings bank sure of return. It is a benefit, also, to the community at large, and it strengthens the ties which bind us as a nation.

It is for the good of the republic that these requirements be met. That labor shall receive its just reward, should be the concern of every citizen. Elevate the toiler and the nation will advance; de-

grade the laboring class and a long leap is taken downward toward national decrepitude. The working man broken down and prematurely old, having been unable to accumulate when at his best, becomes a burden on the public charity, and the deficit has to be made up by those who profited not by his labors. An indifferent course pursued towards this class tends only to dwarf their intellectual and physical growth, thus speeding the ultimate decay of the republic, because the work accomplished by men in good mental and physical condition is superior to that rendered by indifference and incapacity, besides the underpaid and underfed of a country are but sleeping embers which any wind may fan into a blaze. Cities built by involuntary servitude and strawless bricks left Egypt no enduring monuments.

The object sought can be obtained by working men sustaining wages that will meet the above contingencies, and it is the duty of every patriotic citizen to see to it that the workingmen are sustained in their fight, not for extortionate wages, but against mercenary employers, for in every labor mart stand Shylocks unconvicted, with whom the pound of flesh is ever in demand, and who have only selfish motives, and not the welfare of the nation at heart; who depress labor, not in the interest of the consumer of his wares, but for the profit to himself.

It is the duty of every citizen to discourage the employment of those who will work for less than life-sustaining wages, or for that which is inadequate to make him a desirable citizen, and keep his family from want. The Bible denounces such an improvident as worse than heathen.

Thus it seems that just how far wages should be dictated is but a problem of figures, the market price of that which is necessary to meet the above requirements, and the purchasing power of the wages received.

This paper, although presenting a subject not altogether popular, was very cordially endorsed by every one present.

Prof. FOLWELL, having used the term "State socialism" several times, was asked by Mr. HUTCHINS to express his definition of the same, and his views thereon.

In reply the professor said that the old economists desired the state to interfere in everything. All discoveries of statesmen were devoted to magnifying the importance of the state. They favored an increase of population because it was thought that population was

essential to the growth of the wealth of the country, and what was needed was greater wealth. The increase of wealth was the great question in the eighteenth century. Then came the revolt, which system has largely been prevalent to this day. The halt has already been called by the rising school of economists. The state cannot be ignored any longer. The state is necessary in the raising of revenues, and in the regulation of the police of the country. There should be no money without regulation. In the fact that the state coins money, is the reason that it must regulate the amount of money. The state must own the means of production. The essence of state socialism is that the state should own all factories, telephones, etc., in short, everything except the finished product. That is decidedly the extreme idea. He thought a certain criterion might be set up that would be practical, and this opinion was the result of a good deal of thinking; that whatever business is of universal concern, and too great for private means, should be put into the hands of the state. The state could own it, or regulate it, just as appears best.

By JULES BLEYER.

WHAT WAGE EARNERS ARE PROMOTED.

My subject has not led me among figures. There can be no compilation of statistics in regard to a matter which is not only in a measure dependent upon caprice, but which also varies with the fluctuations of human will. I shall present only the results of experience and observation, and shall offer for comparison nothing but my individual opinion.

Twenty-three years of toil as a wage-earner has grounded me in opinions as to promotions that, while they may not have the stamp of originality, have had at least the confirmation of personal observation.

Passing without consideration the occasional acts of nepotism, which prove that "blood is thicker than water," and discussing promotion as a guerdon to be won without favor or to be bestowed with impartiality, the conclusion will at once be reached that the wage-earners who are promoted are those who, in addition to the assiduity that should characterize all honest workingmen, exhibit also excellence of handicraft, and a faculty of acquiring knowledge of their trade in advance of the position in which they have already won merit. In other words, the reward of promotion is generally be-

stowed upon the diligent workman who is also capable, intelligent and progressive.

There should not be a moment of doubt in the mind of a faithful employer, when a vacancy occurs in his working force, as to who among his striving employés is worthy of promotion. I qualify this assertion with the word faithful, because I believe there should be reciprocity of interest between employer and employé. I believe it to be as much the duty of an employer to observe the work of his employés, and to show that he is an observer of it, as it is for a workman to endeavor to please his employer, and to show him that he has his interest at heart. Their business relations should be thoroughly and consistently interdependent.

The employer who mingles with his workmen and exhibits interest in what they are doing, will get more in return for his wage-money than will he who stands aloof and entrusts to overseers the entire management of his business. The observant employer becomes the incarnation of hope, and his employés will trustfully look to him for a fair recognition of diligence and painstaking performance of duty.

Industrial establishments in which hope cannot be found are tread mills that destroy patience and blunt aspiration. But those in which it is known among the workmen that the proprietors have an eye upon what their employés are doing, individually as well as collectively, are generally centers of ambition, enduring effort and tireless industry. And the moment an employer makes mental note of the fact that a workman is more than worthy of his hire, that his productive capacity is above the average of his fellows, that he is deserving of promotion, at that very moment advancement should be accorded, both as regards position and compensation. Conscience should not permit an employer to reserve reward until a wage-earner asks for substantial recognition of his merits. A workingman's faithfulness serves, oftentimes, as a hoodwink against self-interest. Promotion and increase of pay are honestly his from the date of his employer's conviction as to his worthiness; and if the money finds its way to the employer's safe instead of to the toiler's pocket, it is capital virtually wrung from its creator through a mistaken comprehension of duty and fair dealing.

But it must be admitted that there is a bar to a free exercise of reciprocal favor in the level scales of wages which trades-unions blindly establish. Employers are compelled to pay all journeymen alike—the good, the indifferent and the bad. Therefore it is only

natural that some of them should feel justified in making up on the extra good workman what they may be losing on the manifestly bad.

In this particular trades-unions do great wrong to competent workmen. The good craftsmen are virtually forced to carry on their broad shoulders their less competent associates ; they are handicapped to the extent of the difference between their individual ability, and the ability of their entire guild.

Employers should take cognizance of this, and, on the broad ground that two wrongs do not make a right, they should grant ample reward to the deserving, even though at the same time they be compelled to unduly compensate the unworthy. But it is natural for aggrieved men to endeavor to "get even" with their annoyers, and as a consequence the able employés are compelled to wait longer for their just deserts than they would were graded scales of wages in force. And oftentimes they never receive their full reward.

On the part of workingmen there should from the outset be an effort toward improvement and advancement. To be a good workman is to be a lover of one's calling ; and no toiler has ever succeeded who was not wedded to his work. Show me an apprentice who is so proud of his chosen trade that he will grovel in oil and grime to acquire its rudiments, and I will show you the material for a successful mechanic. A young man who is thus painstaking from the outset, who is moved by a spirit of emulation that tells him that what others have done well he also can do equally as well, is even in the first year of his apprenticeship almost beyond the possibility of failure. Time will lift him to the front, if he remain steadfast, as surely as it is carrying him toward the bourne of eternal rest. .

The faculty of unremitting attention to detail should be cultivated from the first day of apprenticeship. Between hope of reward and fear of failure the toiler's road to success should be trod. No item of detail, however small, should be neglected. Self-urging to do things that ought to be done, molds habit that insures the performance of duty to the last letter. It has been said that man is a bundle of habits ; it might be added that man's success to a great extent depends upon the number of good habits he adds, during the formative period of his existence, to the bundle of which he is the personification. A wage-earner should ever look upon his trade as his life work, and he should endeavor to achieve success in it at whatever cost of time and toil.

This building for the future is an exhibition of the patriarchal spirit inherent in man ; and it is the main spur to effort by the sterner sex. Its natural absence in woman is the cause of her comparative failure in industrial fields. Work in the trades,—or any branch of labor for that matter,—is with women merely an expedient. The majority of them have hopes that center on matrimony ; and, therefore, marriage may be said to be their *ultima thule* as far as wage-earning is concerned. For this reason the perspective of opportunity is for them very shallow, and their progress toward limited success very slow. There are, of course, exceptions,—in about the same relative proportion of spinsters to the married,—but not enough to save the sex from criticism that is justified more by the nature of things, than by any inherent fault of individual women.

In relation to the necessity of preparing oneself for a life of labor, some one has remarked that machinery is constantly improving the chances of the mentally indolent ; that it is becoming more and more easy, as time advances, for “fools to get along.” This, in a measure, is true—if getting along means only the acquirement of food and raiment. But the reverse is true if progress be also an object of endeavor. Machinery and the systematic conduct of business that has become necessary by reason of close competition have established grooves of routine labor in which the unthinking workman may plod until the end of his days. Unless he lift his head and peer over the ruts and the intervening ridges that lie between him and a full knowledge of his chosen work, he is indeed lost. System tends to make men conscious automatons. It gives us shoemakers who can make neither boots nor shoes ; printers who cannot punctuate their copy ; machinists who cannot construct an engine ; carpenters who cannot build a house ; butchers who cannot slaughter their beef. And the closer the system the more narrow the workingman’s field of opportunity. It is more easy to drift with the tide than to stem the current. Therefore, the unambitious make little or no effort to get out of the ruts that describe cycles suggestive of eternal grind.

It requires live effort to ward off the stunting influence of system in industrial establishments. Unless he be wide awake a wage-earner becomes a sort of a one-idea workman, an attendant upon a machine whose capabilities are circumscribed, a slave to hopeless routine. The time has passed when one could enter on the ground floor of a trade and work upward through it, seemingly without

effort, other than that of a manual nature. It takes a real thinker now to complete an industrial education. None other can get out of the ruts that define the various stages of mediocrity.

Therefore, it seems plain that promotion is attainable only by thoughtful workingmen, by those who recognize the necessity of continuous effort, and who strive to "burst the bonds of circumstance." The deserving of reward may not be "leaders" among their fellows—they may be reserved even to timidity; but "by their works shall ye know them," not by their personal characteristics.

OFFICIAL CIRCULARS AND BLANKS.

STATE OF MAINE.

BUREAU OF INDUSTRIAL AND LABOR STATISTICS, }
AUGUSTA, —, 1887. }

To the Workingmen and Workingwomen of the State :

The Commissioner of this Bureau is very desirous that the first volume of Reports shall be of much value to the State, and especially to the great body of laborers in Maine. To accomplish this end, your full and hearty co-operation must be given. Without such co-operation the Commissioner cannot do you justice. With it, he promises you this justice. I have prepared the accompanying blank, which I desire you to fill. Accurate and positive facts are desired. Your name shall not be made public, and it is hoped that prejudice and fear may be laid aside, and an honest statement of your condition given. Your personal and individual interest and help are asked. This is asked also of the various statisticians of Local Assemblies of the K. of L. It is asked of all interested in this great question of wages and wage workers—of Labor and Capital. You can make the Reports from the Bureau of great value to you if you will, and I confidently hope for your co-operation in the work.

Take ample time to do this blank justice, but, at your earliest convenience, please return it to me properly filled. I enclose a stamped envelope.

Respectfully yours,

S. W. MATTHEWS, *Commissioner*.

1. Name in full (not to be made public).
2. Age.
3. Where born.
4. Residence—Post-office address.
5. Occupation.
6. Number of hours employed daily.
7. Number of days in week.
8. Earnings: Per day; per week; per month.
9. Total Earnings, *i. e.*, actual income from your own earnings for year ending this date (give date).
10. Number of days lost during the year—not including legal holidays: Total; from sickness; from inability to obtain work; from other causes.
11. How many dependent on you for support.
12. Earnings of all others in your family, for same year.

13. Cost of living during the year for self and family: Total cost; Do you own a home, if so, is it mortgaged? Value of home; Amount of mortgage; Rate of interest on mortgage; If you rent, how many rooms do you rent? What rent do you pay monthly?

14. Total number in your family.

15. Number engaged in working for wages.

16. Are wages paid in cash, or otherwise?

17. Are you expected to trade at a company store?

18. If so, do you find prices higher than at other stores?

19. How often are you paid?

20. Could you live cheaper if paid oftener?

21. Are any wages withheld under certain rules?

22. Do you belong to any labor organization?

23. Do you belong to any beneficiary association?

24. Do you receive weekly benefits in case of sickness?

25. Have you a savings bank account?

26. Have you accumulated any savings during former years; during past year?

27. Have you run into debt during past year?

STATE OF MAINE.

BUREAU OF INDUSTRIAL AND LABOR STATISTICS, }
AUGUSTA, —, 1887. }

DEAR SIR:

Chapter 69 of the Laws of 1887, entitled "An Act to provide for a Bureau of Industrial Statistics," provides as follows:

SECT. 2. It shall be the duty of this department to collect, assort, systematize, and present in annual reports to the governor, to be by him transmitted biennially to the legislature, statistical details relating to all departments of labor in the State, especially in its relations to the commercial, industrial, social, educational, and sanitary condition of the laboring people, and to the permanent prosperity of the productive industries of the State.

In pursuance of the requirements of the law, the Commissioner is now engaged in compiling for his first annual report, a statement of the manufacturing industries of the State. You are earnestly requested to fill out the accompanying blank form up to July 1st, 1887, and return the same to this office at your earliest convenience.

The value of the data furnished by you will depend upon its accuracy, and I request that you carefully observe the instructions given as to amount of "Capital Invested," &c.

In addition to answering the questions contained in the blank form, any suggestions or remarks you may deem proper to make upon the educational, financial, social and sanitary conditions of the working people in your vicinity will be thankfully received and regarded as confidential. The object is for your good as well as that of the employe.

Your prompt compliance with this request will much facilitate the labors of this Bureau in accomplishing the objects contemplated by the law.

Yours respectfully,

S. W. MATTHEWS, *Commissioner*.

1. Name of individual, firm or corporation.
2. Location.
3. Kinds of goods manufactured, or business done.
4. How much capital have you invested in your business?

NOTE. All the capital used in securing your productions, of whatever nature, whether on hand, borrowed or accumulated from profits, should be included. Credit capital, (borrowed capital) includes all amounts supplied by partners or stockholders; these sums being practically loaned by them to the firm. Credit capital also includes what money you have the use of through the giving of notes, or the obtaining of credit for a long time, either for goods or cash.

5. Number of weeks in operation during past year.
6. Cost of buildings and grounds.
7. Cost of machinery and repairs.
8. Rent, taxes, insurance, yearly.
9. Value of raw material used during the year.
10. Total wages, not including salaries of Managers paid during the year.
11. Total expenses for the year.
12. Average weekly wages paid—skilled; unskilled.
13. Number of employes—male; female.
14. " " " " over 15 years; female over 15 years.
15. " " " " under 15 " " under 15 "
16. Total wages paid, distinguishing as to sex, adults and children.

Total Amount.	Males.	Females.	Adults.	Children.

17. Highest wages paid to men per week.
18. Lowest wages paid to men per week.
19. Average wages paid to men per week.
20. Average annual earnings of men.
21. Highest wages paid to women per week.
22. Lowest wages paid to women per week.
23. Average annual earnings of women.
24. Wages paid to boys and girls per week—boys; girls.
25. What proportion of your employes own homes?
26. Did you have any accident in your establishment during the year ending July 1st, '87, and if so, state number, extent of injuries and cause of same.
27. Number of strikes or lock-outs, and causes of same.

PRODUCT AND PROFIT.

1. Total value of goods manufactured.
2. Gross profit.
3. Average product per employe.
4. " profit "
5. " earnings "

SALARIED HELP.

Employees.	No. Employed	Average Weekly Wages.
Managers.		
Salesmen.		
Book-keepers.		
Clerks.		

N. B.—Lest there should be any apprehension on the part of manufacturers that answering any of the questions in this blank form may be prejudicial to their personal or business interests, the Commissioner desires it to be distinctly understood that the Bureau will preserve the strictest confidence with all its correspondents and informants. The information collected in this way is to be classified and grouped in totals, and no names, except by express permission, will appear in the report or be otherwise given to the public.

STATE OF MAINE.

BUREAU OF INDUSTRIAL AND LABOR STATISTICS, }
AUGUSTA, —, 1887. }

DEAR SIR:

The Legislature at its last Session, created a Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics, and provided that the Commissioner should "collect, assort, systematize, and present in annual reports to the Governor, to be by him transmitted biennially to the legislature, statistical details relating to all departments of labor in the State, especially in its relations to the commercial, industrial, social, educational and sanitary condition of the laboring people, and to the permanent prosperity of the productive industries of the State."

In order to secure information relating to the important "department of labor" represented by the Railroads of the State, I send the accompanying blank, with the request that the questions therein contained be answered as fully as possible. Your prompt compliance will greatly facilitate the labor of this Bureau in accomplishing the objects contemplated by the law. I enclose a stamped envelope for the return to this office.

Yours respectfully,

S. W. MATTHEWS, *Commissioner.*

RAILWAYS.

1. Name of company.
2. Miles of road in State.
3. Average number of employes from June 30, 1886, to July 1, 1887.
4. Total number of employes at date of making this return.
5. Please give average wages, &c., of the various callings of labor at which persons are employed in connection with your road in Maine, as classified below :

OFFICE HELP.

	No. Employed.	Average Monthly Salaries.
Secretary,		
Clerks,		
Train Dispatchers,		
Operators,		
Freight Agents,		
Ticket Agents,		

OTHER EMPLOYES.

	Number Employed.	Average Monthly Salaries.
Locomotive Engineers,		
Locomotive Firemen,		
Passenger Conductors,		
Freight Conductors,		
Brakemen,		
Machinists in Shops,		
Watchmen,		
Section Hands,		
Telegraph Operators,		

ACCIDENTS.

Please state the number of persons killed or injured by accident on your road in Maine, from June 30th, 1886, to July 1st, 1887.

	Killed.	Injured.
Passengers,		
Employees,		
Others,		

STATE OF MAINE.

BUREAU OF INDUSTRIAL AND LABOR STATISTICS, }
AUGUSTA, —, 1887. }

To ——— ——— :

The Act providing for a Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics makes it the duty of the Commissioner "to inquire into the immediate causes of strikes, lockouts, or other disturbances of the relations between employers and employees." In pursuance of the requirements of the law, the Commissioner submits the inquiries herein contained, to which full and accurate answers should be given. Respectfully yours,

S. W. MATTHEWS, *Commissioner*.

✎ It is very important that the nature of the difficulty should be plainly stated.

If it was a strike, erase the word "lockout."

If it was the latter, then erase the word "strike."

1. Name of firm.
2. Industry.
3. Cause of strike or lockout.
4. Date of commencement of strike or lockout.
5. Date of termination of strike or lockout.
6. Total number of employes previous to strike—male; female.
7. Present total number of employes—male; female.
8. Number engaged in strike or lockout—male; female.
9. What number of old employes refused to strike and continued to work?
10. Was your mill, factory, or shop closed as a result of the strike?
11. For what length of time.
12. What demands, if any, were made on the part of the employes?
13. Were they acceded to by your firm?

14. What demands, if any, were made on the part of your firm?
15. Were they acceded to by your employes?
16. How many, if any, old employes were refused work after the strike or lockout ended?
17. What was the rate of wages previous to strike or lockout, per day? If piece work, what was average rate of wages per day, or per week?
18. What was rate of wages finally agreed upon?
19. What was the total loss to employes in wages, as result of strike or lockout?
20. Has the reduction of the hours of labor resulted in a diminution of production?
21. If so, to what extent.
22. As result of strike was your firm unable to fill any existing contracts?
23. What was the loss to the firm from this cause?
24. As result of strike was your firm obliged to refuse any new contract?
25. What was the loss from this cause?
26. As result of strike was any portion of your trade diverted to other manufacturers or States?
27. Estimated loss.
28. What was the approximate amount of loss, if any, by reason of injury to goods or machinery by striking employes?
29. What was the approximate amount of loss, if any, to goods or machinery occasioned by lack of experience on the part of new employes?
30. Were any of the employes taking the places of the strikers assaulted, and if so, how many?
31. Were such assaulting parties arrested?
32. What disposition was made of the cases?
33. Was your firm "boycotted," and if so, what was the result?
34. Has the "boycott" been discontinued?
35. Has your firm ever made any discrimination as between union and non-union employes?

REMARKS.

Any remarks or suggestions bearing upon the subject under investigation will be cheerfully received by this Bureau. It is very *important* that you furnish this Bureau with a certified copy of "Demands" made, if any, by the Union or the firm; also certified copy of "Agreement," if any, finally settled upon between the Union and your firm.

PART 2.

WAGES, COST OF LIVING, ETC., OF WAGE-WORKERS.

The following tables have been compiled from returns made by wage-workers. A large number of "workingmen's blanks" were distributed through the mails, by personal interviews, and through members of labor organizations, several of whom have manifested an interest in this branch of the work of the bureau. While only about one-tenth of the blanks distributed have been returned, those received and tabulated furnish valuable data on the wage question. As has been the case with other bureaus, the deductions from our tables may be subjected to criticism as reporting wages too high. Those who make returns to bureaus of statistics are generally the *best* workmen. The averages are made from the returns as furnished to us. Inquiries of a general character corroborate the statements made in the returns received and show that the average of wages derived from our tables is not largely in excess of the general average. The wage question is one of the most difficult of social problems. "The line along which capital and labor touch is the wages system." This "touch" may be a source of irritation or mutual advantage and satisfaction according as wages represent a fair share of the joint product of work and capital, or are arbitrarily fixed at the dictation of selfishness and greed. Undoubtedly, the true theory of wages is formulated in what is known as the system of profit sharing. This system recognizes the *value* of labor as one of the factors in the work of production, Under the crude wage system,—if system it can be called,—"we ignore the plexus of reasons by which wages ought to be computed, and come to a rough working result by paying the laborer a dollar and a dollar and a half a day." That there are practical difficulties in the way of a change in the wage system no candid person will deny. That a change in certain lines of business is *possible* seems to have been demonstrated

by experiments made in Europe and in this country. The necessary conditions are *intelligence and organization*. There is no natural antagonism between capital and labor. They are partners in a common enterprise, and, as such, are mutually benefitted or injured according as the conduct of each towards the other is based on principles of right and justice, or the contrary. *Evolution*, though slow in its processes, is the only means adapted to American institutions by which labor can be lifted up to its rightful plane. The ballot, and not the bomb, is the instrument upon which it must rely for protection and correction of abuses.

The invention and multiplication of machinery have introduced many perplexing questions to the attention of modern political economy. The displacement of labor, especially of unskilled labor, over-production, etc., are some of the new and difficult questions demanding consideration.

Observation and reflection prove the truth of the doctrine of "low prices, high wages and small profits." The purchasing power of a dollar has been increased. If this double increase of wages is not manifested in increased savings of workingmen, it is not that our working people are extravagant but that they live better than formerly. "As the country advances in power of production, men ought and do grow in tastes, desires and needs." Whether we visit the home of the farmer and "well to-do" mechanic, the camp of the lumberman, or the cottage of the common laborer, we will find the Maine worker's "bill of fare" much better and more varied than formerly. In many respects we find improvement in the living of most classes of Maine workers. This improvement demands, as well as implies, better wages, and, when expenses and earnings are taken into account, Maine stands among the first States on the wage list.

Tables of Workingmen's Returns.

TABULATION OF

No. of returns.	Occupation.	Age.	Where born.	Present residence.	No. hours employed daily.
1	Blacksmith.....	44	Maine.....	Hurricane.....	10
2	".....	56	Ireland.....	".....	10
3	Barber.....	22	Maine.....	Springvale.....	13
4	".....	43	Canada.....	Bridgton.....	12
5	Boiler maker.....	45	Scotland.....	Cumberland Mills...	10
6	Carder, cotton.....	31	England.....	Biddeford.....	10
7	Card grinder, cotton.....	52	Maine.....	Waterville.....	10
8	Carpenter.....	42	".....	Bar Harbor.....	10
9	".....	38	England.....	Portland.....	10
10	".....	38	Canada.....	Livermore Falls....	10
11	".....	35	Maine.....	Calais.....	10
12	" foreman.....	40	".....	Lisbon Falls.....	10
13	Carriage trimmer.....	27	".....	Rockland.....	10
14	Clerk.....	30	Massachusetts.....	Waterville.....	14
15	Cooper.....	53	Maine.....	Rockland.....	14
16	".....	59	".....	Randolph.....	11
17	Doors, sash and blinds.....	24	".....	Gardiner.....	10
18	Edge tool maker.....	44	".....	Waldoboro'.....	12
19	Engineer, stationary.....	33	".....	Livermore.....	10
20	Harness maker.....	24	".....	Minot.....	10
21	Laborer.....	26	".....	Waterville.....	10
22	".....	45	Rhode Island.....	Gilbertville.....	10
23	".....	43	Maine.....	Norway.....	10
24	".....	35	".....	Rockland.....	10
25	".....	40	England.....	Gilbertville.....	10
26	".....	50	Ireland.....	Auburn.....	10
27	".....	41	Canada.....	Biddeford.....	10
28	".....	24	Maine.....	Randolph.....	10
29	".....	29	".....	Bangor.....	12
30	".....	65	Ireland.....	Biddeford.....	10
31	".....	52	".....	".....	12
32	Lime burner.....	34	Maine.....	Rockland.....	12
33	".....	56	".....	".....	12
34	Loom fixer.....	35	Canada.....	Biddeford.....	10
35	".....	29	Maine.....	Waterville.....	10
36	".....	36	England.....	Sabattus.....	10
37	Longshoreman.....	61	Sweden.....	Portland.....	10
38	".....	26	Maine.....	".....	-
39	".....	65	Scotland.....	".....	-
40	Machinist.....	33	Maine.....	Yarmouthville.....	10
41	".....	46	".....	Portland.....	10
42	Marble worker.....	37	".....	Richmond.....	10
43	Mason.....	31	".....	Bar Harbor.....	10
44	".....	32	Canada.....	Augusta.....	10
45	Mill hand.....	30	Maine.....	Auburn.....	10
46	Painter.....	33	-	South Paris.....	10
47	".....	50	Wales.....	Portland.....	10
48	".....	21	Maine.....	Frankfort.....	10
49	".....	28	New York.....	Fairfield.....	10
50	".....	41	Canada.....	Bar Harbor.....	10
51	Printer.....	24	Maine.....	Belfast.....	10
52	".....	53	Ireland.....	".....	10
53	Pulp maker.....	30	New Hampshire.....	Cumberland.....	10
54	".....	33	Maine.....	Livermore Falls....	12

WORKINGMEN'S RETURNS.

Wages per day.	Total earnings for year.	Days lost.			Earnings of all others in family.	Cost of living for year.	Owning homes.	Value of home.	Am't of Mortgage.
		From sickness.	Inability to get work.	Other causes.					
\$2 85	\$740	4	-	48	-	\$600	-	-	-
2 60	700	-	-	-	-	-	1	\$1500	-
1 50	-	50	100	-	\$200	250	-	-	-
1 50	-	-	-	-	96	-	-	-	-
2 17	610	35	-	-	275	-	-	-	-
1 17	275	12	-	36	-	275	-	-	-
1 50	408	-	-	40	-	-	-	-	-
1 75	420	-	-	52	500	920	1	400	-
2 50	730	-	-	-	-	500	-	-	-
1 50	390	6	-	44	-	390	1	400	-
1 50	300	-	75	25	-	250	1	700	-
3 00	400	-	156	-	-	300	1	1500	-
2 50	360	-	164	-	-	-	-	-	-
1 33	-	18	12	-	-	-	-	-	-
1 17	238	14	70	-	-	238	-	-	-
2 00	575	-	-	-	-	275	1	1500	\$600
1 75	-	-	-	5	-	300	1	2200	1500
2 00	600	-	-	6	-	250	1	600	-
2 00	600	12	-	-	-	600	-	-	-
1 50	-	18	-	6	85	364	-	-	-
1 10	340	3	-	-	50	390	1	300	-
1 25	300	-	-	25	-	200	1	400	-
1 25	300	32	-	-	50	350	-	-	-
2 00	450	-	91	-	-	350	-	-	-
1 50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1 50	-	4	204	-	-	-	1	900	-
1 50	-	-	42	-	-	480	-	-	-
1 00	150	14	50	21	-	-	-	-	-
2 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1 37	120	-	200	-	500	620	-	-	-
1 10	300	52	-	-	-	275	1	1500	-
2 00	288	-	160	-	15	288	1	600	-
2 00	400	-	120	-	75	350	1	1000	-
1 75	462	-	-	18	-	436	-	-	-
1 83	572	8	-	14	-	275	1	700	-
1 90	600	2	-	-	30	500	-	-	-
2 50	160	60	160	-	150	310	1	1600	-
8 65	900	-	104	104	-	900	-	-	-
-	300	-	-	-	-	300	1	1500	-
3 00	912	-	-	8	-	-	1	1200	-
2 50	540	6	-	6	-	540	-	-	-
1 50	315	36	-	-	-	300	-	-	-
3 00	675	-	-	20	-	675	1	500	-
2 50	603	-	4	78	-	420	-	-	-
1 50	480	6	-	-	-	380	1	800	-
-	583	6	40	3	-	408	-	-	-
2 00	390	90	-	30	50	432	-	-	-
1 75	320	-	78	-	-	250	-	-	-
2 25	500	-	-	-	-	350	-	-	-
2 00	425	-	104	-	75	500	-	-	-
1 00	380	12	4	1	-	213	-	-	-
2 00	624	-	-	-	458	1082	-	-	-
1 75	446	8	-	12	-	125	-	-	-
1 33	350	13	-	40	200	550	-	-	-

WORKINGMEN'S

No. of Return.	Occupation.	Age.	Where born.	Present residence.	No. hours employed daily.
55	Pulp maker	40	Maine	Cumberland	8
56	Quarryman	26	"	So. Deer Isle	10
57	Seaman	44	"	Stockton	-
58	"	37	"	Calais	-
59	Section hand, cotton	28	"	So. Berwick	10
60	Shoe clincher	17	"	Belfast	10
61	" cutter	33	Vermont	Auburn	10
62	"	34	England	Saccarappa	10
63	"	40	Maine	Norway	10
64	" finisher	23	"	Belfast	8
65	"	20	"	Auburn	10
66	" leveler	27	"	Belfast	10
67	" maker	55	"	Richmond	10
68	"	26	"	Augusta	10
69	"	33	"	Freeport	10
70	"	41	"	Springvale	10
71	"	33	"	Kennebunk	10
72	"	30	"	Belfast	10
73	"	17	"	Lewiston	10
74	"	32	"	"	10
75	"	34	"	Auburn	-
76	"	48	Canada	Waterville	12
77	" nail sticker	19	Maine	Belfast	10
78	" paster	21	"	Auburn	12
79	"	22	"	"	12
80	" treer	25	"	Belfast	9
81	" vumper	26	"	Portland	10
82	"	37	"	Auburn	10
83	Spinner, jack	44	"	So. Berwick	10
84	"	36	"	"	10
85	" mule	28	New Hampshire	Springvale	10
86	"	36	Maine	So. Berwick	10
87	" woolen	60	England	Sabattus	10
88	Stableman	53	"	Calais	16
89	Stone cutter	25	Maine	Belfast	10
90	"	33	"	Waldoboro'	10
91	"	39	Ireland	Rockland	10
92	"	41	"	Hurricane	10
93	"	40	"	"	10
94	"	45	Maine	Hallowell	10
95	"	24	"	Vinalhaven	10
96	"	36	Canada	"	10
97	" sup't	43	Ireland	Hurricane	10
98	Sardine sealer	24	Massachusetts	Eastport	-
99	Tape dresser	21	Vermont	Lewiston	10
100	Tinsmith	34	Germany	Eastport	8
101	Twister, gingham mill	31	New York	Saccarappa	10
102	Weaver, cotton	29	Canada	Augusta	10
103	"	28	Maine	"	11
104	"	25	Canada	Biddeford	10
105	" woolen	34	England	Welchville	10
106	"	37	Maine	Dover	10
107	Web drawing	35	"	Lewiston	10
108	Wool sorter	68	Ireland	Sabattus	10

RETURNS—Continued.

Wages per day.	Total earnings for year.	Days lost.			Earnings of all others in family.	Cost of living for year.	Owning home.	Value of home.	Am't of mortgage.
		From sickness.	Inability to get work.	Other causes.					
\$1 75	\$550	-	-	-	-	\$400	1	\$2500	-
1 65	335	-	109	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	200	-	50	-	\$50	250	-	-	-
-	550	-	90	-	-	400	1	1000	-
1 35	291	-	-	78	-	291	1	600	-
75	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 17	590	-	-	22	-	300	1	1500	-
2 50	528	-	-	72	-	486	-	-	-
1 25	340	-	-	55	50	200	-	-	-
1 00	300	-	-	-	200	-	-	-	-
1 50	350	12	-	28	-	250	-	-	-
2 00	-	-	-	156	-	450	-	-	-
1 33	352	-	30	-	720	500	1	1000	\$500
1 25	138	11	30	35	-	-	-	-	-
3 00	625	-	52	18	-	-	-	-	-
2 00	600	-	-	-	-	400	1	1200	-
1 50	-	-	12	-	25	-	-	-	-
1 35	-	-	-	25	-	300	1	1200	200
72	180	14	-	48	-	-	-	-	-
1 25	330	6	60	24	-	200	-	-	-
3 00	1000	-	-	-	-	-	1	6000	-
75	150	-	156	-	354	510	-	-	-
72	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 17	-	-	-	35	-	250	-	-	-
2 17	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	-
1 54	-	2	-	50	-	300	-	-	-
1 67	400	18	-	-	-	300	-	-	-
1 75	509	2	-	4	-	304	-	-	-
1 33	175	156	-	-	150	325	-	-	-
1 33	360	6	-	-	-	360	1	1200	-
1 75	452	4	-	20	-	384	-	-	-
1 42	400	18	-	18	-	400	1	400	-
1 25	350	-	25	-	-	350	1	1100	-
1 50	500	-	-	-	-	500	1	700	100
2 00	313	-	75	-	-	313	-	-	-
2 50	410	-	-	52	-	410	1	1200	-
2 50	-	-	-	75	-	-	1	1200	-
2 75	775	-	-	9	50	650	1	1500	-
2 75	800	-	-	10	-	600	1	200	-
2 50	360	26	-	24	-	360	-	-	-
-	555	-	36	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 75	463	-	55	85	-	463	1	700	-
4 38	1300	15	-	-	125	850	1	900	-
3 50	375	-	-	-	-	250	-	-	-
2 25	657	7	-	8	-	260	-	-	-
2 25	400	-	-	104	-	400	-	-	-
2 25	-	1	-	17	144	360	-	-	-
1 50	-	40	-	20	-	-	-	-	-
1 65	480	12	-	12	-	208	1	1500	800
1 30	-	12	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
-	270	46	-	24	84	311	-	-	-
1 25	-	-	14	25	-	400	1	1800	-
67	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1 25	300	-	30	-	-	300	-	-	-

WORKINGMEN'S

No. of Return.	Occupation.	Rate of interest on mortgage.	Rooms rented.	Monthly rent.	No. in family.	No. working for wages.	Are you expected to trade at company store?	Are prices higher than at other stores?	How often paid.
1	Blacksmith.....	-	-	\$6 25	4	3	Yes.	No.	Fortnightly.
2	".....	-	-	-	2	1	"	"	"
3	Barber.....	-	-	-	2	2	No.	-	Weekly....
4	".....	-	8	9 25	7	2	"	-	Fortnightly.
5	Boiler maker.....	-	6	5 83	7	2	"	-	Weekly.....
6	Carder, cotton.....	-	-	-	1	1	"	-	Fortnightly.
7	Card grinder, cotton..	-	-	12 50	7	2	"	-	"
8	Carpenter.....	-	-	-	5	3	"	-	"
9	".....	-	5	12 00	2	1	"	-	On call.....
10	".....	-	-	-	8	1	"	-	Monthly....
11	".....	-	-	-	2	1	"	-	Weekly.....
12	" foreman.....	-	-	-	5	1	"	-	"
13	Carriage trimmer.....	-	-	-	-	-	"	-	"
14	Clerk.....	-	4	5 00	5	1	"	-	"
15	Cooper.....	-	-	-	1	1	"	-	"
16	".....	.06	-	-	3	1	"	-	Twice a year.
17	Doors, sash and blinds,	.06	-	-	2	1	"	-	Weekly.....
18	Edge tool maker.....	-	-	-	3	1	"	-	Irregular....
19	Engineer, stationary..	-	4	4 00	3	1	"	-	Weekly.....
20	Harness maker.....	-	5	10 50	3	2	"	-	"
21	Laborer.....	-	-	-	8	2	"	-	Fortnightly.
22	".....	-	-	-	3	1	"	-	"
23	".....	-	5	10 00	7	4	"	-	Weekly.....
24	".....	-	-	-	3	1	Yes.	Yes.	"
25	".....	-	5	5 00	6	1	No.	-	Fortnightly.
26	".....	-	-	-	2	1	"	-	Weekly.....
27	".....	-	-	4 00	8	2	"	-	"
28	".....	-	-	-	1	1	Yes.	No.	"
29	".....	-	7	7 50	4	1	No.	-	"
30	".....	-	4	5 00	5	4	"	-	Fortnightly.
31	".....	-	-	-	2	1	"	-	"
32	Lime burner.....	-	-	-	7	2	Yes.	Yes.	Weekly.....
33	".....	-	-	-	6	2	"	"	"
34	Loom fixer.....	-	6	6 00	6	1	No.	-	Fortnightly.
35	".....	-	-	-	3	1	"	-	"
36	".....	-	7	8 00	6	2	"	-	"
37	Longshoreman.....	-	-	-	3	2	"	-	By the job...
38	".....	-	-	-	4	1	"	-	"
39	".....	-	-	-	2	1	"	-	On call.....
40	Machinist.....	-	-	-	1	1	"	-	Fortnightly.
41	".....	-	6	16 00	3	1	"	-	Weekly.....
42	Marble worker.....	-	6	6 00	4	1	"	-	Irregular....
43	Mason.....	-	-	-	4	1	"	-	On call.....
44	".....	-	4	7 00	2	1	"	-	Monthly.....
45	Mill hand.....	-	-	-	5	1	"	-	Fortnightly..
46	Painter.....	-	5	7 00	4	1	"	-	Monthly....
47	".....	-	-	10 00	6	3	"	-	"
48	".....	-	-	-	1	1	"	-	By the job...
49	".....	-	-	5 00	3	1	"	-	Irregular....
50	".....	-	4	10 00	8	2	"	-	"
51	Printer.....	-	3	3 00	2	1	"	-	Weekly.....
52	".....	-	8	10 50	9	4	"	-	"
53	Pulp maker.....	-	5	5 00	4	1	"	-	Fortnightly..
54	".....	-	6	6 50	7	2	"	-	Monthly.....

RETURNS—Continued.

Could you live cheaper if paid offener?	Are any wages withheld under certain rules?	Do you belong to any labor organization?	Do you belong to any beneficiary association?	Do you receive weekly benefit in case of sickness?	Have you a savings bank account?	Have you accumulated any savings during former years?	Have you accumulated any savings during past year?	Have you run into debt during past year?
No.	No.	Yes.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
"	"	No.	"	"	"	Yes.	Yes.	"
"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	"	No.	"
"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	"	"	"
"	No	"	"	"	"	No.	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	Yes.
"	"	No.	"	No.	"	"	"	"
Yes.	"	Yes.	No.	"	"	"	"	No.
No.	"	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	"
Yes.	Yes.	"	No.	"	No.	"	No.	"
No.	No.	"	No.	No.	"	"	"	"
"	"	Yes.	Yes.	"	"	"	"	"
"	"	"	"	Yes.	"	No.	"	"
"	"	No.	No.	No.	"	Yes.	"	Yes.
"	"	Yes.	"	"	"	No.	"	No.
Yes.	"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	"	"
No.	"	"	Yes.	"	"	"	Yes.	"
"	"	No.	No.	"	Yes.	"	"	"
"	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	No.	"
"	"	"	No.	"	"	Yes.	Yes.	"
"	"	"	"	No.	"	No.	No.	"
Yes.	"	"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	"
No.	"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	No.	"
"	"	No.	"	"	"	"	"	"
Yes.	"	Yes.	"	"	"	No.	"	"
No.	"	No.	"	"	"	Yes.	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	"	Yes.	"
"	"	"	"	"	No.	No.	No.	"
"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	"
Yes.	"	Yes.	"	"	No.	"	No.	"
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	"
"	"	"	"	"	"	No.	No.	Yes.
No.	Yes.	"	"	"	"	Yes.	"	"
"	No.	"	Yes.	"	"	"	Yes.	No.
"	"	"	"	Yes.	"	"	No.	"
"	"	"	"	No.	Yes.	Yes.	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
"	"	No.	No.	"	"	"	Yes.	"
"	"	Yes.	"	"	No.	"	No.	"
Yes.	"	"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	"
No.	"	"	Yes.	Yes.	"	No.	No.	"
Yes.	"	"	No.	No.	"	Yes.	Yes.	"
"	Yes.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
"	"	"	Yes.	Yes.	"	"	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	No.	Yes.
No.	No.	"	No.	No.	Yes.	No.	Yes.	No.
Yes.	"	"	"	"	No.	Yes.	No.	Yes.
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
No.	"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	"	No.	"	No.
"	Yes.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
Yes.	"	"	"	"	"	Yes.	"	Yes.

WORKINGMEN'S

No. of Returns.	Occupation.	Rate of interest on mortgage.	Rooms rented.	Monthly rent.	No in family.	No. working for wages.	Are you expected to trade at company store?	Are prices higher than at other stores?	How often paid.
55	Pulp maker.....	-	-	-	2	1	No.	-	Weekly.....
56	Quarryman.....	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Irregular....
57	Seaman.....	-	-	-	4	2	"	-	Weekly.....
58	".....	-	-	-	3	1	"	-	Irregular....
59	Section hand, cotton..	-	-	-	2	1	"	-	Fortnightly..
60	Shoe clincher.....	-	-	-	6	2	"	-	Weekly.....
61	" cutter.....	-	-	-	2	1	"	-	".....
62	" ".....	-	7	\$12 50	5	1	"	-	Fortnightly..
63	" ".....	-	4	4 00	3	2	"	-	Weekly.....
64	" finisher.....	-	-	-	7	2	"	-	".....
65	" ".....	-	-	-	1	1	"	-	".....
66	" leveler.....	-	-	-	-	-	"	-	".....
67	" maker.....	.07	-	-	5	4	"	-	".....
68	" ".....	-	6	8 00	4	1	"	-	".....
69	" ".....	-	6	10 00	2	1	"	-	".....
70	" ".....	-	-	-	2	1	"	-	Monthly.....
71	" ".....	-	4	4 00	3	1	"	-	Weekly.....
72	" ".....	.05	-	-	5	1	"	-	".....
73	" ".....	-	-	-	-	-	"	-	".....
74	" ".....	-	1	5 00	1	1	"	-	".....
75	" ".....	-	-	-	4	1	"	-	".....
76	" ".....	-	3	3 00	8	4	"	-	On call.....
77	" nail sticker....	-	-	-	-	-	"	-	Weekly.....
78	" paster.....	-	-	-	1	1	"	-	".....
79	" ".....	-	1	3 00	-	-	"	-	".....
80	" treer.....	-	-	-	3	1	"	-	".....
81	" vumper.....	-	-	-	1	1	"	-	".....
82	" ".....	-	4	5 00	3	1	"	-	".....
83	Spinner, jack.....	-	5	6 50	3	2	"	-	Fortnightly..
84	" ".....	-	-	-	6	1	"	-	".....
85	" mule.....	-	5	5 00	5	1	"	-	".....
86	" ".....	-	-	-	8	1	"	-	".....
87	" woolen.....	-	-	-	3	1	"	-	".....
88	Stableman.....	.06	-	-	3	1	"	-	Weekly.....
89	Stone cutter.....	-	2	1 00	2	1	"	-	Monthly.....
90	" ".....	-	-	-	7	1	"	-	Weekly.....
91	" ".....	-	-	-	6	-	"	-	Monthly.....
92	" ".....	-	-	-	8	2	Yes.	No.	Fortnightly..
93	" ".....	-	-	-	7	1	"	Yes	".....
94	" ".....	-	6	6 00	4	1	No.	-	".....
95	" ".....	-	5	4 00	2	1	"	-	".....
96	" ".....	-	-	-	2	1	"	-	".....
97	" " Supt.....	-	-	-	9	2	"	-	".....
98	Sardine sealer.....	-	-	-	-	-	"	-	Weekly.....
99	Tape dresser.....	-	1	2 50	5	1	"	-	Fortnightly..
100	Tinsmith.....	-	4	6 00	3	1	"	-	Weekly.....
101	Twister, gingham mill	-	7	12 50	4	3	"	-	Fortnightly..
102	Weaver, cotton.....	-	-	-	-	-	"	-	".....
103	" ".....	.07	-	-	3	1	"	-	".....
104	" ".....	-	6	7 00	6	1	"	-	".....
105	" ".....	-	3	3 50	3	1	"	-	".....
106	" ".....	-	-	-	5	3	"	-	".....
107	Web drawing.....	-	-	-	3	3	"	-	".....
108	Wool sorter.....	-	3	5 00	2	1	"	-	".....

RECAPIT

Occupations	Number of returns.	Average age.	Native.	Foreign.	Average hours working per day.	Average daily wages.	Average annual earnings.	Average number of days lost.
Blacksmiths.....	2	50	1	1	10	\$2 73	\$720 00	26
Barbers.....	2	33	1	1	12 ¹ / ₂	1 50	-	75
Boiler makers.....	1	45	-	1	10	2 17	610 00	35
Corders, cotton mill.....	1	31	-	1	10	1 17	275 00	45
Card grinders, cotton mill.....	1	52	1	-	10	1 50	408 00	40
Carpenters.....	5	39	3	2	10	2 05	448 00	71
Carriage trimmers.....	1	27	1	-	10	2 50	360 00	164
Clerks.....	1	30	1	-	14	1 33	-	30
Coopers.....	2	56	2	-	12 ¹ / ₂	1 59	406 50	42
Door, sash and blind maker.....	1	24	1	-	10	1 75	-	5
Engineers, stationary.....	1	33	1	-	10	2 00	600 00	12
Edge tool makers.....	1	44	1	-	12	2 00	600 00	6
Harness makers.....	1	24	1	-	10	1 50	-	24
Laborers.....	11	41	6	5	10 ¹ / ₂	1 41	280 00	67
Limeburners.....	2	45	2	-	12	2 00	344 00	140
Loom fixers.....	3	33	1	2	10	1 83	544 67	24
Longshoremen.....	3	51	1	2	10	5 57	453 53	214
Machinists.....	2	40	2	-	10	2 75	726 00	10
Marble workers.....	1	37	1	-	10	1 50	315 00	36
Masons.....	2	32	1	1	10	2 75	639 00	51
Mill hands.....	1	36	1	-	10	1 50	480 00	6
Painters.....	5	35	3	2	10	2 00	443 60	70
Printers.....	2	39	1	1	10	1 50	502 00	9
Pulp makers.....	3	34	3	-	10	1 61	448 67	24
Quarrymen.....	1	26	1	-	10	1 65	335 00	109
Seamen.....	2	40	2	-	-	-	375 00	70
Section hand, cotton mill.....	1	28	1	-	10	1 35	291 00	78
Shoemakers.....	23	30	21	2	10	1 62	419 47	43
Spinners.....	5	41	4	1	10	1 42	347 40	49
Stablemen.....	1	53	-	1	16	1 50	500 00	-
Stone-cutters.....	9	36	4	5	10	2 77	622 00	51
Sardine sealer.....	1	24	1	-	-	3 50	375 00	-
Tape dresser.....	1	21	1	-	10	2 25	657 00	15
Tinsmiths.....	1	34	-	1	8	2 25	400 00	104
Twisters, gingham.....	1	31	1	-	10	2 25	-	18
Weavers.....	5	31	2	3	10 ¹ / ₂	1 43	375 00	41
Web drawer.....	1	35	1	-	10	67	-	-
Wool sorter.....	1	68	-	1	10	1 25	300 00	30

ULATION.

Number assisted by their families.	Average yearly earnings by other members of family.	Average cost of living.	Number owning homes.	Total value of homes.	Number of homes mortgaged.	Total amount of mortgage.	Number renting	Average rental per month.	Average number in family.	Payment of wages.			
										Weekly.	Fortnightly.	Monthly.	Irregular.
-	\$ -	\$600 00	1	\$1,500 00	-	-	1	6 25	3	-	2	-	-
2	148 00	250 00	-	-	-	-	1	9 25	4½	1	1	-	-
1	275 00	-	-	-	-	-	1	5 83	7	-	-	-	-
-	-	275 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	12 50	7	-	1	-	-
1	500 00	472 00	4	3,000 00	-	-	1	12 00	4½	2	1	1	1
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
-	-	256 50	1	1,500 00	1	600	1	5 00	5	1	-	-	-
-	-	300 00	1	2,200 00	1	1,500	-	-	2	1	-	-	1
-	-	600 00	-	-	-	-	1	4 00	3	1	-	-	-
-	-	250 00	1	600 00	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	1
1	85 00	364 00	-	-	-	-	1	10 50	3	1	-	-	-
3	200 00	380 71	4	3,100 00	-	-	5	6 30	4½	6	5	-	-
2	45 00	319 00	2	1,600 00	-	-	-	-	6½	2	-	-	-
1	30 00	403 67	1	700 00	-	-	2	7 00	5	-	3	-	-
1	150 00	503 33	2	3,100 00	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	3
-	-	540 00	1	1,200 00	-	-	1	16 00	2	1	1	-	-
-	-	300 00	-	-	-	-	1	6 00	4	-	-	-	1
-	-	547 50	1	500 00	-	-	1	7 00	3	-	-	1	1
-	-	380 00	1	800 00	-	-	-	-	5	-	1	-	-
2	62 50	388 00	-	-	-	-	4	8 00	4½	-	-	2	3
1	458 00	647 50	-	-	-	-	2	6 75	5½	2	-	-	-
1	200 00	358 33	1	2,500 00	-	-	2	5 75	4½	1	1	1	-
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
1	50 00	325 00	1	1,000 00	-	-	-	-	3½	1	-	-	1
-	-	291 00	1	600 00	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	-	-
5	269 80	339 28	5	10,900 00	2	700	9	6 06	3½	20	1	1	1
-	-	363 80	3	2,700 00	-	-	2	5 75	5	-	5	-	-
-	-	500 00	1	700 00	1	100	-	-	3	1	-	-	-
2	87 50	520 86	6	5,700 00	-	-	3	3 67	5½	1	6	2	-
-	-	250 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
-	-	260 00	-	-	-	-	1	2 50	5	-	1	-	-
-	-	400 00	-	-	-	-	1	6 00	3	1	-	-	-
1	144 00	360 00	-	-	-	-	1	12 50	4	-	1	-	-
1	84 00	306 33	2	3,300 00	1	800	2	5 25	4½	-	5	-	-
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	1	-	-
-	-	300 00	-	-	-	-	1	5 00	2	-	1	-	-

RECAPITULATION—Concluded.

Occupations.	Number belonging to labor organizations.	Number belonging to beneficiary organizations.	Number having savings bank account.	Number accumulating savings in former years.	Number accumulating savings during past year.	Number running in debt during past year.
Blacksmiths	1	-	-	1	1	-
Barbers	1	1	1	2	-	-
Boiler makers.....	1	1	-	-	-	-
Carders, cotton mill .	1	1	-	-	-	1
Card grinders, cotton mill.....	-	1	-	-	-	1
Carpenters.....	4	3	1	4	1	1
Carriage trimmers	1	1	-	-	-	-
Clerks.....	-	-	-	1	-	1
Coopers	2	-	-	1	-	-
Door, sash and blind maker	1	1	-	1	1	-
Engineers, stationary	1	1	-	-	1	-
Edge tool makers	-	-	1	1	1	-
Harness makers.....	1	1	-	-	-	-
Laborers	1	-	2	6	4	-
Limeburners	2	-	-	2	1	-
Loom fixers	3	1	-	2	1	2
Longshoremen.....	3	3	1	2	-	-
Machinists	1	-	1	2	1	-
Marbleworkers.....	1	-	-	1	1	-
Masons	2	1	-	1	1	-
Mill hands	1	-	-	1	1	-
Painters	5	2	1	3	2	3
Printers.....	2	-	-	1	-	-
Pulp makers	2	-	1	2	-	1
Quarrymen	1	-	-	-	-	-
Seamen	-	-	1	1	1	1
Section hand, cotton mill.....	1	-	-	1	-	-
Shoemakers	14	4	9	14	11	4
Spinners	2	2	1	4	1	2
Stablemen.....	-	-	-	1	-	-
Stone-cutters.....	6	5	2	5	3	1
Sardine sealer	1	-	1	1	1	-
Tape dresser.....	1	-	1	1	1	-
Tinsmiths	1	-	-	-	-	-
Twisters, gingham	1	1	-	1	1	-
Weavers	4	2	1	3	3	1
Web drawer	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wool sorter	1	-	1	1	-	-

ANALYSIS.

No. of reports	108
No. native born	75
No. foreign born.....	33
No. assisted by their families	26
No. owning homes	40
No. of homes mortgaged	6
No. renting	46
No. paid weekly.....	47
No. paid fortnightly.....	39
No. paid monthly.....	8
No. paid irregularly	14
No. belonging to labor organizations.....	60
No. belonging to beneficiary organizations	32
No. having savings bank accounts	26
No. accumulating savings in former years.....	67
No. accumulating savings during past year.....	39
No. running in debt during past year.....	19

AVERAGES.

Age of persons reporting	36
Hours employed daily.....	10½
Daily wages.....	\$1 93
Annual earnings.....	\$417 61
No. of days lost	54
Yearly earnings by other members of family	\$177 35
Cost of living	\$391 43
Rental per month.....	\$6 75
No. of persons to family.....	4½
Earnings over expenses.....	\$26 18

TOTALS.

Value of homes owned	\$47,200 00
Amount of mortgages.....	\$3,700 00

*Rates of Wages derived from special returns obtained from 20 towns
in different sections of the State.*

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS—AVERAGES.

Agricultural laborers, per month, \$18.37 and board; in haying season, \$1.75 per day and board.

Barbers	1 50	"
Blacksmiths	1 75	"
Boiler makers ..	2 15	"
Cabinet makers..	1 75	"
Carpenters (house)	1 75	"
Carriage makers.....	1 50	"
Coopers.....	1 50	"
Engineers (stationary)	1 75	"
" (locomotive).....	2 43	"
Harness makers.....	1 60	"
Laborers (common)	1 40	"
Masons	2 75	"
Machinists.....	2 50	"
Millers.....	1 65	"
Painters (house)	2 00	"
Plumbers.....	3 50	"
Printers (male)	1 62½	"
" (female).....	1 00	"
Shoemakers	1 62½	"
Teamsters.....	1 60	"
Teachers.....	1 41	"
Wheelwrights.....	2 00	"

SPECIAL OCCUPATIONS.

Clothing (men).....	\$1 50 per day.
" (women).....	1 00 "
Cutters.....	2 50 "
Dressmakers.....	1 00 "

COTTON MILLS.

Overseers	\$3 50 per day.
Second hands	2 00 “
Section hands	1 85 “
Card grinders.....	1 50 “
Oilers	90 “
Picker hands.....	94 “
Card strippers.....	85 “
Slubber tenders	1 00 “
Intermediate tenders	1 03 “
Fly frame tenders.....	1 00 “

Frame spinners.....	71	per day.
Doffers.....	46	"
Sweeps and cleaners.....	60	"
Mule spinners.....	1 65	"
Back boys.....	49	"
Slasher tenders.....	1 60	"
Spoolers.....	83	"
Web drawers.....	90	"
Weavers.....	1 13	"
Cloth-room folders.....	1 33	"
" balers.....	1 05	"
" trimmers.....	78	"
Bag finishing balers.....	1 33	"
" turners.....	1 20	"
" hemmers.....	1 15	"
Machinists.....	1 56	"
Yard hands.....	1 15	"
Watchmen.....	1 35	"
Firemen.....	1 75	"

GRANITE WORKS.

Stone cutters.....	\$2 50	per day.
Quarrymen.....	1 75	"
Sharpeners.....	2 25	"
Polishers.....	1 75	"
Teamsters.....	1 75	"

LIME WORKS.

Kilnmen.....	\$2 00	per day.
Quarrymen.....	2 25	"
Teamsters.....	1 75	"

LUMBER.

Choppers.....	\$20	a month and board.
Swampers.....	18	" "
Teamsters.....	20	" "
Cooks.....	28	" "
Drivers.....	2 00	a day "

SAW MILLS. (LONG LUMBER.)

Edgemen.....	\$1 87	per day.
Sawyers.....	1 87	"
Filers.....	2 50	"
Haulers.....	1 40	"
Trimmers.....	1 25	"
Common hands.....	1 25	"

SAW MILLS. (SHORT LUMBER.)

Lathmen	\$1 25 per day.
Shingle sawyers.....	1 75 "
Bunchmen.....	1 80 "
Common hands.....	1 25 "

PAPER MILLS.

Machine men	\$3 00 per day.
Girls.....	85 "
Other workmen, from	\$1 50 to 2 75 "

PULP MILLS.

Hands in wood room.....	\$1 23 per day.
" tower.....	1 33 "
" wet machine	1 20 "
Grinders.....	1 25 "
Machinists.....	1 75 "

SARDINE FACTORIES.

Cutters.....	20 cents an hour.
Salters	15 " "
Flakers.....	15 " "
Packers.....	15 " "
Can makers and sealers.....	\$2 12 per day.

SHIP BUILDING.

Carpenters.....	\$2 00 per day.
Painters	2 00 "
Riggers	2 50 "
Sail makers.....	2 50 "
Common hands.....	1 40 "
Caulkers.....	2 50 "

WOOLEN MILLS.

Scourers.....	\$1 25 per day.
Pickers.....	1 25 "
Carders (men).....	1 25 "
" (women)	80 "
" (boys).....	85 "
Spinners	1 40 "
Spoolers (men).....	1 25 "
" (women).....	83 "
Weavers.....	1 40 "
Fullers.....	1 40 "
Dyers.....	1 25 "
Finishers (men).....	1 35 "
" (women).....	1 00 "

COMPARATIVE WAGES—EUROPE AND U. S.—(MAINE.)

I—GENERAL TRADES.

Comparison of the average weekly wages paid in the general trades in Europe with those paid in similar trades in Maine.

Occupations.	England and Wales.	Germany.	France.	Belgium.	Austria.	Holland.	Switzerland.	Russia.	Maine.
BUILDING TRADES.									
Bricklayers	\$7 56	\$4 21	\$5 74	\$4 56	\$3 55	\$4 80	\$5 21	\$4 32	\$16 50
Masons	7 68	4 07	5 33	5 22	3 73	4 80	5 27	6 72	16 50
Plasterers	7 80	4 43	6 34	4 66	4 01	4 00	5 03	4 61	16 50
Carpenters	7 66	4 11	6 20	4 07	5 10	4 00	4 74	3 30	10 50
OTHER TRADES.									
Blacksmiths	7 37	4 00	5 81	5 38	3 18	4 80	5 20	3 72	10 50
Cabinetmakers	7 68	4 25	6 14	5 66	4 40	4 80	5 59	5 76	10 50
Cigarmakers	6 07	3 63	4 69	6 28	3 00	4 00	3 30	6 80	9 50
Coopers	7 50	3 97	5 58	5 17	3 64	4 80	4 78	3 66	9 00
Laborers	4 70	3 11	3 93	3 77	3 00	3 20	3 61	2 88	8 40
Printers	7 17	-	6 64	5 94	3 85	6 00	5 93	5 76	9 00
*Teachers public schools. }	12 00	} ..	7 00	7 74	8 47	6 40	-	9 60	7 05
	7 70								
Saddle and harnessmakers. .	6 63	3 69	5 70	5 51	3 80	-	5 20	5 10	12 00
Shoemakers	-	2 95	2 90	-	-	4 00	-	-	9 75
Tinsmiths	6 56	3 55	5 46	4 40	3 70	4 00	4 40	2 96	13 50
Machinists	-	4 60	-	-	-	-	-	-	15 00
Painters	-	4 82	-	-	-	-	-	-	12 00

* This is the average of both males and females.

In this connection, the following statistics upon the wages of farm laborers in foreign countries will be found of interest. They are taken from the U. S. Consular Reports :

AGRICULTURAL WAGES.

Wages paid per week to agricultural laborers in the west of England, with or without board and lodging.

Description of Employment.	Average wages.
GLOUCESTERSHIRE.	
In summer, without food and lodging.....	\$3 65
In winter, without food and lodging.....	2 91
Females, ordinary.....	1 14
Females, harvest hands.....	2 13
SOMERSETSHIRE.	
Males, food sometimes supplied at harvest.....	3 65
Women, field labor, cider and sometimes food.....	1 46
WILTSHIRE AND DORSETSHIRE.	
Males in summer.....	2 91
Males in winter.....	2 67
Women field laborers.....	1 46

The following is a description of the appearance of agricultural laborers, as seen by the Consul at a "hiring fair," at Chippen Sodbury, Gloucestershire :

"Worn out, their years gone, their muscles stiff, they are useless to the employer, and cannot get a place. They are literally turned out to die, and their only refuge is the workhouse; for it is impossible for them to save anything for their old age. When a pair of boots costs half a week's wages, a Sunday suit three weeks' wages, a pound of the cheapest meat two and a half hours' work, how could they save?"

*Agricultural wages in the Hull district, county of York, and
Liverpool and London districts.*

Description of Employment.	Average wages.
HULL DISTRICT.	
Farm laborers, with board and lodging, per year	\$29 00 to \$72 00
Housemaids, with board and lodging, per year	58 00 to 67 00
Wagener, with board and lodging, per year	67 00 to 96 00
COUNTY OF YORK.	
Laborer:	
First man, with cottage, per week	4 06
Second man, no cottage, no board, per week	3 70
Foreman of farm, per year	120 00 to 160 00
Second man, with board and lodging, per year ..	82 00 to 97 00
Third plowman, with board and lodging, per year ..	68 00 to 78 00
Plowboy, with board and lodging, per year	48 00 to 68 00
Blacksmith, two pints of beer, per day	96
Joiner, two pints of beer, per day	96
Herdman, cottage, per week	4 06 to 4 40
LIVERPOOL DISTRICT.	
Teamster, with board, per year	73 00
Herd, with board, per year	68 00
Herdsmen, without board, per week	3 89
Laborer, without board, per week	4 01
Boys, without board, per week	1 70
LONDON DISTRICT.	
Laborers in Kent, without board, per week	4 13
Laborers in Middlesex, without board, per week ..	4 13
Laborers in Surrey, without board, per week	4 38
Laborers in Essex, without board, per week	3 65
Laborers in Hereford, without board, per week ..	3 89
GERMANY.	
ALSACE-LORRAINE.	
Farm laborers, with board and lodging, per year ..	67 30
Servant girls, with board and lodging, per year ..	30 00
Laborers, with board and lodging, per day	40
Laborers (during harvest) with board, per day	50
Laborers (during harvest) without board, per day ..	80
SAXONY.	
Male laborers, with board and lodging, per year ..	44 26
Female laborers, with board and lodging, per year ..	22 84
Male laborers:	
In summer, per day	40
In winter, per day	28
Female laborers:	
In summer, per day	20
In winter, per day	12

AGRICULTURAL WAGES IN GERMANY—Concluded.

Description of Employment.	Average wages.
GRAND DUCHY OF OLDENBURG.	
Plowman, with food, per day.....	65
Laborers, with food and rent free, per year.....	31 25
Laborers, with food, without rent, per year.....	54 75
Laborers, without board and lodging, per day.....	50
Harvesters, without board, per day.....	80
Harvesters, with board and lodging, per day.....	55
STUTT GART DISTRICT.	
Stable hands, with board, per year.....	57 12
Day laborers (male), with board, per week.....	1 90
Day laborers (female), with board, per week.....	1 43
Dairymen, with board, per week.....	1 90
Dairymaids, with board, per year.....	30 94
BARMEN DISTRICT.	
Gardeners, with board and lodging, per year.....	76 16
Coachmen, with board and lodging, per year.....	76 16
Farm hands (male), with board and lodging, per year.....	49 98
Farm hands (female), with board and lodging, per year.....	29 75
Day laborers, with board and lodging, per year.....	60 81
Carpenters, with board and lodging, per year.....	76 16
Blacksmiths, with board and lodging, per year.....	76 16
THURINGIA.	
Servants, with food and lodging, per year.....	14 00
Laborers, male (summer), with two meals, per day.....	20
Laborers, female (summer), with two meals, per day.....	14
CREFELD DISTRICT.	
First laborer, per week of 84 hours in winter and 87 hours in summer, with board and lodging.....	1 66
Second laborer, per week of 84 hours in winter and 87 hours in summer, with board and lodging.....	1 19
Third laborer, per week of 84 hours in winter and 87 hours in summer, with board and lodging.....	95
Herder (in charge of cattle), per week of 84 hours in winter and 87 hours in summer, with board and lodging.....	1 90
Transient laborers:	
Male, board without lodging, per week.....	3 14
Female, board without lodging, per week.....	2 32
Male, without board or lodging, per week.....	4 43
Female, without board or lodging, per week.....	3 32
SILESIA.	
Male laborers, with board and lodging, per week.....	1 45
Female laborers, with board and lodging, per week.....	1 07

AGRICULTURAL LABOR IN THE BERLIN DISTRICT.

The number of persons employed in agricultural labor in the consular district of Berlin is estimated at 450,000, and it can be safely said that fully one-half, if not two-thirds, thereof are women. The

able-bodied men, when not in the army, generally seek more remunerative employment than agricultural labor. The common farm laborers receive from 20 to 35 cents per day.

The following rates of wages of European laborers are derived from a speech by Senator Frye, delivered in Boston, October 19, 1887.

Italy—Farm laborers, from 15 to 18 cents a day.

Belgium—Skilled working-women in lace factory in Brussels, 20 cents a day. In cotton factory, women, 20 to 25 cents a day; men, from 40 to 60 cents a day; men in steel and iron manufactories, from 40 to 70 cents a day. In Belgium, women do the farm work at from 16 to 20 cents a day.

Germany—Women saw wood in the streets of Munich at 15 to 20 cents a day. In factories, men are paid an average of 50 cents a day; women 20 cents.

Ireland—Women work at farming at from 16 to 18 cents a day.

England—90,000 women are employed in factories at an average of not over \$60 a year; men in factories average from \$125 to \$135 a year.

Scotland—Laborers in iron works, from two shillings two pence to two shillings six pence a day. Coal miners, from \$5.59 to \$5.88 a week, boarding themselves. Iron miners, from \$5.34 to \$5.59 week.

WAGES OF

Name of Road.	Miles of road in Maine.	Average number em- ployed from June 30, 1886, to July 1, 1887.	Total number em- ployed at date of return.	Number of clerks.	Average monthly sal- aries.
Maine Central Railroad.....	535.00	1,800	2,000	48	\$35 00
Boston and Maine Railroad.....	102.18	469	469	11	50 00
Bangor and Piscataquis Railroad.....	95.40	120	178	1	25 00
Atlantic and St. Lawrence Railway.....	82.55	350	366	24	42 92
Portland and Ogdensburg Railway.....	50.81	333	339	10	60 90
Knox and Lincoln Railroad.....	50.00	120	105	-	-
Portland and Rochester Railroad.....	49.00	153	170	5	50 00
Aroostook River Railway.....	30.00	54	54	-	-
Rumford Falls and Buckfield Railroad.....	26.77	40	50	-	-
Bangor and Katahdin Iron Works Railway.....	19.00	20	20	-	20 00
Sandy River Railroad.....	18.00	30	25	-	-
Franklin and Megantic Railroad.....	17.00	35	26	-	-
St. Croix and Penobscot Railroad.....	16.25	28	35	-	-
Bridgton and Saco River Railway.....	16.00	28	28	1	25 00
Houlton Branch Railroad.....	3.00	17	17	-	-
Green Mountain Railway.....	1.50	8	8	1	52 00

RAILROAD EMPLOYES.

Number of train dis- patchers.	Average monthly sal- aries.	Number of freight agents.	Average monthly sal- aries.	Number of ticket agents.	Average monthly sal- aries.	Number of locomotive engineers.	Average monthly sal- aries.	Number of locomotive firemen.	Average monthly sal- aries.	Number of passenger conductors.	Average monthly sal- aries.	Number of freight conductors.	Average monthly sal- aries.
4	\$100 00	120	\$45 00	8	\$45 00	90	\$75 70	90	\$42 50	27	\$72 50	32	\$70 00
-	-	3	75 00	4	60 00	6	80 34	6	52 00	2	78 00	5	78 00
-	-	-	-	-	-	6	70 00	6	42 00	2	65 00	2	65 00
4	67 10	24	49 32	-	-	23	71 70	17	42 78	6	62 40	6	67 76
1	60 00	15	34 00	-	-	15	73 66	15	45 00	4	65 00	7	65 00
-	-	11	-	9	-	4	54 00	4	40 00	2	58 50	1	58 50
1	65 00	1	60 00	11	39 00	9	71 50	8	45 50	3	64 00	2	60 00
-	-	3	55 00	3	30 00	5	60 00	5	39 00	2	60 00	3	52 00
-	-	8	23 58	-	-	3	50 00	3	37 80	1	62 50	1	40 00
-	-	-	-	-	-	1	70 00	1	40 00	1	65 00	-	-
-	-	-	30 00	-	25 00	-	45 50	-	31 20	-	45 50	-	45 50
-	-	4	19 00	-	-	2	45 50	2	29 90	1	52 00	-	-
-	-	4	40 00	-	-	3	45 50	3	32 50	2	45 50	-	-
-	-	1	83 33	-	-	2	60 00	2	39 00	2	45 00	-	-
-	-	2	52 50	-	-	2	60 00	2	39 00	2	60 00	-	-
-	-	-	-	-	-	2	78 00	1	65 00	1	52 00	-	-

WAGES OF RAILROAD

Name of Road.	Number of brake-men.	Average monthly salaries.	Number of machinists in shops.	Average monthly salaries.	Number of watch-men.
Maine Central Railroad	110	\$42 50	40	\$61 75	12
Boston and Maine Railroad	15	52 00	2	52 00	24
Bangor and Piscataquis Railroad.....	6	41 60	4	50 00	4
Atlantic and St. Lawrence Railway.....	20	45 83	14	43 25	11
Portland and Ogdensburg Railway	18	39 22	15	58 57	6
Knox and Lincoln Railroad.....	5	40 00	4	48 91	3
Portland and Rochester Railroad.....	9	41 08	3	49 92	6
Aroostook River Railway.....	10	36 00	-	-	-
Rumford Falls and Buckfield Railroad.....	2	39 20	-	-	1
Bangor and Katahdin Iron Works Railway.....	1	40 00	-	-	1
Sandy River Railroad	-	35 10	-	65 00	-
Franklin and Megantic Railroad	1	26 00	1	33 80	1
St. Croix and Penobscot Railroad	3	33 80	4	56 95	2
Bridgton and Saco River Railway.....	2	39 00	1	65 00	1
Houlton Branch Railroad	4	36 00	-	-	-
Green Mountain Railway.....	1	52 00	-	-	1

ANALYSIS.

Number of miles of road in Maine reported.....	1112.46
Average number employed from June 30th, 1886, to July 1st, 1887.....	3,605
Total number employed at date of report.....	3,890
Average monthly salary of clerks.....	\$40 09
“ “ “ train dispatchers.....	73 02
“ “ “ freight agents.....	47 23
“ “ “ ticket agents.....	39 80
“ “ “ engineers.....	69 46
“ “ “ firemen.....	41 45
“ “ “ passenger conductors.....	59 56
“ “ “ freight conductors.....	60 17
“ “ “ brakemen.....	39 96
“ “ “ machinists.....	53 19
“ “ “ watchmen.....	37 16
“ “ “ section hands.....	33 79
“ “ “ telegraph operators.....	31 98

ACCIDENTS.

Number of passengers killed.....	2
“ “ injured.....	7
“ employes killed.....	16
“ “ injured.....	25
“ others killed.....	11
“ “ injured.....	13
Total number killed.....	29
“ “ injured... ..	45

COST OF LIVING.

Cost of food for one month, for an American family consisting of husband and wife, one son 18 years old, and one daughter 10 years old. The husband earns \$9 per week; the son, \$6 per week. Month of July, 1887. Place, Lewiston, Maine. Comparative cost in 1882 and 1877.

	July, 1887.	July, 1882.	July, 1877.
Fresh meats.....	\$2 90	\$3 34	\$3 34
Fruit and vegetables.....	3 84	3 84	3 84
Butter and eggs.....	96	96	96
Sugar.....	2 00	3 14	3 57
Tea.....	60	60	60
Lard.....	60	90	84
Cheese.....	47	47	47
Beans.....	32	32	40
Rice.....	18	18	18
Molasses.....	25	25	30
Oil.....	30	30	40
Soap.....	15	21	24
Flour.....	2 00	3 25	4 00
Sundries.....	1 00	1 10	1 20
	\$15 57	\$18 86	\$20 34

In 1887, \$1.00 would buy as much provisions as \$1.20 would buy in 1882, or \$1.30 in 1877, the difference being chiefly in the price of sugar and flour.

Cost of food for one month, for an English family in Lewiston, consisting of father and mother, one daughter 18 years old, and two boys, aged 6 and 14 years respectively. The father earns \$10 a week and the daughter, \$5 a week. Month of July, 1887. Comparative cost in 1882 and 1877.

	July, 1887.	July, 1882.	July, 1877.
Fresh meats.....	\$6 56	\$7 54	\$7 54
Fish	60	60	60
Sugar	3 00	4 71	5 36
Tea	1 20	1 20	1 20
Butter.....	1 75	1 75	1 75
Cheese.....	34	34	34
Eggs.....	78	78	78
Fruit and vegetables.....	3 84	3 84	3 84
Lard	40	60	56
Oil	30	30	40
Soap	78	1 00	1 00
Flour.....	2 00	3 25	4 00
Sundries.....	2 38	2 62	2 85
	<u>\$23 93</u>	<u>\$28 53</u>	<u>\$30 22</u>

So that \$1.00 would buy as much as \$1.20 in 1882, or \$1.26 in 1877.

Cost of food for one month, for a German family in Lewiston, consisting of father and mother, two sons aged 15 and 19 years, and one daughter 10 years of age. The father earns \$9 a week and the sons, \$4 and \$6 respectively. Month of July, 1887. Comparative cost in 1882 and 1877.

	July, 1887.	July, 1882.	July, 1877.
Fresh meats.....	\$4 86	\$5 59	\$5 59
Sausage	2 73	3 14	3 00
Butter.....	3 92	3 92	3 92
Eggs	2 16	2 16	2 16
Fruit and vegetables.....	3 86	3 86	3 86
Sugar	1 82	2 86	3 25
Coffee	1 12	80	1 20
Bread and cake	1 88	2 25	2 44
Soap	60	84	96
Rice	18	18	18
Cheese.....	25	25	25
Flour.....	2 50	4 00	5 00
Oil	60	60	80
Sundries.....	1 20	1 32	1 44
	<u>\$27 68</u>	<u>\$31 77</u>	<u>\$34 05</u>

Therefore \$1.00 would buy as much in 1887 as \$1.14 would buy in 1882, or \$1.23 in 1877, the difference being chiefly in the price of sugar and flour.

Cost of food for one month, for Canadian French family in Lewiston, consisting of father and mother, and three girls aged respectively 6, 9, and 13 years. The father earns \$8.50 a week as a cotton weaver. Month of July, 1887. Comparative cost in 1882 and 1877.

	July, 1887.	July, 1882.	July, 1877.
Fresh meat, (principally pork)	\$4 00	\$4 80	\$4 67
Salt pork	1 42	1 79	1 66
Fruit and vegetables.....	3 04	3 04	3 04
Butter	2 43	2 43	2 43
Eggs	1 37	1 37	1 37
Sugar	84	1 32	1 50
Tea	60	60	60
Cheese	34	34	34
Soap	55	77	88
Bread and cake.....	2 25	2 70	3 15
Lard	70	1 05	98
Oil	45	45	60
Sundries	1 12	1 20	1 25
	<u>\$19 11</u>	<u>\$21 86</u>	<u>\$22 47</u>

One dollar would buy as much food in 1887 as \$1.14 would buy in 1882, or \$1.17 in 1877.

Cost of food and clothing for a family in Rockland, consisting of father, mother, and four children of the ages of 5 years, 3 years, 2 years and 8 months, for six months, in 1887. Occupation, shoemaker.

Meats	\$25 35
Fish	11 50
Butter, cheese and eggs	9 83
Fuel	33 69
Flour	11 95
Vegetables and fruit	12 12
Sugar and molasses	5 80
Tea and coffee	3 05
Salt, spices and sundries	19 95
Clothing	33 33
	<hr/> \$166 57

Deducting the cost of clothing and fuel, leaves cost of provisions for six months, \$99.55. Reckoning the family as equivalent to three and one-half adults, the cost per adult is \$1.09 per week, or a little over 15½ cents per day.

Retail prices of provisions in Lewiston at different dates.

	Jan'y, 1865.	March, 1867.	July, 1872.	July, 1877.	July, 1882.	July, 1887.
Sugar	\$0 32	\$0 17	\$0 13	\$0 12	\$0 11	\$0 7½
Lard	28	16	13	14	15	10
Best Roasted Rio Coffee	-	-	30	30	20	28
Best Roasted Java Coffee	-	-	40	40	35	38
Salt Pork	27	15	13	14	15	10
Pea Beans	12	14	14	12	10	8
Kerosene Oil, best, gal.	1 10	65	35	20	20	15
Good Tea	1 40	1 10	80	60	60	60
Babbit's Soap	18	-	10	8	6	5
Rice	18	14	10	9	9	9
Cheese	25	24	20	16	16	15
Eng. Currants	28	20	15	10	10	8
Best Flour, average	15 00	16 00	12 00	11 00	9 00	5 50
Best Prints, yard	40	20	12½	8	8	7
Good yard wide Sheeting	48	20	14	10	8	7

Retail prices paid by a family for provisions and clothing during the year 1866-1876-1886. Place, Rockland.

	1866.	1876.	1886.
Meats.....	\$0 08 to \$0 25 per lb.	\$0 08 to \$0 25	\$0 08 to \$0 25
Fish.....	2 to 5 per lb.	4 to 5	5
Milk.....	8 to 10 per qt.	7	6
Butter.....	40 to 50 per lb.	30	25
Eggs.....	25 per dozen.	-	20
Flour.....	14 00 per barrel.	6 00	6 00
Sugar, best.....	25 per lb.	11	7
Molasses.....	95 per gal.	60	60
Tea, best.....	1 40 per lb.	90	60
Coffee.....	38 per lb.	35	30
Fuel (wood).....	8 00 per cord.	6 00	6 00
Oil.....	1 00 per gal.	-	15
Cottons.....	23 to 25 per yd.	-	8 to 12
Woolens.....	75 per yd.	-	42 to 50

Retail prices of provisions in Augusta, in the months of September and October, 1887.

Rice.....per lb.....	\$ 0 10 to \$ 0 00
Tea (mixed).....	60
Beef Steak.....	25 to 28
Germ Meal.....	15
Butter.....	25 to 28
Salt Pork.....	12
Cheese.....	16
Coffee (mixed).....	31
Lard.....	10 to 12
Corned Beef.....	10
Codfish.....	8 to 12
Fresh Mackerel.....	13
Ham.....	18 to 19
Dried Apple.....	10
Crackers.....	8
Granulated Sugar.....	7 1-7
Cream Tartar.....	50
Cassia.....	50
Nutmegs.....	1 00
Sausage.....	12
Starch.....	10
Vinegar.....per gal.....	25
Kerosene.....	14
Molasses.....	50
Potatoes.....per bu.....	90 to 1 15
Apples, cooking.....	80 to 1 00
Apples, eating.....	1 20 to 1 40
Cranberries.....per qt.....	10 to 12
Eggs.....per doz.....	22 to 26
Flour.....per bbl.....	5 50
Coal (stove).....per ton.....	6 50

Mr. Edward Atkinson, who has devoted much attention to the "food question," sums up the results of his investigation of the "average daily ration or cost and quantity of the daily supply of food materials of adults who are occupied in the work of every-day life as artisans, mechanics, factory-operatives and laborers." Mr. Atkinson states that this daily average in the New England factory boarding-houses, of which the occupants are mostly adult women, is 24 cents, and that a fair average cost of food for men and women engaged in the manufacturing and mechanical arts appears to be 25 cents, varying in some measure, in respect to the proportions, under different conditions.

Meat (including poultry and fish, a half to one pound, according to kind and quality) at an average cost of 10 cents; milk (half to one pint), butter (one to one and a half ounces) and a scrap of cheese, five cents; eggs (one every other day) at 12 cents a dozen, one-half cent; total cost of animal food, $15\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

Bread (about three-fourths of a pound) $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents; vegetables (green and dry) 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents; sugar and syrup, 2 cents; tea and coffee, 1 cent; fruit (green and dry) $\frac{1}{2}$ cent; salt, spices, ice and sundries, 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents; average cost of a daily ration, 25 cents.

Taking this as a basis, Mr. Atkinson estimates the probable price of food and drink consumed in the United States for one year at \$5,000,000,000.

Meat, fish and poultry.....	\$1,825,000,000
Milk, butter and cheese.....	912,500,000
Eggs.....	91,250,000
Animal food.	<u>\$2,828,750,000</u>
Bread.....	456,250,000
Vegetables.....	456,250,000
Sugar and syrup.....	365,000,000
Tea and coffee.....	182,500,000
Fruit (green and dry).....	91,250,000
Salt, spices, ice and sundries.....	182,500,000
	<u>\$4,562,500,000</u>
Deduct possible excess on sugar, tea, coffee and dairy products.....	262,500,000
	<u>\$4,300,000,000</u>
Add spirits and fermented liquors.....	750,000,000

Mr. Atkinson claims that if our food bill is not in quantity what this standard calls for, the reason is that the average dietary is not up to the standard. And, as a matter of fact, great numbers of people can barely obtain their daily bread; their standard of living is far below that of the inmates of our charitable and reformatory institutions. "There is want in the midst of plenty. Why is this? Is it not because we waste enough in ignorant buying and in bad cooking to sustain another nation as numerous, and because no common attention has yet been given to what may be called the 'Art of Nutrition?'"

COST OF FOOD FOR CONVICTS IN THE MAINE STATE
PRISON.

BILL OF CONVICT FARE.

SUNDAY.

BREAKFAST—Baked Pork and Beans, Bread and Coffee.

SECOND MEAL—Bread, Boiled Rice and Water.

MONDAY.

BREAKFAST—Bread and Coffee.

DINNER—Dry or Corned Fish, Potatoes, Bread and Water.

SUPPER—Meat or Fish Hash, Bread and Tea.

TUESDAY.

BREAKFAST—Bread and Coffee.

DINNER—Pea Soup, Bread and Water.

SUPPER—Hash, Bread and Tea.

WEDNESDAY.

BREAKFAST—Bread and Coffee.

DINNER—Corned, Boiled or Fresh Beef, Bread, Vegetables and Water.

SUPPER—Corn Meal Mush, Bread and Tea.

THURSDAY.

BREAKFAST—Bread and Coffee.

DINNER—Bean Soup, Bread and Water.

SUPPER—Meat, Fish or Vegetable Hash, Bread and Tea.

FRIDAY.

BREAKFAST—Bread and Coffee.

DINNER—Fresh or Corned Fish, or Clams, Bread and Water.

SUPPER—Oat Meal Mush, Bread and Tea.

SATURDAY.

BREAKFAST—Bread and Coffee.

DINNER—Vegetable Soup (varied) with Bread and Water.

SUPPER—Hash, Bread and Tea.

In addition to above, each has one and one-half pints molasses per week and one-half pint milk per day.

White or Brown Bread, or both, are given indiscriminately.

The quality of the food is very good, and the quantity supplied to the convicts limited only by their eating capacity.

The convicts are, generally, hearty young men. The cost of the food, raw material, has averaged during the past seven years, ending Nov. 31st, 1887, eleven and sixty-three one-hundredths cents per diem, or \$42.47 per annum. This is, of course, less than small families could obtain the same qualities of eatables, as flour is purchased by the car-load, and other provisions in large quantities.

VIEWS OF WORKING MEN AND WOMEN, AS EXPRESSED IN COMMUNICATIONS SENT TO THIS BUREAU.

CHILD LABOR.

I would like to see a law passed that no child under 15 years of age should be employed in a factory.—*Carder*.

EDUCATION.

There has been a good deal said and written during the past few years about the education and employment of the children of our work-people, especially those in our manufacturing centers, and laws have been passed regulating and compelling children under a certain age to attend school a certain number of weeks in a year. This is all well. We want all our children, all our people, to receive a good education, a good mental and moral training, for it is the true foundation of our liberties. Let us have the school-house door open to all our children free of expense, and with good teachers, and then compel them to go in. But there are a good many families in our manufacturing towns that are quite poor; having large families to support, they need all the help they can get to make both ends meet, or they must call on the town for assistance, and that is a bitter pill to swallow for any person possessing the spirit of a true man, lowering him in his own estimation, and destroying that independence of character which ought to be almost an instinct in an American citizen. In the interest of these families, as well as for other considerations, I have no hesitation in advocating the employment of children between the ages of twelve and fifteen years; it will do the children no harm, and they will have the proud satisfaction of knowing that they are helping the family to keep the wolf of poverty and dependence from their homes. But I would not al-

low them to work more than five hours a day, compelling them to go to school the other half day or the regular school time of two and a half to three hours. They would thus be learning a trade, habits of industry, helping to retain the independence of the family, and acquiring an education at the same time, and they would learn almost if not altogether as much as those going to school the whole day. I believe the average boy or girl brought up under this system will be better equipped to battle with the world and achieve success than the ones brought up to do nothing but go to school. The character of our manufacturing population has greatly changed from what it was twenty-five or thirty years ago, and it becomes necessary for us to change our plan of education as regards our factory children, and adopt the English half-time system, which, with more than forty years' experience, has proved entirely satisfactory and very successful, and is now educating over 100,000 children by its methods. The late General H. K. Oliver, of Salem, Mass., was an earnest advocate of the half-time system of educating factory children, and, in a speech delivered by him to the working people of Lawrence in June, 1874, said that he wanted to see before he died the short time schools of England adopted in this country, and in the report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor for 1878, one correspondent writes: "I attribute the equality of the half-timers to the full-timers chiefly to the habits of industrial occupations, to their better attention to what they set about. They certainly come to their school work with better habits of attention than the day scholars "

Another writes: "I have a decided opinion that the admixture of industrial occupation tends to make the scholars industrious in the school. The half-timers do not trifle or waste their time so much as the day scholars. The half-timers set to their writing or their lessons with great earnestness and with more business-like qualities."

C. J. Goodwin, Superintendent of the Indian Orchard Mills, Mass., writes as follows: "We found it better to employ two sets of children in the mills, employing them half a day each, and half a day at school. They were desirous to learn, made rapid progress, were punctual and well-behaved. They made more progress than children of similar ages in full-time schools. Reading, writing and arithmetic were the studies pursued. I think scholars of these ages, and no farther advanced in their studies, learn as rapidly with three

hours' instruction each day as they would with more. It is a disadvantage to be out of school six months at a time for those who are just commencing their studies. The scholars who are more advanced do not suffer so much from the loss."

J. M. Gregory, LL. D., President Illinois Industrial University, writes: "The replies received by me some years ago from school superintendents and teachers, in response to a circular asking information on the half-time school, are no longer in my possession; but I remember the unanimity with which the testimony came from all who had tried the experiment, that the children taught in the half-time schools made as good progress as those in full-time. The best and fullest trial was made in some of the ward schools in Detroit, Mich., where the comparison was made between schools taught under the same board and regulations, and under a common superintendent. I think I had testimony from twenty or more places where the experiment had been tried, and with the same results in every case. It was not stated how the children were employed the other part of the day."

Rev. C. F. Siegmund, of New York, states that he was well acquainted with a half-time school at Celle, in Prussia, where his father was inspector of schools. The scholars were children of agricultural laborers; they attended school from seven to ten A. M., and were therefore able to work three-quarters of a day, for which they received half a man's wages. There were fifty children and one master. The results were extremely good, and the children learned as much as those in the Volksschulen. At Annaberg there was a regularly formed four-class half-time school, with which he was personally acquainted. The results were equal to those of whole-time schools.

In summing up his report on the half-time school system in his report of 1878, Col. Carroll D. Wright says: "For us the questions to be solved are these: Will the twelve thousand factory children and the unnumbered children in other light employments in Massachusetts be best off in schools kept five months of each year for six hours a day, or in schools which are kept ten months for three hours a day? In the opinion of the writer and of most professional teachers whom he has consulted, the latter alternative is very far to be preferred as respects the child's progress in study. I would recommend that such schools should be established in a limited number, say six or twelve, of the great manufacturing centers of

the State; and that care should be taken to place the experiment in the hands of a person or persons practically acquainted with the system and desirous of its success."

I reiterate and emphasize the same recommendation for the State of Maine. Try it in Lewiston, Biddeford, Augusta, Waterville and other places, and I have no doubt of its success. I could bring more testimony in its favor than I have done, but I leave it to be discussed by abler and wiser heads, hoping that the discussion may be profitable and result in much good to the community. In closing I would say that I love the children dearly, and would not advocate anything that would harm them, but would rather help them to every comfort and enjoyment in life. They will have to take our places in the near future, and we wish to train them so that they will be fit to stand the hard knocks of every day life, be noble, strong and good, qualified to honor the name of "American citizen."—*John Garner*.

LEGISLATION ASKED FOR.

I would like to see a State law passed to compel every barber to close his shop on Sunday.—*Barber*.

I think the kilns should be closed Sunday to give the men a chance to rest and attend church.—*Lime-burner*.

I would like to see the kilns closed on Sunday.—*Lime-burner*.

I think the law should be such as to make a mechanic's lien the first mortgage on real estate to secure the wages of labor first. Such liens should be granted without long stays of execution or other unnecessary delays. In place of ten hours we should have nine hours to constitute a day's work. One of the things that keeps the wages of my trade down is the poor and inferior workmen who will work for any price. Another thing is, that Portland has direct communication by boat with the Provinces, which brings a great number of cheap workmen in our trade —*Carpenter*.

The trustee law in this State holds the working men and women in bondage. It is the worst law that was ever placed upon the statute book of this or any other State. Two or three years ago they had this same law in Connecticut. Such complaints came to agents and presidents of corporations that they called indignation meetings. I remember reading of one of them presided over by the president of a corporation. They showed up horrible work of the law-

yers, and they passed resolves that they would not have such a law upon the statute book of the State. Traders get men in their stores and urge them to buy on credit; they give the man his book and tell him to send his wife or the children and they can have anything they want. Before he is aware of it, the scoundrel has him fast with a big bill. The man says, "I can't owe you so much as this; it is more than I have earned." "Oh, yes," says the trader, "it's all right." "Well, I can't pay it; I have got to have a load of wood, and my rent is due, that must be paid." "Well, I don't want it at all," says the trader; "pay me a part of it and it will be all right." And now he has him, he thinks; but the man feels he has been wronged, and he goes to another store to see if he can't do better. Now trader No. 1 hears of it, and calls in his lawyer, who says, "We had better trustee;" and on it goes, and now he must go to this lawyer and assign a part of his wages until paid, with costs. Now if this trustee law was not on the statute book, this credit would not be given, and men would pay for what they get, and get what they pay for. I saw a man from Lewiston a few weeks since who told me that he had been at work in a factory in that place for several years; and he said the paymaster told him that on one pay-day he had one hundred and fifty trustee writs served on him. Now figure up the amount of costs that went to the lawyers. The imprisonment for debt law, as it stands now, holds all poor men as frauds. You can see the lawyer's trick here. This law shall not apply to former contracts or to cases now pending; and now what do the lawyers say? "We have old executions enough on hand to hold the poor man in bondage for twenty years." And now they sit in their offices waiting for a few bills to trustee each pay-day; and so it will be until these laws are swept off the statute book. The governor should call the legislature together this winter, and a clean sweep of the trustee and imprisonment for debt laws should be made.—*Card Grinder.*

I will make one suggestion: that a law should be passed that a person should only be taxed for what property he owns after deducting all mortgages; for, if I understand it correctly, a person hiring money pays a double tax on what he does not own, while the man who has money enough to own his house pays only one tax. In another light, this might keep our poor honest toilers always hiring rent, from the fact that the man that has the money to build being taxed but once can let cheap and then do better than to put his

money in the bank. Thus a man who would like to own a house, and would be a better citizen if he did, cannot afford to hire the money at a bank and pay six per cent, and then have to pay two per cent taxes, but will always hire rent and drift around here and there and never be a great help to any community.—*Door, Sash and Blind Maker.*

I think the public should demand that persons who wish to run engines should pass a thorough examination in the running and management of engines, and that the examining board should be created by State law.—*Engineer.*

We should have a law passed that no person could contract for more than ten hours a day. In machine shops all machinery that is liable to cause accidents should be protected by boxing.—*Machinist.*

I would like to see a ten hour law for men as well as for women and children.—*Spinner.*

PAYMENTS.

I think it would be well for our trade to receive weekly payments. The stone men as a general thing pay four dollars per week for board. Three dollars per week is all that the wages we receive will bear.—*Paving Cutter.*

There is no regular pay-day at any of the stone quarries in this vicinity, which makes it very inconvenient for the workmen.—*Quarryman.*

Weekly wages with comparatively steady employment enables the working man to make a saving of from eight to fifteen per cent in his expenditures. During the winter I am able to make a large saving in purchasing meats by purchasing by the hundred for cash, reducing my meat bill fifty per cent. I am a temperate man, endeavor to have self and family look neat and respectable at all times, and can, by close economy and depriving ourselves of some little holiday recreations, make both ends meet, and perhaps a little more.—*Shoemaker.*

I believe in weekly payments. I think the ten hour law should be applied to men as well as to women. I think we should have a universal system of school books throughout the State. I have in my house over fifty dollars' worth of school books that I have bought for my children, that are worth nothing to me. This makes it hard on men with families in my trade, as we are compelled to change habitations to get work.—*Stone Cutter.*

I would like to have a law passed whereby a laboring man would receive his pay every week if he wanted it.—*Stone Cutter*.

TEMPERANCE.

Rum and tobacco are the curse of the working man. They waste time and money. Although there is a great improvement of late years in the drinking habits of working people, I think that even now an average of twenty-five per cent of wages earned is spent for liquor and tobacco.—*Laborer*.

To my mind sumptuary legislation is a failure as a general thing, and should be dealt with very carefully.—*Sardine Sealer*.

I have been in this country for forty years. I wish I had remained in Scotland; I think I should have made a better living in Scotland. Ignorance has been the greatest drawback to the longshoremen. We have about \$2,900 in the treasury. The great majority of longshoremen are hard drinkers; this keeps them very poor. The greatest trouble with our order is, the worst element gets control. The organization keeps up the price of labor. Before we organized we worked for twelve to fifteen cents per hour; we now get thirty cents per hour in the day, and thirty-five cents night work. One great trouble is, the poor workmen expect to receive as much per day as the best workmen. Of course the best workmen are hired and the poor workmen get but little work; this causes jealousy among the members. Before the formation of the society we received eight cents per ton for a gang of five shovelers of coal; now the same gang gets on American vessels twelve and a half cents, on American steamers fifteen cents. There are not employed twenty-five per cent as many longshoremen now as fifteen years ago. Not more than one third as many shooks are shipped now as fifteen years ago. Sugar is shipped to this country in bags manufactured in England. The government should so regulate the tariff that sugar should be shipped free in barrels and a high duty placed upon it shipped in bags.—*Longshoreman*.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Coopers as a rule work for low wages in Maine, hardly ever receiving more than \$1.25 per day. Those that work in this place live in tenement houses at an average rent of five dollars a month; very few save anything, and as a class they are poor. I see no way

to better our condition except to move to some western State where we can protect ourselves in the Union, which is of no account among coopers in Maine. We lose but little time during the year, and work fourteen hours nearly every day on piece work. Nearly all of our men are fifty years old and upward, young men rarely wanting to learn the trade.—*Cooper*.

Carpenters in most places in Maine can get work but about one-half the time, and wages are only from \$1.50 to \$2.00 per day. One man in this place has built a number of tenements, the houses costing from \$800 to \$1000, for the rent of which he asks from \$12 to \$14 per month. I mention this to show that carpenters don't get a fair share of what they earn or produce, and I believe it is so with every other branch of industry.—*Carpenter*.

Have had a very good chance the past year, but small wages. Have had some sickness and lost some time on account of bad weather, but have come out about square.—*Carpenter*.

Here in Gardiner I think the laboring people live as comfortably as in almost any place you can find, which is partly owing to the fact that we have no business which has ever called a large lot of cheap help into the place. The bulk of our citizens are natives, but we have some Irish, and as a rule they are as comfortable as any of our laboring people, the greater portion owning houses and some of them several. Of the rest of our laborers a large per cent own homes, many of them being good enough for any one. Of course there are exceptions, but in most cases they are people who are either shiftless or unfortunate.—*Door, Sash and Blind Maker*.

I believe that all labor reform must come through the intelligent action of the laboring men by the ballot. I believe that needed reforms will come only through united action and organization. The ten hour law was passed not as a measure of love but as a matter of policy. The Labor Bureau was established because a prominent member of the labor organization said it was necessary; and the fortnightly payment bill was opposed in the legislature by men who advocated a weekly bill before election. It is my firm belief that none of these bills would have been passed had it not been for the fear of the votes of working men. Now I believe eight hours is enough for the producers of this country to work, and I further believe that if the producers received a fair share of the profit of their production it would not be necessary to work even eight hours. I would

favor arbitration in all labor troubles, and see no reason why intelligence should not overcome brute force. There are at present at work here one hundred and thirty cutters, nine-tenths of whom belong to Granite Cutters' National Union and nearly all to the K. of L.—*Granite Cutter*.

I am Irish, but was born in England. My family consists of myself and wife. My age is somewhere from sixty-five to seventy, and my wife's from fifty to fifty-five. I have been unable to get work for some time, though I am in good health. I own a home worth from \$800 to \$900. My wife gets \$54 per year from renting rooms. We take boarders when we can get them. Have never been helped by the city, but it is a hard rub to live. We pay \$12.50 taxes and \$12 water rent. We seldom have beef, and pastry never. We live upon vegetables and cheap soup bones. Outside of flour, tea and sugar, I should say it costs us \$2 00 per week to live.—*Hostler*.

Day laborers have a hard time to get along, our wages being only \$1.25 per day, and employed only a part of the time.—*Day Laborer*.

The ten hour law is very acceptable to the operatives in our factories. I hope it will be well enforced, and children looked after and sent to school.—*Loom Fixer*.

The condition of the longshoremen in Portland is not as good as it was fifteen years ago. We do not get half the work now that we did then. We number in Portland between 300 and 400 members. The future of the longshoreman looks dark; we have to compete with Italians and other cheap imported help, who work for \$1.00 per day. In former years two-thirds of the longshoremen were Irish.—*Longshoreman*.

I think that the fortnightly payment bill is a great help to the laboring man.—*Laborer*.

There are seven saw-mills in Machias, employing about 200 hands. Most of the millmen work in the woods winters, averaging three and a half months at \$20 per month and board. Every mill here runs a store, and help are expected to trade there. With cash payments we could live cheaper. We get but little money for the year's work. A great number of the help are never out of debt. It takes all they can make in summer to pay up the past winter's debts.—*Lumberman*.

An agent of the American Net and Twine Company of Boston, carries on the business of knitting and weaving horse nets and ear-tips at this place, the only place in Maine. The work is all done by women and girls. The factory where the weaving is done employs twelve women on an average of about seven months in a year, from December to July. The factory hands work ten hours a day, and make about seventy-five cents a day. The past year they have been paid monthly in cash. The knitting and trimming is sent out all over town and can be found in a great many families. Women knit horse-nets for six cents each, and three a day is all many can knit, working ten hours. Women with families will do this work, often sitting up after the other members of the family are in bed. The trimming work may pay a little better than the knitting, but not much. Nearly all the outside help are paid in truck. If there is nothing in the store that they want, then they must wait until there is, or take goods and sell to their friends for money. This is a bad feature of the business.—*Knitter and Weaver (Female).*

Ordinary laborers here earn from \$1.10 to \$1.25 per day for a day of eleven hours. Cabinet-makers, carpenters and wood-workers get from \$12 to \$20 per week. The latter make nearly full time. The former lose a great deal of time, and this brings the average of their earnings down to a little above the living point. With few exceptions the pay of workers in the saw mills will not exceed \$9 per week; this means for a week's work of from sixty-six to sixty-nine hours. The statements of working men very nearly agree in this one point—that they make but little headway, and, in a great many cases, it is only by the strictest economy they can make both ends meet. The reputation of the town as a smart, wide-awake business place, has much to do with this state of affairs, bringing as it does all kinds of artisans into it, thus insuring the very keenest competition in all branches of trade. The cost of living is quite high, although in this respect it will compare favorably with other localities. There are few chronic loafers and dead beats, although we have some. Not much drinking.—*Painter.*

I am satisfied with my trade and wages. The mill is run well, and I think the employes are well satisfied with things. I make out in my department eight hours per day. We have three shifts in twenty-four hours.—*Pulp-maker.*

It is rather hard to give exact statements to all your questions, our working seasons are so fluctuating and our pay-day so uncertain.

It is almost an impossibility for a man who has to work and earn his bread by the sweat of his brow to get a tenement to live in, and when you do make out to get one it is hardly fit to live in and not worthy the name of house. But with us it is Hobson's choice, that or nothing; and they don't forget to make you pay for it. I am paying \$10 a month for four rooms, with no accommodations whatever, not even yard room enough to stretch a clothes line. I have been renting houses for the last fifteen years, and I must say that I never in all those years got so poor accommodations for so much money. I am writing now of Bar Harbor. They are converting old barns into tenements at prices beyond all reason. For downright robbery it goes beyond anything I have ever met with before. Provisions of all kinds are very high, and the best we can do is to make one hand wash the other. God, in His loving kindness, permits the sun to shine on the poor as well as the rich, and in Him do we put our trust.—*Painter.*

My work is done by the piece, and therefore I am somewhat dependent upon workmen immediately preceding me, and am often obliged to lose more or less time. Wages for the past six months have been far in advance of any I have ever before received, and I have been fifteen years in the trade, seven of which I have been with the firm I am now at work for.—*Shoemaker.*

I do not earn enough to pay my bills, but what I fall short my children make up to me. The interest on the mortgage, taxes, insurance and repairs, just about equal what I would have to pay for rent.—*Shoemaker.*

I have lived in Brockton, Mass., for a few years past; went out on the big shoe strike; lost nearly half of a year out of employment. Don't think much of the K. of L. as an order for a poor man. I have belonged to the K. of L., but don't now.—*Shoe Leveler.*

The vampers receive as much pay as a general thing, as any women employed in a shoe factory. Girls, in general, in a shoe factory, have a good English education. Most of the women employed here are American, from the country. Their morals are generally good.—*Shoe Vamper (Female.)*

This business employs sail boats from three to five tons burden, usually one man to a boat, who receives \$30 per month and fifty cents extra for every hogshead of fish caught. This is the custom in all places engaged in this business.

Cutting—This is done generally by small help, who make out about three hours a day at twenty cents an hour.

Salting—This work is done by men, who receive fifteen cents an hour.

Flaking—This is done by small help, who receive fifteen cents an hour. Some days when fish are plenty they work eight or ten hours a day.

Packing—This work is done by girls and women, who work from three to ten hours a day and receive fifteen cents an hour.

Can Sealers—These are paid thirty-three cents for every one hundred cans. They make, when they have work, from \$2.00 to \$2.50 per day.

Can Makers—When employed they make from \$2.00 to \$2.50 per day. This work is all done by men.—*Sardine Can Sealer*.

Men make \$1.25 per day for five months in the year. A company called the New England Company run a store and expect the help to trade there. Women packers make from \$175 to \$200 per year. Board from \$2.00 to \$2.50 per week for women. There are nine sardine factories in Lubec, employing 600 hands.—*Herring Packer*.

The trouble here is the scarcity of houses for the help to live in. They are obliged to crowd in anywhere. I think there ought to be some means taken whereby the people could get rents to live in. There ought to be a law to compel companies hiring help to furnish suitable houses for their help to live in.—*Woolen Weaver*.

I have paid during the year \$200 on a mortgage; but I have a garden that brings me in considerable, and have been lucky in not having any serious illness in my family.—*Cotton Weaver*.

April 4th, 1887, commenced to work sixty hours a week. At that time the pay was raised about twelve per cent on an average, to balance the reduction of time.—*Woolen Weaver*.

I will say in regard to savings and expenses of a working woman, situated as I am, that there is not much saved. My board, fire and washing, which I hire done, amounts to about \$188 yearly. Wearing apparel consumes nearly all that remains. You can say that the one thing that is most needed in this city is a good boarding house for women and girls. There is none in close proximity to the mill. This makes it very bad for the girls, as they have to carry their dinners, and eating a cold dinner the year round is sure to

bring on ill health. I have paid out during the last year \$30 for doctor's bills and medicine, on account of dyspepsia brought on by eating cold dinners. Many of my sister workers are the same. Otherwise I think the operatives of the Edwards mill enjoy fair health. We are all well used by our employers. Our overseer, Mr. R. C. Irish, is very much liked by his help. He meets us every morning with a pleasant word, and treats us like men and women and not like slaves.—*Cotton Weaver (Female.)*

I am seventy years of age. Have worked in a cotton mill twenty-five years. I make out ten hours a day and make fifty cents a day. I have children, but they have all they can do to provide for themselves and families.—*Cotton-mill Hand (Female.)*

I consider rum the greatest curse that invades the sanctity of the home, the greatest obstacle to an intelligent, progressive labor movement, and the direct cause of seven-eighths of all the suffering, want and crime throughout the United States. The efforts of our governor for the suppression of its sale should receive the commendation and support of all, especially of the working class, from whose busy hives of industry the rum-selling drones steal the honey that should be laid by for our severe winters.

The legislature should provide liberally for the support of the Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics, thereby increasing its power for usefulness and making it what it was intended to be, a source of information as to the educational, moral and financial condition of the laboring masses of the State.

I believe our ten hour law to be as good as any on our statute books, and to be working great good among our factory and mill operatives.

As the stability of our government rests upon the intelligence of its citizens, school attendance should be compulsory and the law on our statute books rigidly enforced.

The fortnightly payment law should be amended so that its provisions and penalties shall apply to corporations, persons and firms alike, as was intended by its advocates.

I am in favor of equal pay for equal work, regardless of sex, and believe that if the advocates of the rights of women would only use their talents and persuasive arguments in favor of this humane principle it would not be necessary for our women to toil twelve and fifteen hours a day in order to satisfy, in a great many cases, a heartless and cruel employer, and eke out a miserable existence.

I am in favor of protecting all branches of American industry, as I do not wish the product of my labor placed in competition with the product of any one who will produce for one-half the amount that I receive for my labor. At the same time I want the government to put such restrictions on the great trusts, combinations, capitalistic associations and monopolies, as will prevent them from deriving all the benefits that protection intends should accrue to the wage earners of the country.

I believe that the importation of foreign labor under contract is an unmitigated evil, and is designed, if not prohibited, to undermine the institutions and foundations of our government.

I believe in labor organization as a means of educating and instructing the wage earners, and also for the purpose of sustaining and enforcing the laws that may be passed in their interest; for it is evident that without united action by those that a law is intended to benefit, it will be for all practical purposes dead.

The government should obtain control of the telegraph system of the country, and thereby save the public from the extortionate rates exacted by a grasping monopoly.—*Granite Cutter*.

CONDITION AND VIEWS OF FISHERMEN.

The census of 1880 showed Maine's interest in fishing industries to be, persons employed, 11,071; capital invested, \$3,375,994; value of products, \$3,614,178. During the past few years the business has not been very prosperous, as the following reports from fishermen indicate:

My occupation is that of fisherman and granite cutter. I have been engaged in fishing for the past forty-five years. Commence about the first of May, and end about the first of November. The rest of the year cut stone, when I can obtain work. My earnings for the past fishing season were \$175, from which I saved \$30. The fish are all sold as soon as landed. Prices received for green split fish, per hundred weight, large cod, \$2.25; small cod, \$1.25; had-dock, hake and pollock, average for the season, 85 cents; scrod, 40 cents, (scrod are codfish that weigh under three pounds); livers, per bucketful, 25 cents; sounds, 12 cents per pound.

I think trawling should be stopped, as it is killing out fish the same as seining is killing the mackerel. Thirty years ago we did not have to go out of the bay for fish, now have to go from five

to ten miles, and large vessels a great deal further. The fish business is monopolized to the injury of the fishermen, as the buyers are about all members of fish bureaus that control prices and sales. I find it harder to get a living now than thirty years ago, but the present mode of living has something to do with it. At best there is but a bare living and a life of hardship for those who catch the fish. I don't know of any one who did not own part or whole of vessel, to lay up any amount of money. I think the lobster law all right, but would do away with close time. Think Canadian fish ought to be kept out, and retaliatory measures resorted to for insults offered our fishermen in Canadian waters.

I have been engaged in fishing all my life. Been captain thirty-five years. Have been engaged at all branches of the business. Find it harder to get a living for past fifteen years than before that. Have owned vessels and saved a little in years gone by. Engaged at present at lobstering. Go about six months out of the year, but can't make a living at it owing to the law. I think the law is a good thing for the protection of the lobsters, but, as two-thirds of the lobsters caught have to be put back into the water, being under size, it makes the lobster catcher's life a hard one; still I favor the law, with repeal of close time. Trawling and seining should be stopped, as it is killing the fish and ruining the business. The porgie business has been killed by steamers chasing them all over the coast. Not in favor of treaty with Canada, and would retaliate for insults on our fishermen.

I go lobstering about three months each spring, from March to June, rest of time work at odd jobs. During March, April and May I earned \$110. Business not so good as formerly. Could not get a living now. I think the lobster law should be repealed as it would be better for fishermen, as factories would buy all you caught. Two-thirds of those caught have to be thrown away.

I have been in the fish business more or less all my life. Know the whole business. Have been buyer of fish for a number of years. Find a great difference in the business now compared with former years. Fish are growing scarcer every year. Can remember when I could go out in a boat and get all the fish I wanted with hand line; now have to go from five to ten miles from home, and fish with trawls having from 500 to 1,500 hooks, in order to get any fish at all. The result is it costs about as much for gear as the fish are

worth, for very often the hooks get caught and you lose half your trawl. Trawling I consider as disastrous to the fishing industry, for the reason that there are so many more fish killed than are marketed; they die on the trawls and are eaten by sharks, dog-fish, &c., before the trawls are hauled. The same is the case with seining mackerel; large schools of small ones are taken and virtually destroyed, for after mackerel have been seined, even if let go without being taken out of the water, it kills them, or at least a great many of them, so I think both trawling and seining should be stopped. The lobster law, I think, should be repealed, and for this reason: it is no protection to the lobster. When a fisherman pulls his pots and finds small lobsters in them he don't throw them overboard, because they will go into his pots again and eat his bait, thereby being a source of annoyance; so they are either killed or kept in the boat to be thrown overboard at some other point, half dead and good for nothing afterward. Now, if there were no law, those small lobsters could be all sold to the factories, thereby renewing an industry which under the present law is virtually killed.

I have made, on a good average fishing year, \$200 for the last three or four years. I find it hard to meet my bills.

The following communication is from a gentleman who has made a special investigation of the condition of fisheries and fishermen on the coast of Maine:

“The social condition of our fishermen, I find, compares favorably with that of other branches of labor. Our own fishermen, that is, the Americans, mostly have homes. They are not lavishly furnished, but sufficiently so for comfort. As a general thing they do not live in the crowded part of the town, and their expenses of living are less, as they are not given to style so much as our mechanics. Most of them have small farms that they till, and, with a few sheep, a pig and a cow, they are able to live quite comfortably. Their condition, however, is not improving, owing to the depressing effect of large fishing operations, and if there is not some change for the better they will be driven from the business altogether. It is a fact that for the past year or two men engaged at fishing solely have not made a living for themselves and families. In the mackerel fishery, in particular, men have been engaged for the whole season and have not earned one cent. At North Haven, where the sole industry is the mackerel fishing, I saw vessels that had been fishing

since March (about eight months) and had not even wet their seines; and this, following on last season, which was about the same, it can be seen what the condition of these men and their families will be through the winter, especially where they have no other industry to turn to. In the mackerel fishery the men are away from home nearly all of the season, consequently they have no opportunity for farming, as the men engaged in cod and other fisheries, who are at home a great part of their time, can do. The latter make a trip in a few days, and there is bad weather, waiting for wind, &c., which gives them opportunity that the mackerel fishermen do not possess. The consequence is that their condition under these circumstances cannot be very desirable. Many will ask, why do they follow the business if they cannot make a living at it? That is easily answered. It is their business. They have been brought up to it and think they can do nothing else, and then there is always hope for the future; like a man engaged in mining, they think they are going to strike something to-morrow, and so they keep on and on.

The educational condition of our fishermen will compare favorably with that of other classes. They generally take a lively interest in politics, and are active in town affairs, favoring anything tending to better the condition of their fellow men. Their children have the benefit of the schools, with, perhaps, the exception of the children of those men who go in small boats. In many instances they take their boys with them as soon as they are large enough to hoist the jib. Sometimes the object is a selfish one, but in most cases it is from necessity; so that this class of our fishermen are deprived of all but the winter term of school. The large vessels have no use for boys; neither do the mackerel catchers; the work in both cases requiring strong arms and steady heads.

The effect of large seining operations on the mackerel fishery is apparent everywhere. The business is virtually ruined, and will have to be abandoned if the existing conditions continue. The mackerel fleet of North Haven consists of sixteen vessels ranging from 50 to 100 tons each. They carry, on an average, fifteen men each, making a total of two hundred and forty men. It costs from \$80 to \$100 per month to feed each crew, or about \$600 to each vessel for the season. Some of them start in March and go South, where they begin on the mackerel, and then follow them to the Gulf of St. Lawrence and back again. A war of extermination has been

waged, until, at the present, and for the past two years, the fish, no doubt endowed with the instinct of self-preservation, have refused to show themselves, or, if they have, have refused to be caught. Vessels of this fleet have returned after the season's fishing with not a single fish, and very few of them will pay their cook bill. (The cook goes by the month.) The best done by any of them will be about \$140 to a man. The men go on shares. The owners fit out the vessel and take half the fish, the crew paying their share for barrels and salt. This often comes very hard on the owners. The men get their living anyway, and, on board mackerel catchers, it has to be the best the market affords. The seines cost from \$1,000 to \$1,400 each, and sometimes they are lost and very often torn so as to spoil them. Unless there is a change this branch of our industry will cease to exist. As it is, a great many have abandoned it and sought other channels of labor. Half the men from North Haven, or 120, belong out of town. A great many of them have crews from Nova Scotia and the other lower Provinces. Their poverty we know nothing of, but there will be considerable suffering among our own people through the failure of the mackerel fisheries. What is said of North Haven will apply to the whole State. Now what is to be done? I have talked with owners, captains, and with men who have been in the business and studied it all their lives, and they all agree on this point, that the seining has ruined the business, and until it is stopped and the old method of catching on the hook adopted there can be nothing better expected. It is a fact that cannot be disputed, that there are about as many mackerel destroyed as there are saved. Thousands of barrels of small mackerel are caught, killed, and thrown away. In the spring the mackerel caught South are run into New York, fresh. Often there is no sale for them, the market being full; consequently they are shoveled overboard, being too poor to salt, and thus thousands are destroyed, and at a time when they are spawning. It is not generally known that the simple process of drawing a seine around a school of mackerel, kills them. They are so excitable that before they can be taken out of the water a great many kill themselves. The government has passed a law, to take effect next year, prohibiting the taking of mackerel before the first of June. Nothing better could be done, as this will give them a chance to spawn. There is no other legislation that can help the business, unless seining is abandoned. Now the same is true of trawling. When men went fishing with hand

lines, fish were always plenty; they brought more money, and the men who caught them fared better than they do now. Let me attempt to give an idea of the business as now carried on. Here is a vessel carrying ten dories, and one man to each dory. They each run 5,000 hooks on a trawl, the hooks being about three feet apart, making 15,000 feet of line handled by each man. It will take him two days to bait these 5,000 hooks, and then all that is wanting is a chance to go out. They sometimes have to lie in the harbor for a week. After making sail and arriving on the ground in a few hours, usually going about twenty miles, a dory is dropped and a man commences running out his trawl. A little further on, another is dropped, and so on, until they are all out, the men always running to leeward. When he has his trawl all out, he is 15,000 feet, or nearly three miles from the starting point. As the men run out, they draw nearer to each other so that, at the farther end, they are within speaking distance. This is done so that in case it should come up a blow or come in foggy, they will be near together. (A great many men are lost in this way on the banks.) The vessel all the time keeps sailing around in charge of the cook, for the captain goes in a dory the same as the others. In a short time they begin to haul in, always beginning at the outer end. A trawl with 5,000 hooks will usually yield about one fish to each ten hooks; or one to every thirty feet of trawl. It will vary both ways from this, but this will serve to give an idea of the trawling business. Here are 50,000 hooks set by one vessel; 5,000 fish are caught, and the trip occupies about two days. Still the men make but little. It costs half their catch for gearing, and the fish are not worth much, being at this time of the year mostly haddock. They are all sold, and the crews paid every trip, if they want it. It can be seen that the extensiveness of this business is going to ruin it. Fishermen unite in saying that fish are growing scarce all the time, and agree that it is because of the trawling, and that it should be stopped."

Another gentleman interested in the fisheries writes: "As nearly as I can learn, there have been fourteen or fifteen factories engaged the past season in canning lobsters. The quantity canned is estimated at from eight to ten million pounds. Each factory employs from forty to fifty hands; about one-half men and boys, and one-half women. I have the following statement from one factory:

‘Our lobsters average one and one-fourth pounds each, and we have packed this season 644,703 pounds, making 2,855 cases of four dozen one-pound cans in each case. We employ twenty-six men and boys, twenty-six women, and four smacks with one man to each smack. We have paid \$1.25 per hundred for lobsters, and this was the price paid at three other factories.’ I am of the opinion that this firm represents a fair average of what the lobster canners have done during the past season.”

** The Cod and Mackerel Fisheries. Summary by States.*

States.	Vessels over 20 tons.		Vessels under 20 tons.		Total.	
	Number	Tons.	Number	Tons.	Number	Tons.
Maine.....	311	17,481.10	272	3,304.08	583	20,785.18
New Hampshire.....	13	540.19	5	74.56	18	614.75
Massachusetts.....	651	47,287.44	189	2,115.48	840	49,402.92
Rhode Island.....	15	1,470.20	45	475.86	60	1,946.06
Connecticut.....	55	2,514.93	57	681.57	112	3,196.50
New York.....	39	3,744.95	64	457.93	103	4,202.88
New Jersey.....	-	-	1	17.28	1	17.28
Virginia.....	1	22.26	-	-	1	22.26
North Carolina.....	1	33.22	-	-	1	33.22
Florida.....	10	351.05	3	40.05	13	391.10
California.....	-	-	6	61.96	6	61.96
Oregon.....	-	-	1	30.70	1	30.70
Totals.....	1,096	73,445.34	643	7,259.47	1,739	80,704.81

The tonnage for Massachusetts is 61 + per cent of the total tonnage for the United States.

Vessels: Where Built. The vessels of the fishing fleet were built principally in Massachusetts, but seven other States contributed, Maine ranking next to Massachusetts. As regards the number of cities and towns in which the vessels were built, Massachusetts comes first with 35; then Maine with 22; Connecticut, 5; New York, 3; Rhode Island, 2; Maryland, 2; Pennsylvania, 1; New Hampshire, 1. Seventy-one different cities and towns in the United States built 845 of the fleet of 866 vessels.

The total value of dutiable fish imported into the United States in 1886 was \$2,535,854, of which, as shown above, 25 + per cent was brought into Massachusetts ports. During the same time the imports of fish, free of duty, into the United States amounted to \$1,076,673, or a grand total of fish imports amounting to \$3,612,527, or 55 + per cent of the total "catch" of Massachusetts.

The principal countries from which this fish was imported are shown in the following table.

Countries from which Fish is Imported.

Countries.	Value.	Countries.	Value.
<i>Free of Duty.</i>		<i>Dutiable.</i>	
Nova Scotia, N. Brunsw'k, &c.	\$680,986	Nova Scotia, etc.....	\$821,829
Quebec, Ontario, etc., and		Quebec, Ontario, etc.	133,878
North West Territory....	384,415	Newfoundland and Labrador,	147,844
Not specified.....	11,272	The Netherlands.....	283,495
		Not specified.....	1,148,808
Total.....	\$1,076,673.	Total.....	\$2,535,854

*From Advance edition of Vol. II, of the Census of Mass. of 1885.

In addition, under the Reciprocity Treaty, fish to the value of \$2,706,831 was admitted, the remitted duties being estimated at \$689,602. The estimated amount of duty collected on imports of fish into the United States from the British North American Possessions, in 1886, was \$297,028.

The duties as regards particular kinds of fish are shown in the subjoined statement:

Pickled herring, \$1 per barrel. Quantity, 92,659.58 barrels. Duty, \$92,659.58.
 Mackerel, \$2 per barrel. Quantity, 31,847.56 barrels. Duty, \$63,695.13.
 Fresh fish for daily consumption, free of duty. Quantity, 21,006,699 pounds.
 Value, \$668,887.40.
 Fish, in oil or preserved, not otherwise specified, 30 per cent ad valorem. Value, \$19,982.11. Duty, \$5,994.66.
 Other pickled fish, in barrels, \$2 per barrel. Quantity, 2,929.78 barrels. Duty, \$5,859.56.
 Fish prepared, in cans, 35 per cent ad valorem. Value, \$52,063.02. Duty, \$13,015.75.
 Pickled salmon, \$2 per barrel. Quantity, 4,397.55 barrels. Duty, \$8,795.10.
 Sardines and anchovies, 10 cents per box, 5 cents half-box. Quantity, 5,279 boxes.
 Duty, \$527.90. Quantity, 241,356 half-boxes. Duty, \$12,067.80.

LOCATION OF FISHING BANKS.

George's Bank.—This fishing ground is celebrated for producing the finest codfish and halibut found off the North American continent. It is fished on at all times of the year by a large fleet from New England ports; seldom by vessels from other than United States ports. It extends about 70 miles north and south, and 80 miles east and west, in latitude 41° to $42^{\circ} 30'$, longitude $66^{\circ} 15'$ to 69° west. Lowest depths, $2\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms; usual depths fished on, 25 to 80 fathoms. Halibut fares are taken on the east and northeast edge of the bank, in from 150 to 200 fathoms. Distance from Gloucester, E. S. E., 120 miles; the nearest land being Highland Light, Cape Cod, 95 miles.

Brown's Bank.—E. N. E. from George's, in latitude $42^{\circ} 45'$, longitude 66° . From the shoalest water the nearest land is Cape Sable, 45 miles N. E.

La Have Bank.—E. by S. from Brown's, in latitude 43° , longitude $64^{\circ} 15'$, distant from Brown's, 80 miles E. by S.; Shelburn, N. S., 60 miles distant, being the nearest land.

Sable Island Bank, or, as more generally known, *Western Bank*, in latitude 43° to $44^{\circ} 15'$, longitude $59^{\circ} 15'$ to $62^{\circ} 30'$, about 75 miles north and south, 135 miles east and west. Nearest land from the fishing ground, Canso, N. S., 80 miles.

Banquereau.—Next in the chain of fishing banks, in longitude 57° to 60° , latitude $44^{\circ} 05'$ to 45° , the western edge being just north of the eastern edge of Sable Island bank, both banks running about east and west. Nearest land, Cape Canso, N. S., 80 miles.

Saint Peter's Bank—Lays in a N. W. and S. E. direction, in latitude $45^{\circ} 10'$ to $46^{\circ} 45'$, longitude $55^{\circ} 30'$ to $57^{\circ} 20'$. From the shoalest water to St. Pierre, Newfoundland, the nearest land, 75 miles.

Green's Bank.—Runs north and south, being between Saint Peter's and Grand Bank, is 60 miles long N. and S., and 40 miles wide E. and W., longitude between 54° and 55° , latitude 45° and 46° . Nearest land from shoalest water is Cape Mary's, Newfoundland, 70 miles distant.

Grand Bank of Newfoundland.—This celebrated bank, that for over three centuries has seldom failed of furnishing abundance of codfish, is triangular in shape, the longest direction being E. by S. and W. by N., in longitude 48° to 54° , latitude 43° to $47^{\circ} 30'$, being 270 miles wide, N. N. E. by S. S. W., and about the same distance in E. by S. and N. by W. direction. The shoalest water, 3 fathoms, is found on Virgin Rocks, Cape Race; Newfoundland, the nearest land, is 90 miles from shoalest water, and Gloucester, Mass., 885 miles.

Flemish Cap—This ground is, to a small extent, fished on by American vessels; it is located about 300 miles east of the Grand Bank, and some 1,200 miles from Gloucester.

Greenland.—Is annually visited by a few vessels from Gloucester on halibut trips; distance from home port, 1,600 miles.

Iceland.—The most distant fishing grounds visited by American vessels; it is 2,400 miles from Gloucester, that port annually sending a small fleet, their catch being confined to halibut, of which a full fare is usually secured. Vessels from France and other European countries fish off this coast, mostly for codfish.

From the most reliable and available statistics, the fishing industry of North America and Europe is said to give employment to between 600,000 and 700,000 men, and nearly 150,000 vessels, the total annual product being about 1,500,000 tons, or 3,000,000,000 pounds of fish.

PART 3.

MANUFACTURERS.

The returns of manufacturers, while few in number, represent the most important industries and establishments. As will be seen by an inspection of the tables, none of the returns contain full and complete answers to the questions asked in the blanks. Although defective in many particulars, we are able to derive from them important facts relating to wages, and the employment of women and children.

The manufacturing establishments reporting employ 14,695 hands. Sixty-five establishments report "Capital Invested," \$16,367,900, and 7,578 male employes over 15 years of age; 17 report 412 male employes under 15 years; 31 report 6,529 female employes over 15 years, and 12 report 176 female employes under 15 years. Twenty-five *industries* report the average weekly wages paid men, \$10.27; 16 industries the average annual earnings of men, \$477.81, and 8 the average annual earnings of women, \$336.96. Forty-four establishments report "Gross Product," \$11,273,514. In tabulating the returns of manufacturers, the Commissioner has classified and grouped the information collected by blanks, in totals, in order to obviate the objection that the publication of complete statements of their business affairs might be prejudicial to their interests.

The law creating this Bureau does not *compel* manufacturers to furnish statistics, and the means afforded the Commissioner are entirely inadequate for the employment of special agents.

RETURNS OF

Number of returns.	Business.	Number of weeks in operation.	Capital invested.	Cost of buildings and grounds.
1	Bakeries	52	-	-
1	Bleacheries	52	\$500,000	-
5	Boots and shoes	49 2-5	965,000	\$188,800
1	Bricks	9	1,000	500
1	Canned fish	17	60,000	12,000
2	Carriages and sleighs	52	14,000	8,800
2	Cigars	52	3,700	-
5	Clothing	46 1-2	210,200	6,200
1	Confectionery	52	50,000	10,000
11	Cotton goods	51 1-2	10,540,000	2,142,500
1	Copper	52	100,000	58,000
1	Doors, sash and blinds	50	30,000	10,000
2	Edge tools	48	154,000	71,000
5	Foundries	49 2-5	334,000	56,000
3	Furniture	50 1-3	48,000	7,000
4	Granite	51 1-2	838,000	105,000
2	Leather, sole	38	105,000	20,000
2	Leather-board	51	300,000	45,000
1	Leatheroid	52	150,000	10,000
6	Lumber	38 1-2	235,000	68,800
1	Lumber and grist mill	47	65,000	6,000
3	Lumber and starch	40	275,000	87,000
1	Paper	-	300,000	-
1	Roofing slate	52	400,000	150,000
1	Sewer pipe	45	75,000	-
1	Trunks and bags	52	-	10,000
1	White lead	48	40,000	3,000
1	Wire	50	-	9,000
5	Woolen goods	51	575,000	221,300

MANUFACTURERS.

Cost of machinery and repairs.	Rent, taxes and insurance.	Value of raw material used.	Wages paid to workmen.	Total expenses for year.	Average weekly wages paid.	
					Skilled.	Unskilled.
-	-	-	-	-	\$13 00	\$8 00
-	\$9,100	\$300,000	\$144,581	-	8 00	7 00
\$130,300	14,101	1,975,857	728,567	\$70,458	12 35	6 87
150	-	150	600	750	-	9 00
12,000	1,000	-	-	-	15 00	7 50
1,200	325	6,000	8,000	13,000	11 50	6 50
195	437	2,200	6,100	14,500	8 00	-
1,900	2,045	230,000	35,500	36,000	9 50	4 43
-	185	100,000	-	-	25 00	10 00
2,716,500	241,014	4,965,560	3,128,032	-	10 52	5 23
25,500	690	-	36,000	-	13 50	9 00
10,000	678	25,000	8,000	-	12 00	9 00
40,000	2,300	36,000	35,000	-	13 27	9 00
30,000	4,769	63,000	60,685	-	14 06	8 12
12,000	2,425	13,000	16,500	-	10 00	7 50
18,000	4,000	-	160,164	149,000	16 52	9 50
10,000	5,000	110,000	5,000	-	9 00	7 00
105,000	6,100	100,000	40,000	-	13 50	8 50
15,000	750	35,000	25,000	75,000	13 50	8 00
41,300	3,490	113,915	41,600	77,624	12 00	8 25
14,000	360	23,000	12,829	13,192	10 50	7 00
47,000	4,000	145,000	50,000	122,500	14 00	7 83
-	-	-	-	-	12 00	6 30
100,000	1,400	20,000	50,000	12,000	-	-
-	10,000	30,000	25,000	16,000	-	-
-	35,000	12,500	10,000	15,000	11 00	6 50
5,000	395	43,500	4,500	8,000	12 00	-
7,000	3,600	18,400	10,800	10,280	20 50	7 50
-	5,305	502,921	8,175	34,847	12 00	7 00

RETURNS OF

Number of returns.	Business.	Number employed.				Total wages paid.			
		Males.		Females.		Males.	Females.	Adults.	Children.
		Over 15 years old.	Under 15 years old.	Over 15 years old.	Under 15 years old.				
1	Bakeries.....	13	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
1	Bleacheries.....	331	26	27	-	\$ -	\$ -	\$ -	\$ -
5	Boots and shoes.....	1,123	5	533	1	130,000	40,000	168,515	1,48
1	Bricks.....	8	-	-	-	600	-	600	-
1	Canned fish.....	100	60	40	10	-	-	-	-
2	Carriages and sleighs....	18	-	-	-	8,000	-	8,000	-
2	Cigars.....	13	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
5	Clothing.....	6	1	225	-	-	-	-	-
1	Confectionery.....	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	Cotton goods.....	3,646	291	5,402	158	-	-	-	-
1	Copper.....	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	Doors, sash and blinds....	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Edge tools.....	88	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	Foundries.....	171	-	-	-	11,685	-	11,685	-
3	Furniture.....	52	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Granite.....	610	30	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Leather, sole.....	34	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Leather-board.....	70	-	10	-	-	-	-	-
1	Leatheroid.....	40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	Lumber.....	144	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
1	Lumber and grist mill....	32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	Lumber and starch.....	375	-	4	-	-	-	-	-
1	Paper.....	160	-	30	-	-	-	-	-
1	Roofing slate.....	160	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	Sewer pipe.....	60	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	Trunks and bags.....	15	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
1	White lead.....	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	Wire.....	30	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	Woolen goods.....	258	5	253	7	6,207	1,968	-	-

MANUFACTURERS—Continued.

Weekly wages, men.			Average annual earnings of men.	Weekly wages, women.		Average annual earnings of women.	Weekly wages.		Percentage of employes owning homes.	Accidents.	
Highest.	Lowest.	Average.		Highest.	Lowest.		Boys.	Girls.		Killed.	Injured.
\$15 00	\$8 00	-	-	\$4 00	\$4 00	-	-	-	.07	-	-
20 00	6 00	\$7 50	\$-	5 00	5 00	\$-	\$5 00	-	.05	-	4
19 80	6 80	11 46	545	15 20	5 80	427 50	4 33	\$5 75	.13	-	2
9 00	9 00	9 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
28 00	6 00	14 00	-	9 00	4 00	-	4 00	4 00	.20	-	-
12 50	5 50	9 75	500	-	-	-	-	-	.41	-	-
13 80	6 00	9 50	490	7 50	6 00	360 00	-	-	.13	-	-
17 00	5 50	12 00	-	8 00	3 58	352 00	-	-	.62	-	-
25 00	10 00	15 00	-	10 00	10 00	-	-	-	1.00	-	-
26 51	5 53	8 79	455	9 27	4 62	304 55	3 28	3 45	.02	-	1
18 00	7 50	10 42	510	-	-	-	-	-	.10	-	-
15 00	6 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.75	-	-
17 31	5 00	9 23	400	-	-	-	-	-	.50	-	-
20 30	6 20	11 00	550	-	-	-	-	-	.07	-	-
14 60	7 73	10 50	550	-	-	-	-	-	.42	-	3
22 75	7 50	12 32	494	-	-	-	4 95	-	.38	-	1
11 19	6 00	7 75	350	-	-	-	-	-	.29	-	-
19 00	7 50	10 50	450	8 50	5 25	300 00	-	-	.08	-	3
25 00	7 50	10 00	475	-	-	-	-	-	.05	-	-
14 43	6 50	9 80	433	-	-	-	-	-	.38	-	1
15 00	6 00	8 53	401	-	-	-	-	-	.30	-	-
19 33	5 33	8 75	-	3 00	1 00	104 00	-	-	.28	-	-
21 00	6 90	-	-	6 90	4 20	-	5 00	6 00	-	-	-
12 00	9 00	10 50	-	-	-	-	-	-	.12	-	1
18 00	7 00	9 50	-	-	-	-	-	-	.05	-	-
20 00	5 00	10 00	-	10 00	10 00	520 00	-	-	-	-	-
15 00	8 00	12 00	600	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20 58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.33	-	-
17 10	6 90	9 06	442	9 25	5 04	327 67	4 50	4 08	.25	-	2

RETURNS OF

Number of returns.	Business.	Strikes.	Lockouts.	Product and profit.				
				Value of goods manufactured	Gross profits.	Average product per employe.	Average profit per employe.	Average earnings per employe.
1	Bakeries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	Bleacheries	-	-	\$	-	-	-	-
5	Boots and shoes	-	-	2,581,263	-	\$1,698	\$14 05	\$430 50
1	Bricks	-	-	1,000	\$250	-	-	-
1	Canned fish	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Carriages and sleighs	-	-	13,000	-	1,250	-	-
2	Cigars	-	-	16,500	1,300	1,200	120 00	580 00
5	Clothing	-	-	161,400	-	-	-	-
1	Confectionery	-	-	100,000	5,000	-	-	-
11	Cotton goods	3	-	5,579,612	-	961	-	-
1	Copper	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	Doors, sash and blinds ...	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Edge tools	-	-	90,000	-	1,150	-	-
5	Foundries	-	-	117,000	5,000	-	-	-
3	Furniture	-	-	18,000	-	-	-	-
4	Granite	-	-	415,000	-	-	-	-
2	Leather, sole	-	-	165,000	-	-	-	-
2	Leather-board	-	-	250,000	30,000	2,000	-	-
1	Leatheroid	-	-	160,000	-	-	-	-
6	Lumber	-	-	193,500	3,000	1,800	50 00	-
1	Lumber and grist mill ...	-	-	42,000	-	-	-	-
3	Lumber and starch	-	-	182,000	10,000	440	31 00	350 00
1	Paper	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	Roofing slate	-	-	100,000	-	-	-	400 00
1	Sewer pipe	-	-	175,000	-	-	-	-
1	Trunks and bags	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	White lead	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	Wire	-	-	34,396	1,876	62	-	-
5	Woolen goods.	1	-	878,843	3,001	-	-	-

STRIKES.

“It is self evident that there should be no conflict between capital and labor, since both are necessary for the common weal, and one cannot subsist without the other, and, therefore, no measures should be countenanced which do not provide for the protection of both. Experience has proved that strikes are a questionable remedy for the redress of your grievances. They paralyze industry, they foment fierce passions and lead to the destruction of property, and, above all, they result in inflicting serious injury on the laborer himself by keeping him in enforced idleness, during which his mind is clouded by discontent while brooding over his situation, and his family not infrequently suffers from the want of the necessities of life. Strikes, therefore, should be rarely, if ever, resorted to.”—*Cardinal Gibbons.*

The third annual report of the United States Bureau of Labor, Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner, recently issued, relates to strikes and lockouts in the United States for the period of six years, beginning with January, 1881, and ending with December, 1886. The Honorable Secretary of the Interior kindly consented that the tables for Maine be furnished us by Commissioner Wright in advance of the publication of his report, and we are thus able to present in this first annual report of the Maine Bureau, the following interesting and instructive tabulations and summaries of strikes and lockouts that have occurred in Maine during the period designated.

The act establishing this Bureau makes it the duty of the Commissioner “to inquire into the immediate causes of strikes, lockouts or other disturbances of the relations between employers and employes.” The Commissioner has endeavored to carry out this requirement of the law, and herewith gives such data relating to strikes and lockouts that have occurred during the past year, as he has been able to obtain. Fortunately but few of these “disturbances of the relations between employers and employes” have taken place, and these have generally been of a local character and of short duration. The ten-hour law, which went into effect July 1st, 1887, produced some slight friction in the adjustment of new conditions, but a commendable disposition, on the part of both em-

ployers and employes, to meet these new conditions in a spirit of candor and compromise, has resulted, in a majority of cases, in the peaceful and satisfactory settlement of differences which, otherwise, might have resulted in serious consequences.

[From advanced sheets of Third

STRIKES BY YEARS

Industries and years.	Locality.	Cause or object.
1881.		
<i>Cotton goods.</i>		
Backboys and weavers.....	Biddeford...	For increase of wages
Backboys and weavers.....	Biddeford...	In sympathy with strike elsewhere.
Employees	Brunswick ..	For increase of wages
1882.		
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>		
Lasters.....	Biddeford...	For increase of wages
Lasters.....	Saco.....	For increase of wages
Employees	Biddeford...	For increase of wages
<i>Ship-building, etc.</i>		
Sail-makers	Thomaston ..	For increase of wages
1883.		
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>		
Employees	Warren.....	For increase of wages
<i>Cotton goods.</i>		
Weavers	Saco.....	For reinstatement of discharged overseer.....
<i>Telegraphy.</i>		
(Strike of July 19, see New York)..		
1884.		
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>		
Lasters	Auburn.....	For increase of wages and recognition of union
Lasters	Richmond ..	For increase of wages
<i>Ship-building.</i>		
Caulkers	Bath	For increase of wages
1885.		
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>		
Lasters	Springvale ..	For increase of wages
Lasters	Gardiner....	For increase of wages
Lasters	Norway.....	For increase of wages

Annual Report U. S. Bureau of Labor.]

AND INDUSTRIES—MAINE.

Ordered by labor organization.	Establishments.		Beginning.	End.	Duration (days).	Succeeded.	Employees'		Employers' loss.
	Number.	Days closed.					Loss.	Assistance.	
No.	1	10	June 13.	June 23, '81.	10	Partly.	\$ 20,000	-	-
No.	1	-	June 13.	June 23, '81.	10	Partly.	350	-	-
No.	1	3	Aug 8.	Aug. 11, '81.	3	Partly.	1,500	-	\$500
Yes.	1	-	Sept. 26.	Sept. 28, '82.	2	No.	10	75	50
Yes.	1	-	Sept. 26.	Nov. 1, '82.	36	No.	372	90	1,500
Yes.	1	7	Sept. 26.	Oct. 3, '82.	7	No.	954	105	200
No.	1	3	June 22.	June 28, '82	6	Yes.	188	-	500
No.	1	21	Feb. 10.	Mar. 3, '83.	21	No.	1,500	-	2,000
No.	1	-	Feb. 1.	Feb. 8, '83.	7	No.	1,000	-	800
No.	1	-	Feb. 28.	Dec. 4, '84.	280	No.	45,000	-	18,000
Yes.	1	20	July 2.	July 22, '84.	20	No.	8,100	-	-
No.	1	-	Sept. 1.	Sept. 8, '84.	7	No.	290	-	50
No.	1	-	Feb. 1.	Feb. 8, '85.	7	No.	56	-	100
Yes.	1	-	Aug. 17.	Aug. 24, '85.	7	Yes.	50	-	-
Yes.	1	-	Oct.	Oct., '85.	7	Yes.	540	-	-

STRIKES BY YEARS

Industries and years.	Number of employes.					
	Before strike.			After strike.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1881.						
<i>Cotton goods.</i>						
Backboys and weavers.....	700	1,200	1,900	700	1,200	1,900
Backboys and weavers.....	700	800	1,500	700	800	1,500
Employes.....	175	375	550	175	375	550
1882.						
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>						
Lasters.....	48	44	92	48	44	92
Lasters.....	40	45	85	40	45	85
Employes.....	50	54	104	20	54	74
<i>Ship-building, etc.</i>						
Sail-makers.....	15	-	15	15	-	15
1883.						
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>						
Employes.....	84	26	110	84	26	110
<i>Cotton goods.</i>						
Weavers.....	400	800	1,200	400	800	1,200
<i>Telegraphy.</i>						
(Strike of July 19, see New York).						
1884.						
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>						
Lasters.....	475	175	650	475	175	650
Lasters.....	150	150	300	150	150	300
<i>Ship-building, etc.</i>						
Caulkers.....	230	-	230	230	-	230
1885.						
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>						
Lasters.....	30	20	50	30	20	50
Lasters.....	125	100	225	125	100	225
Lasters.....	60	-	60	60	-	60

AND INDUSTRIES—Continued.

Average daily wages.				Employees striking.			Employees striking and involved.			New employees after strike.			Brought from other places	Weekly working hours.	
Before strike.		After strike.		Number.	Daily pay.		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		Before strike.	After strike.
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		Before.	After.									
\$	\$	\$	\$												
1 55	95	1 59	1 00	515	\$0 95	\$1 05	700	1200	1900	-	-	-	-	65	65
1 55	95	1 59	1 00	60	65	70	60	-	60	-	-	-	-	65	65
1 42	90	1 50	1 06	15	1 40	1 50	175	375	550	-	-	-	-	66	66
2 09	1 37	2 09	1 37	5	2 00	2 00	5	-	5	5	-	5	5	60	60
2 00	1 25	2 00	1 25	6	2 00	2 00	6	-	6	5	-	5	5	60	60
2 00	1 10	2 00	1 10	30	2 02	2 02	50	54	104	12	-	12	6	60	60
2 50	-	2 75	-	15	2 50	2 75	15	-	15	3	-	3	1	60	60
1 87	1 25	1 87	1 25	24	2 00	2 00	84	26	110	3	-	3	-	60	60
1 25	1 00	1 25	1 00	150	1 20	1 20	50	100	150	-	-	-	-	65	65
2 00	1 50	2 00	1 50	20	2 38	2 38	75	-	75	35	-	35	-	59	59
1 75	1 25	1 75	1 25	25	2 00	2 00	150	150	300	25	-	25	25	59	59
1 75	-	1 75	-	25	2 25	2 25	25	-	25	4	-	4	-	60	60
2 00	1 60	2 00	1 60	5	1 87	1 87	5	-	5	1	-	1	-	60	60
2 00	1 25	2 05	1 25	20	1 67	2 00	20	-	20	-	-	-	-	59	59
1 50	-	1 87	-	60	1 50	1 87	60	-	60	-	-	-	-	59	59

STRIKES BY YEARS

Industries and years.	Locality.	Cause or object.
1885—CONCLUDED.		
<i>Boots and shoes—Concluded.</i>		
Lasters	Norway	For increase of wages.....
Lasters	Skowhegan	For increase of wages.....
Employees	Gardiner	For increase of wages.....
<i>Stone quarrying and cutting.</i>		
Granite cutters.	St. George.....	In sympathy with strike elsewhere.
Granite cutters.....	Lewiston	For discharge of non-union man....
1886.		
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>		
Employees.....	Warren.....	For increase of wages.....
Lasters	South Berwick..	For adoption of union scale of prices.
<i>Cotton goods.</i>		
Loom fixers.....	Lewiston	For reinstatement of discharged employee
Speeder tenders.....	Brunswick.....	For increase of wages.....
Carders	Augusta	For increase of wages.....
Mule spinners.....	Augusta	Against change from day to piece work
<i>Lumber.</i>		
Employees, saw-mill	Gardiner	For increase of wages.
Employees, saw-mill	Gardiner	For reduction of hours.....
Employees, saw-mill	Gardiner	For increase of wages.....
Employees, saw-mill	South Gardiner..	For reduction of hours.....
<i>Public works, construction.</i>		
Ledgemen, etc., water works.....	Portland	For increase of wages.....
<i>Ship-building, etc.</i>		
Employees ship-building yard.....	Bath.....	Against reduction of wages
<i>Stone quarrying and cutting.</i>		
Quarrymen, granite.....	Biddeford	For increase of force.....
<i>Tobacco.</i>		
Cigar-makers	Portland.....	For increase of wages.....

AND INDUSTRIES—Continued.

Ordered by labor organization.	Establishments.		Beginning.	End.	Duration (days).	Succeeded.	Employees'		Employers' Loss.
	Number.	Days closed.					Loss.	Assistance.	
Yes.	1	-	Nov. 23.	Dec. 1, '85.	8	No.	\$560	\$ -	-
No.	1	-	Nov. 28.	July 20, '86.	234	No.	15,700	350	\$5,000
Yes.	1	7	Dec. 1.	Dec. 8, '85.	7	Yes.	1,000	-	500
Yes.	1	-	Mar. 10.	Apr. 1, '85.	22	No.	1,188	400	500
No.	1	-	Aug. 6.	Aug. 14, '85.	8	No.	154	-	48
Yes.	1	31	May 1.	June 1, '86.	31	Partly.	2,300	-	5,000
Yes.	1	15	May 20.	June 4, '86.	15	Yes.	6,825	-	2,000
No.	1	-	Feb. 4.	Feb. 5, '86.	1	No.	76	-	-
No.	1	-	Mar. 11.	Mar. 14, '86.	3	Yes.	75	-	-
No.	1	-	Apr. 23.	Apr. 25, '86.	2	No.	63	-	-
No.	1	-	July 12.	July 14, '86	2	Yes.	112	-	-
Yes.	1	9	Jan. 16.	Jan. 25, '86.	9	Yes.	700	-	-
Yes.	1	15	Mar. 22.	Apr. 6, '86.	15	Partly.	2,200	-	-
Yes.	1	7	May 3.	May 10, '86.	7	Yes.	450	20	300
Yes.	1	16	May 8.	May 24, '86.	16	No.	1,850	200	10,000
Yes.	1	-	May 1.	May 3, '86.	2	Partly.	210	-	25
Yes.	1	23	Sept. 12	Oct. 5, '86.	23	Yes.	10,000	200	5,000
Yes.	1	-	Dec. 4.	Dec. 10, '86	6	No.	1,800	-	600
Yes.	1	2	May 1.	May 3, '86.	2	Yes.	47	-	10

STRIKES BY YEARS

Industries and years.	Number of employees.					
	Before strike.			After strike.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1885. CONCLUDED						
<i>Boots and Shoes. Concluded.</i>						
Lasters	400	300	700	400	300	700
Lasters	300	300	600	300	300	600
Employes	125	100	225	125	100	225
<i>Stone quarrying and cutting.</i>						
Granite cutters	75	-	75	76	-	76
Granite cutters	18	-	18	18	-	18
1886.						
<i>Boots and shoes.</i>						
Employes	89	26	115	89	26	115
Lasters.....	150	150	300	100	100	200
<i>Cotton goods.</i>						
Loom fixers... ..	727	973	1,700	685	973	1658
Speeder tenders.....	250	450	700	250	450	700
Carders	250	450	700	250	450	700
Mule spinners.....	250	450	700	250	450	700
<i>Lumber.</i>						
Employes, saw-mill.....	70	-	70	70	-	70
Employes, saw-mill.....	100	-	100	100	-	100
Employes, saw-mill.....	45	-	45	15	-	15
Employes, saw-mill.....	75	-	75	35	-	35
<i>Public works, construction.</i>						
Ledgemen, etc., water works....	140	-	140	140	-	140
<i>Ship-building, etc.</i>						
Employes, ship-building yard....	300	-	300	300	-	300
<i>Stone quarrying and cutting.</i>						
Quarrymen, granite	227	-	227	215	-	215
<i>Tobacco.</i>						
Cigar-makers.....	8	2	10	8	2	10

AND INDUSTRIES—Continued.

Average daily wages.				Employees striking.			Employees striking and involved.			New employees after strike.			Brought from other places	Weekly working hours.	
Before strike		After strike.													
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Number.	Before.	After.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.			
\$	\$	\$	\$												
1 50	1 10	1 50	1 10	40	\$2 00	\$2 00	40	-	40	40	-	40	-	59	59
2 00	1 50	2 00	1 50	39	2 00	2 00	39	-	39	-	-	-	-	59	59
2 00	1 25	2 67	1 67	225	1 67	2 23	125	100	225	-	-	-	-	59	59
2 10	-	2 10	-	25	2 50	2 50	25	-	25	8	-	8	-	58	58
2 25	-	2 25	-	8	2 75	2 75	8	-	8	3	-	3	-	59	59
1 90	1 25	1 95	1 20	90	1 50	1 57	89	26	115	4	-	4	-	60	59
2 00	1 50	2 10	1 50	20	1 87	2 45	150	150	300	25	25	50	-	60	60
1 35	93	1 35	93	42	1 80	1 80	42	-	42	-	-	-	-	66	66
1 24	76	1 35	85	30	85	95	-	30	30	-	-	-	-	66	66
1 35	85	1 35	85	25	1 25	1 25	25	-	25	12	-	12	-	66	66
1 25	95	1 39	1 03	30	1 88	1 96	46	25	71	-	-	-	-	66	66
1 43	-	1 48	-	70	1 43	1 48	70	-	70	-	-	-	-	54	54
1 67	-	1 60	-	100	1 67	1 60	100	-	100	5	-	5	-	66	60
1 75	-	1 77	-	3	1 75	1 88	45	-	45	-	-	-	-	60	60
1 75	-	1 75	-	65	1 75	1 75	75	-	75	14	-	14	-	63	63
1 50	-	1 60	-	70	1 50	1 60	70	-	70	-	-	-	-	60	60
2 00	-	2 00	-	150	1 87	1 87	295	-	295	-	-	-	-	60	60
2 15	-	2 15	-	82	2 50	2 50	150	-	150	25	-	25	-	60	60
2 50	1 67	2 70	1 87	10	2 33	2 53	8	2	10	-	-	-	-	45	45

STRIKES BY YEARS

Industries and years.	Locality.	Cause or object.
1886—CONCLUDED.		
<i>Woolen goods.</i>		
Weavers	Dexter	For increase of wages
Employes	Warren	For increase of wages
Weavers	Dexter	Against discharge of union men...
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		
Employes, lime kiln	Rockland ...	For increase of wages
Employes, chemical fibre factory ...	Fairfield ...	For increase of wages and discharge of foreman
Employes, ice gathering company .	Bangor	For increase of wages
Employes, trunk factory	Bangor	For increase of wages
Employes, lime kiln	Rockland ...	Against violation of agreement ...

STRIKES BY YEARS

Industries and years.	Number of employees.					
	Before strike.			After strike.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1886—CONCLUDED.						
<i>Woolen goods.</i>						
Weavers	82	48	130	77	47	124
Employes	60	36	96	63	24	87
Weavers	82	48	130	78	48	126
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>						
Employes, lime kiln	1,275	-	1,275	1,275	-	1,275
Employes, chemical fibre factory.	110	-	110	75	-	75
Employes, ice gathering company.	50	-	50	50	-	50
Employes, trunk factory.	6	-	6	6	-	6
Employes, lime kiln	250	-	250	210	-	210

AND INDUSTRIES—Continued.

Ordered by labor organization.	Establishments.		Beginning.	End.	Duration (days).	Succeeded.	Employees'		Employers' loss.
	Number.	Days closed.					Loss.	Assistance.	
No.	1	-	May 1.	May 3, '86.	2	No.	51	-	45
Yes.	1	62	May 6.	July 7, '86.	62	No.	9,100	450	20,000
No.	1	-	Aug. 10.	Aug. 31, '86.	21	No.	288	-	150
No.	32	42	Jan. 23.	Mar. 6, '86.	42	Yes.	25,000	500	30,000
No.	1	-	Apr. 13.	Apr. 14, '86.	1	No.	54	-	1,000
No.	1	14	Apr. 24.	May 8, '86.	14	No.	1,050	-	400
Yes.	1	-	Apr. 26.	May 1, '86.	5	No.	30	157	25
Yes.	1	3	May 31.	June 3, '86.	3	No.	1,425	1000	5,000

AND INDUSTRIES—Concluded.

Average daily wages.				Employees striking			Employees striking and involved.			New employees after strike.			Brought from other places.	Weekly working hours.	
Before strike.		After strike.												Before strike.	After strike.
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Number.	Before.	After.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		Before strike.	After strike.
\$	\$	\$	\$												
1 35	95	1 35	95	10	\$1 50	\$1 50	14	3	17	5	1	6	-	65	65
2 12	1 25	1 50	87	60	1 82	1 38	40	20	60	46	24	70	-	65	60
1 40	1 00	1 40	1 00	10	1 60	1 60	10	-	10	10	-	10	-	65	65
1 65	-	1 90	-	900	1 60	1 87	1275	-	1275	-	-	-	-	56	56
1 35	-	1 35	-	20	1 35	1 35	40	-	40	30	-	30	-	66	66
1 75	-	1 75	-	15	1 85	1 85	50	-	50	25	-	25	-	60	60
1 50	-	1 60	-	4	1 50	1 60	4	-	4	4	-	4	4	60	60
1 90	-	1 90	-	250	1 90	1 90	250	-	250	40	-	40	-	56	56

LOCKOUTS BY YEARS

Industries and years.	Locality.	Cause or object
1885. <i>Boots and shoes.</i> Employes	Skowhegan..	For joining the Knights of Labor..
1886. <i>Cotton goods.</i> Employes	Lewiston.	Against demand for reinstatement of a discharged employe.....

LOCKOUTS BY YEARS

Industries and Years.	Number of employes.					
	Before lockout.			After lockout.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1885. <i>Boots and shoes.</i> Employes	125	100	225	125	100	225
1886. <i>Cotton goods.</i> Employes	727	973	1,700	727	973	1,700

AND INDUSTRIES.

Ordered by employers' organization.	Establishments.		Beginning.	End.	Duration (days).	Succeeded.	Employees'		Employers' loss.
	Number.	Days closed.					Loss.	Assistance.	
No	1	1	Nov. 1.	Nov. 2, '85.	1	Yes.	113	-	-
No.	1	45	Feb. 5.	Mar. 22, '86.	45	Yes.	73,593	3295	-

AND INDUSTRIES—Concluded.

Average daily wages.				Employees locked out.			Employees locked out and involved.			New employees after lockout.			Brought from other places.	Weekly working hours.	
Before lockout.		After lockout.		Number.	Daily pay.		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		Before lockout.	After lockout.
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		Before.	After.									
\$ 1 25	\$ 0 70	\$ 1 30	\$ 0 72	225	\$1 01	\$1 04	125	100	225	40	-	40	-	59	59
1 35	93 1 48	1 02		1,700	1 11	1 22	727	973	1,700	50	-	50	-	66	66

ALL INDUSTRIES

Industries.	Ordered by organization.		Establishments				Duration (days).		Results			Employees'	
			Number.	Number closed.		Succeeded.			Succ'ded partly.		Loss.	Assistance.	
	Yes.	No.		Aggregate days closed.	Average days closed.		Aggregate.	Average.	Failed.				
Boots and shoes	10	4	14	6	101	16.8	682	48.7	4	1	9	\$82,967	\$620
Cotton goods.	-	8	8	2	13	6.5	38	4.8	2	3	3	23,176	-
Lumber.	4	-	4	4	47	11.8	47	11.8	2	1	1	5,200	220
Public works construction.	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	2.0	-	1	-	210	-
Ship-building, etc	1	2	3	2	26	13.0	36	12.0	2	-	1	10,478	200
Stone quarrying and cutting	2	1	3	-	-	-	36	12.0	-	-	3	3,142	400
*Telegraphy.													
Tobacco	1	-	1	1	2	2.0	2	2.0	1	-	-	47	-
Woolen goods.	1	2	3	1	62	62.0	85	28.3	-	-	3	9,439	450
Miscellaneous.	2	34	36	34	1,361	40.0	1,367	38.0	32	-	4	27,559	1,657
Total	22	51	73	50	1,612	32.2	2,295	31.4	43	6	24	\$162,218	\$3,547

*Strike of July 19, 1883. See New York.

FOR ALL YEARS—(Summary).

Employers' loss.	Number of employes.						Employes striking.	Employes striking and involved.			New employes after strike.			Brought from other places.
	Before strike.			After strike.				Employes striking and involved.			New employes after strike.			
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
\$34,350	2,126	1,490	3,616	2,046	1,440	3,486	609	898	506	1,404	155	25	180	41
1,300	3,452	5,498	8,950	3,410	5,498	8,908	867	1,098	1,730	2,828	12	-	12	-
10,300	290	-	290	220	-	220	238	290	-	290	19	-	19	-
25	140	-	140	140	-	140	70	70	-	70	-	-	-	-
5,550	545	-	545	545	-	545	190	335	-	335	7	-	7	1
1,148	320	-	320	309	-	309	115	183	-	183	36	-	36	-
10	8	2	10	8	2	10	10	8	2	10	-	-	-	-
20,195	224	132	356	218	119	337	80	64	23	87	61	25	86	-
36,425	1,691	-	1,691	1,616	-	1,616	1,189	1,619	-	1,619	99	-	99	4
\$109,303	8,796	7,122	15,918	8,512	7,059	15,571	3,368	4,565	2,261	6,826	389	50	439	46

PERCENTAGES.

Strikes ordered by organizations.....	about 30 per cent.		
“ not ordered by “	“ 70 “		
Percentage of strikes that succeeded	“ 59 “		
“ “ “ partly succeeded	“ 8 “		
“ “ “ failed	“ 33 “		
“ loss of employes	“ 60 “		
“ “ employers.....	“ 40 “		

STRIKES IN 1887.

July 5th, twenty-one men in the employ of the Androscoggin Water Power Company, lumber mill, struck, assigning as a reason that they wished to leave off work at 3 o'clock Saturday P. M., instead of $3\frac{1}{2}$ o'clock. But sixty hours a week was demanded by the firm, the time-table being from $6\frac{1}{2}$ A. M. to 12 M., and from 1 P. M. to six minutes to 6 o'clock P. M., or ten hours and twenty-four minutes for five days in the week, and eight hours on Saturday. The strike failed. Work suspended but a few days.

July 8th, seventy-five weavers employed by the York Manufacturing Company struck on account of a rule forbidding operatives to put on their outer clothing until the ringing of the bell. Strike ended July 9th. Failed.

July 11th, Cabot Cotton Mill, Brunswick. Three hundred and twenty-five weavers struck for increase of wages. Wages increased five cents a cut, and work resumed after suspension of seven hundred operatives one week. Succeeded.

July 23d, Farwell Mills, Lisbon. Seventy-five weavers struck for advance in wages. Out about a week. Pay advanced $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Succeeded.

August 12th, Lockwood Company, cotton mill, Waterville. Cause of strike: those who work by the piece had their wages advanced August 1st, to make up for the shortened hours of labor, and the day help wanted more pay for a day of ten hours than they had received for eleven hours. Number engaged in the strike, about two hundred. Date of commencement of strike, Friday noon, August 12th; date of termination of strike, Tuesday noon, August 16th. Failed.

August 15th, Edwards Manufacturing Company, cotton mill, Augusta. Two hundred weavers struck for advance in pay. A disagreement had arisen between the manager and the weavers over the report of a committee agreed upon by them to investigate prices paid for piece work in other places. The Commissioner of this Bureau, and a prominent officer of the K. of L. were requested to use

their efforts for a settlement. The result was that all the strikers returned to work after a suspension of about eight days. Failed.

In August, a brief strike occurred at the Barker Mill, Auburn. The weavers and spoolers demanded more pay, and were allowed $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent advance. Succeeded.

In October and November strikes took place among the lasters employed in the shoe factories of David Cummings & Co., South Berwick, and W. F. Morgan & Co., Portland. Cause, disagreement as to prices on lasting machines. Reliable information as to results has not been obtained by us.

Two or three other unimportant "disturbances of the relations between employers and employes" have occurred during the past year.

PAUPERISM.

In the remarks on pauperism in the compendium of the tenth census, the statement is made that "it is almost, if not quite, impossible to obtain the statistics of pauperism." The reason assigned is, that as the community has the right to choose for itself the form and measure of relief, "it becomes a perpetually recurring question whether to provide for the permanently poor in almshouses or outside. This is a question which is answered in one way by one community, and in another by another, and even in the same community it is answered in one way at one time, and in another at another. The indoor poor, as the paupers in almshouses are called, can be found with comparative ease; but how are we to know when we have succeeded in finding the outdoor poor?" The admission is made that the census statistics of pauperism are very far below the actual number, for the reason that the enumeration is limited almost entirely to paupers in almshouses. In Maine, but a small proportion of persons supported wholly or in part by towns and cities are in almshouses. Much the larger number of those whom the poor laws of the State make paupers by reason of public relief furnished are cases of families living in their own homes, who, in winter, are compelled to call on the town for temporary assistance.

In many cases, as our returns show, the furnishing of a barrel of flour, a ton of coal, or a cord of wood, has made paupers of a family of six to eight persons. In July last blanks were sent to the overseers of the poor in every town and city in the State, making the following inquiries:

Number of paupers?

Number wholly supported?

Number partly supported?

Cost of support of paupers last year?

In what way are your paupers taken care of; on town farm or otherwise?

THE

Notwithstanding the difficulty of obtaining full returns under the "voluntary circular plan," to which this Bureau is confined in its efforts to obtain general information, the Commissioner is gratified to be able to state that, after repeated and persistent appeals, he

has succeeded in obtaining answers to the above questions *from every town and city in the State.*

These returns are tabulated by counties, and furnish, as we believe, a full and very nearly accurate statement of numbers of paupers, (including insane paupers) and expenses of support.

Counties.	Total No. paupers.	No. wholly supported.	No. partially supported.	Total expense.	No. towns owning town farm.	No. towns not owning town farm.
Androscoggin	460	179	281	\$26,198 71	11	2
Aroostook	254	85	169	11,301 11	4	32
Cumberland	2,330	275	2,055	47,775 03	20	6
Franklin	266	70	196	11,104 52	1	18
Hancock	345	154	191	20,888 95	2	29
Kennebec	736	242	494	32,791 24	16	13
Knox	338	95	243	18,675 54	5	10
Lincoln	184	97	87	11,255 19	2	14
Oxford	284	119	165	14,601 14	19	16
Penobscot	1,046	333	713	40,361 11	21	35
Piscataquis	134	45	89	5,394 82	6	13
Sagadahoc	314	59	255	10,785 70	4	7
Somerset	526	140	386	18,484 85	11	15
Waldo	371	139	232	17,288 72	8	18
Washington	752	246	506	29,176 58	6	41
York	1,192	266	926	36,035 04	22	5
Totals	9,532	2,544	6,988	\$352,138 25	158	274

The fourteen cities in Maine contain about 23 per cent of the population of the State.

Of the total number of paupers, 46 per cent are in the cities.

Of those wholly supported, 29 per cent in cities.

Of those partly supported, 52 per cent in cities.

Of total cost of support, 31 per cent is paid by the cities.

Average expense per individual pauper in cities, \$25.21.

Average expense outside of cities, \$46.95.

Average expense throughout the State, \$36.94.

PART 4.

[The historical portion of the following article is compiled largely from "The Story of Labor," by J. Cameron Simonds, of Chicago.]

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Organizations of working men are not a new thing. Ancient history abounds with evidence of the existence of "craft guilds," or associations of laborers. "Whether in the nations of antiquity these guilds were associations of free-laborers, possessing the democratic character of modern trades-unions, or whether they were mere bond-servants ranged by the despotic rulers into companies, according to their different crafts, each company under the superintendence of a government official, are questions that have excited some keen controversy. The evidence would seem to substantiate the former opinion."

The middle ages were prolific in societies of artisans and tradespeople, organized for the promotion of their several industries, and for protection against the rapacity of the feudal barons. The Dutch and Flemish guilds exercised a preponderating influence all through the middle ages. In the ninth and tenth centuries many craft guilds were found in Italy. They became so powerful that the heads of their organizations controlled the government. In Piedmont some charter guilds date from the year 707. The Records of Ravenna mention a guild of fishermen in 943, and a guild of butchers in 1001. In Southern Gaul, from time immemorial, the municipalities had their guilds, which formed the great bodies of free citizens. Foremost among all the craftsmen, from the tenth to the fourteenth century, were the weavers. They formed a kind of a great middle class between the aristocracy and the bond craftsmen. Other crafts worked to supply mere local demands. The products of the loom found markets in the most distant countries. This naturally invested them with greater importance. They were distinguished above

all others by their wealth, self-respect and sense of freedom. Their unions enjoyed, from the beginning, the greatest independence. We find the weavers' guilds of Mayence in 1099, and of Worms in 1114. The weavers' guilds of London and Oxford were chartered by Henry I, of England. In Flanders and Brabant, the first manufacturing countries of the middle ages, the influence of the wool weavers' guild was most prominent. In the reign of Henry II, of England, weavers' guilds, confirmed by the king, existed at Nottingham, York, Huntington, Lincoln and Winchester. After the weavers' guilds came the butchers' of Augsburg in 1104, and of Paris in 1134; the fishermen's guild of Worms in 1106; the shoemakers' of Magdeburg in 1157. In 1162, there were five craft guilds in Halle—the shoemakers, bakers, butchers, smiths and doublet-weavers. In 1180 there were fifteen craft guilds in London. In the thirteenth century they spread rapidly over all the countries of Europe. They appear in great numbers, as the traces of bondage disappear. The existence of the craft guilds was developed by the want of protection of the free craftsmen from the abuse of the lords, who tried to reduce the free to the level of the bondman, and by taxes and otherwise to encroach on the freeman's earnings."

*The history of the labor organizations of to-day is coeval with that of modern industry. It is now virtually but an adaptation to modern conditions of the same principle which united the medieval guilds; its traditions date back to the period when the two classes, the employer and employed, were first developed; its objects are those which inspired two hundred years of struggle in England; its methods, principles and practices are such as have been handed down through many generations. In brief, it is not a recent development, but an historic institution. The organization of the industrial classes has been found inevitable and necessary in the older countries and in this country; as inevitable as the instinct of self-defense is universal, and as necessary as the amelioration of human conditions.

The history of the British trade-union organizations forms one of the most interesting chapters in the history of the nation. As late as 1800, combinations of workmen were prohibited by law, as they had been two hundred and fifty years before. During the reign of Edward VI, if a man refused to work at statute prices, he was brand-

*From article on "Labor Organizations," in Fourth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois.

ed with the letter V, (vagabond) and became a slave for the period of two years, and if he attempted to escape when in the vagabond state he was branded with S, (slave) and became a slave for life, and if he objected to that state he was hanged. Notwithstanding the legislation of the 16th century, labor organizations multiplied, and through much suffering grew stronger. The ruling powers of England were slow to recognize the rights of laboring men, but the time came at last when the conviction took possession of their minds that the policy of repression was not only futile, but was a bad policy. In 1871 the last of the early English laws against the rights of the working men of the nation was swept away, and the trade-unions were formally legalized. These organizations have accomplished a great work. They have not only won a legal recognition, but have secured practical legislation "for the good of the working classes and the country, such as no other civilized country can show." Factory acts have been passed by which the condition of women and children has been vastly improved. The hours of labor have been shortened, machinery better guarded to prevent accidents, sanitary measures adopted, and inspectors appointed to enforce the laws. During the last fifteen years the membership of the societies has more than doubled. In 1885 the number of societies was 51, with a total membership of 545,260. Speaking of the administration of British trade-unions, Mr. Lord, Commissioner of the Illinois Bureau of Labor Statistics, says: "In the beginning the English trade-unions were often controlled by ignorant men, governed by prejudice, and not accustomed to the business of management. They made many blunders. They did not understand the nature of the markets for products, and often advised a strike when they were not justified in so doing by the condition of the trade. It may be said, however, that it was not so easy then to find out whether employers were making or losing money, and hence they struck more in the dark than they do now. But not the least among the advantages of the trade-union associations has been the education of the members concerning the elements of trade, the profits and losses in it, and the conditions of its success. The managers have become more intelligent, and administer their trusts with greater wisdom."

We quote from "The Story of Manual Labor" the following extracts relating to labor societies and trades-unions in the United States: The formation period of the present vast system of labor societies and trades-unions in the United States may be said to be-

gin with John Quincy Adams' accession to the presidency in 1825, and to continue till the incoming of President Lincoln and the outbreak of the civil war in 1861. The rapid increase of population during the first quarter of the century, the settlement of new territory west of the Alleghanies, and even west of the Mississippi river, the multiplication of industries and the greater growth of cities, had brought, and was constantly bringing, new conditions to which working people in the older communities of the seaboard could adjust themselves only through concerted action. The majority of artisans no longer worked in their own little shops, and the accumulation of capital was beginning to raise questions of conflicting interest between employer and employe. * * * * It was during Andrew Jackson's second administration that the first labor representative was elected to the Congress of the United States. The gentleman who won this distinction was Ely Moore, who in 1833 was president of "The General Trades-Unions of the City of New York." Like the central labor unions and trade assemblies of the present day, it aimed to unite, under one central head, all the unions of the city and vicinity. Its objects, as stated in an address delivered by Mr. Moore in December, 1833, were both political and economic; to guard the laborer against the encroachments of wealth; to preserve his natural and political rights; to narrow the line of distinction between employer and employed; to promote the latter's pecuniary interest, and to aid those out of employment. He also advanced the theory, since so generally adopted by all labor organizations, that the General Trades-Unions would diminish the number of strikes and lockouts, instead of increasing them. One significant clause of the constitution of this central body is, we believe, universally adopted by all recent central unions. It is, "No trade or art shall strike for higher wages than they at present receive without the sanction of this convention." Combination and conspiracy laws existed in most, if not all the States. The first victory of laboring men against these laws was won in the famous "Journeyman Bootmaker's" case in Massachusetts, in 1842. The prosecution brought against the Bootmakers' Union, under the old conspiracy laws, was then decided in favor of the defendants, and no question as to the legality of labor organizations has since been raised in that State. In the decade from 1830 to 1840, the agitation for the reform of labor abuses was more active than in any period of our history, previous to the civil war. Seth Luther, in a

lecture delivered at a number of places in New England, vigorously assailed the hard usage of children, that had become a feature of New England factory life. * * * Carter, Rantoul and Horace Mann, a little later, took up the advocacy of measures that should protect child operatives, and enable them to obtain, at least, some rudiments of education. * * * A powerful agent in alleviating the oppressions of factory management, was the New England Association, which first met in Boston in 1831, and again in 1832. It set on foot organized action in favor of the ten-hour day, improvement of the educational system, abolition of imprisonment, removal of restrictions upon the right of suffrage and for a mechanic's lien law. For elevating the condition of working people it proposed the organization of the whole laboring population of the United States, the separation of questions of practical reform from mere party contests, dissemination of labor literature and a judicious selection from among political candidates of the party to which working men may happen to belong, of those who would give the best guarantee of promoting the reforms in which working people were most deeply concerned. In 1849, the labor movement entered upon the last and most active decade of the formation period. Local labor unions, now, were not only rapidly increasing in numbers but were consolidating into national and international organizations. A national convention of compositors that met in New York in 1850, laid the foundation of the present International Typographical Union, including Canada and the United States, and having to-day a membership of 30,000 or more. National or international unions of hatters, metal workers, machinists, molders, blacksmiths, and a score of other trades were formed during the decade. The stout contest of the past thirty years had broken down many of the abuses and lifted many of the oppressions under which labor had suffered in the past, and in spite of the financial crash of 1857, some of whose evil effects still lingered, the working men of America found themselves in 1860 in a better position than they had ever occupied before. The multiplication of industries had broadened the avenues of employment, while improvements in the factory system had immensely increased the productive capacity of the working men, cheapening the product to the consumer and giving increased wages to the employe and to labor a larger relative share of the product. Then came the great contest for the nation's life. As a result of that contest, old systems were swept away, old prejudices

passed into history, the last debris of feudalism was cleared away, and the United States made ready for the good time to come. The boys came marching home, eager to hammer their swords into plowshares. Within six months over a million and a half of men, north and south, began productive work. Confidence in the future was never at a higher flood, and the field for the hand of industry was broad and inviting. The abolition of slavery raised the laborer of the South at a bound from the condition of the beast of burden to manhood. The emancipation of the slave was not a benefit to him alone; it was a distinct gain to all the farm workers in the land who came into competition with slave labor, or who produced the commodities which slave labor consumed. The effect of slave labor, like that of convict labor, was to force free labor to come to its condition and its wages. It worked for a bare subsistence, and produced under high pressure. It had only the scant necessities of life. It was not a purchaser in the market, but only an unfair competitor. * * * * Never in the history of the world did labor advance so rapidly as in the time lying between the close of the civil war and the present time. The history of the time is a history of organization and combination. Capital has been setting the pace by constantly growing corporations and pools, and labor is following along the well blazed path with strong unions and federations of working men stretching throughout the United States. Many of the local unions grew very strong, and the next step, that of national federation, was an easy one to make. A most important episode in the Story of Labor, was the rise and progress of the granger movement, which began in 1866, and which, nine years later, had a membership of 763,263. The Patrons of Husbandry are not strictly a combination of wage-earners, but their work has been done along the same lines. They have steadily put their influence against the growth of railroad and corporation monopolies. * * * * No one can legitimately object to capital receiving its fair share in the product of its employment, but capital which is not wealth, but water, which is nothing but the notoriously bad result of stock jobbing pools, is a burden which neither the laborer nor the farmer should rest quiet beneath.

THE KNIGHTS OF LABOR.

In October, 1869, nine men in Philadelphia met at the house of Uriah Stevens and joined themselves together in the society which is now known as the Knights of Labor. Its growth has been unparalleled in the history of labor organizations, numbering in its membership, in 1886, about 1,000,000 in the United States and 300,000 more in Canada. The cardinal principle of its constitution was to form a union of all wage-workers, irrespective of race, creed or color. It is not a trades-union nor an assemblage of trades-unions. It accepts the unskilled worker to as full fellowship as the most cunning artisan. The organization is simple and effective. The order is classified into local assemblies, district assemblies, State assemblies and the general assemblies. District assemblies are optional, the State assemblies being supreme.

The preamble and declaration of principles adopted by the last General Assembly is as follows :

The alarming developments and aggressiveness of great capitalists and corporations, unless checked, will inevitably lead to the pauperization and hopeless degradation of the toiling masses.

It is imperative, if we desire to enjoy the full blessings of life, that a check be placed upon unjust accumulation, and the power for evil of aggregated wealth.

This much desired object can be accomplished only by the united efforts of those who obey the Divine injunction : "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread."

Therefore we have formed the Order of the Knights of Labor, for the purpose of organizing and directing the power of the industrial masses, not as a political party, for it is more—in it are crystalized sentiments and measures for the benefit of the whole people, but it should be borne in mind when exercising the right of suffrage, that most of the objects herein set forth can only be obtained through legislation, and that it is the duty of all to assist in nominating and supporting with their votes only such candidates as will pledge their support to those measures, regardless of party. But no one shall, however, be compelled to vote with the majority, and calling upon all who believe in securing "the greatest good to the greatest number," to join and assist us, we declare to the world that our aims are :

I. To make industrial and moral worth, not wealth, the true standard of individual and national greatness.

II. To secure to the workers the full enjoyment of the wealth they create, sufficient leisure in which to develop their intellectual, moral and social faculties ; all of the benefits, recreations and pleasures of associa-

tion; in a word, to enable them to share in the gains and honors of advancing civilization.

In order to secure these results, we demand at the hands of the State:

III. The establishment of bureaus of labor statistics, that we may arrive at a correct knowledge of the educational, moral and financial condition of the laboring masses.

IV. That the public lands, the heritage of the people, be reserved for actual settlers; not another acre for railways or speculators, and that all lands now held for speculative purposes be taxed to their full value.

V. The abrogation of all laws that do not bear equally upon capital and labor, and the removal of unjust technicalities, delay and discriminations in the administration of justice.

VI. The adoption of measures providing for the health and safety of those engaged in manufacturing, mining and building industries, and for the indemnification of those engaged therein for injuries received through lack of necessary safeguards.

VII. The recognition by incorporation of trades unions, orders, and such other associations as may be organized by the working masses to improve their condition and protect their rights.

VIII. The enactment of laws to compel corporations to pay their employes weekly, in lawful money, for the labor of the preceding week, and giving mechanics and laborers a first lien upon the products of their labor to the extent of their full wages.

IX. The abolition of the contract system on National, State and municipal works.

X. The enactment of laws providing for arbitration between employer and employed, and to enforce the decision of the arbitrators.

XI. The prohibition by law of the employment of children under 15 years of age in workshops, mines and factories.

XII. To prohibit the hiring out of convict labor.

XIII. That a graduated income tax be levied.

And we demand at the hands of Congress:

XIV. The establishment of a national monetary system, in which a circulating medium in necessary quantity shall issue direct to the people, without the intervention of banks; that all the national issue shall be a full legal tender in payment of all debts, public and private; and that the Government shall not guarantee or recognize any private banks, or create any banking corporations.

XV. That interest bearing bonds, bills of credit or notes shall never be issued by the government, but that, when the need arises, the emergency shall be met by issue of legal tender, non-interest bearing money.

XVI. That the importation of foreign labor under contract be prohibited.

XVII. That, in connection with the post office, the government shall organize financial exchanges, safe deposits and facilities for deposit of the savings of the people in small sums.

XVIII. That the government shall obtain possession, by purchase under the right of eminent domain, of all telegraphs, telephones and railroads, and that hereafter no charter or license be issued to any corporation for construction or operation of any means of transporting intelligence, passengers or freight.

And while making the foregoing demands upon the State and National government, we will endeavor to associate our own labors.

XIX. To establish co-operative institutions such as will tend to supersede the wage system, by the introduction of a co-operative industrial system.

XX. To secure for both sexes equal pay for equal work.

XXI. To shorten the hours of labor by a general refusal to work for more than eight hours.

XXII To persuade employers to agree to arbitrate all difference which may arise between them and their employes, in order that the bond of sympathy between them may be strengthened and that strikes may be rendered unnecessary.

Section 13 of the Constitution is as follows: "No strike shall be declared or entered into by any member or members of any local assembly without the sanction of the executive board of the district or local assembly, as the case may be."

SEC. 14. "Any member or members of any local assembly, having a grievance requiring adjustment, shall report the facts of the case in writing to the officers of the district, who shall take the matter into full consideration, and use every effort to avoid a conflict. When any member or members of a local assembly strikes or quits work without the sanction of their executive board, they shall not be entitled to the benefits of the assistance fund.

In the administration of its affairs, as in that of the early career of trades-unions, mistakes have been made which have prejudiced the minds of the general community against the order. The cause of labor cannot be advanced by violent means but *can* and *will* be promoted by *careful organization and peaceful and constitutional remedies*.

THE ORDER IN MAINE.

The District Recording Secretary reported at the meeting of the Assembly, July 28th, 1886, that there were then in Maine 118 local Assemblies, with a membership of 17,503, an increase, since the last annual report, of 74 assemblies and 12,903 in membership.

The semi-annual report of the Secretary, made July 26th, 1887, was as follows: Whole number of locals reported January 1st, 1887, 124; number admitted since, 5—129; number of locals lapsed,

18; number of locals, July 1, 1887—111. The membership was not stated.

In his report made at the sixth session of District Assembly 86, held at Biddeford, July 26th and 27th, 1887, the District Master-Workman referred to the condition of the order in the following words: "The delegates attending this session must be, doubtless, aware of the alarming decrease in membership during the latter half of the past year. To use the language of another, 'members were leaving the order with as much haste and as little ceremony as rats leave a sinking ship.' To stay this wholesale exodus was my first consideration, and to beget in the membership of the locals confidence in the administration of district affairs. Had this exodus continued in the same ratio we would be an organization only in name to-day. The statistics will show a falling off in the membership of the locals reporting April 1st, but I confidently expect that the report of the District Recording Secretary at this session will show that the exodus has practically ceased; and here I would call the attention of delegates to the fact, that the strength or influence of this organization does not depend so much upon the number of members as upon their activity and zeal in promoting the cause which we have espoused, and I have no hesitation in saying, that, all things considered, the order is in better condition to-day, than at any previous time in its history in Maine."

TRADES-UNIONS.

Several important trades have local unions in Maine. The ones that this Bureau has been able to obtain reliable statistics concerning are the Typographical Unions, the Unions of Locomotive Firemen and Engineers, the Carpenters and Joiners' Union, and the Granite Cutters' Union. The Commissioner hopes to be able to obtain full statistics relating to all trades-unions in Maine, for his second annual report.

TYPOGRAPHICAL UNIONS.

There are two of these organizations in the State, one in Portland and one in Bangor. We are indebted to W. U. Greene, Esq., for the following synopsis of the organization and history of the Portland Typographical Union:

Under date of Dec. 5, 1863, the following call, with the signatures of forty-two well-known printers, was placed on record:

“In view of the daily increasing importance of the ‘craft’ in this city, it has been thought advisable by some of its most influential members that a meeting be held by the ‘craft’ generally, to discuss matters of much importance to themselves; and take into consideration the advisability of forming a protective union.”

At the preliminary meeting Daniel Hamblen was chairman and Charles H. Ford secretary, and on the receipt of the charter from the National Typographical Union, the organization of the new Union was perfected. Thirty-one names were at once appended to the constitution, officers elected (Daniel Hamblen being chosen President and Wm. H. Cushing, Recording Secretary), and letters sent out to sister Unions, advising them of the birth of the new Union, in answer to which came congratulatory replies from many of the larger Eastern cities. At the next meeting a scale of prices under which Union members should work was reported, and at a subsequent meeting adopted. In the early part of 1865 a strike was ordered in the offices of the Argus and Press, which, after a show of firmness by the men and a calm consideration of the matter by the proprietors, was satisfactorily settled, and the men instructed to return to work. New members were being taken in at every meeting, and as the Union increased in strength it lent its hand liberally to assisting and improving the condition of their fellow-laborers, and played an important part in the organization of a Trades Assembly, which had a brief existence about this time.

Up to 1866 there had been but little change in the working officers of the Union. March 10, of this year, John H. Russell, who was occupying the position of President, resigned, as he was going away; but his resignation as a member was not accepted, for he was placed on the honorary roll, amid flattering resolutions. Then came the days and nights that tried men’s souls—the great fire. Quite a number of the members who were in business lost heavily, and at the meeting following the catastrophe all the funds the Union had in bank were ordered to be drawn out and distributed among the members who had suffered loss. Sister unions came to the rescue, \$344.62 being received from them, which was also duly apportioned. At the annual meeting this year, Dec. 8, Isaac Cobb was elected treasurer, which position he has faithfully held to the present time. The members appear to have gradually recovered from the effects

of the fire, for Oct. 17, 1868, a deposit of \$75 was made in the bank, and from that time the Union has met with no very severe reverses. It has always been liberal to deserving members, and responded generously to calls from sister Unions. In October, 1871, the year of the Chicago fire, \$100 was voted to the Typographical Union of that city, and a generous amount forwarded to the aid of the New Haven Union.

At the November meeting in 1871, the members felt so prosperous that it was decided to have a supper after the annual meeting, and this was afterwards supplemented by voting to hold a "Christmas Dance" at City Hall, under the auspices of the Union. Both of these events took place, and were very successful. Since the above date the supper has been a necessary adjunct to the annual meeting.

Of the original charter grantees, Daniel Hamblen, Wm. H. Cushing, John H. Russell, Chas. F. Gammon, Chas. H. Ford, Geo. H. Holden, Benj. F. Nelson, four are now living. B. F. Nelson died in 1868, Wm. H. Cushing, the first recording secretary, in the summer of 1873, and Charles F. Gammon about five years ago.

In July, 1873, a relief society was formed by the members of the Union, and continued in existence in connection with it until last year, when it was merged into an organization known as the Portland Typographical Relief Society, with independent officers, its object being to afford relief to such members of the Union as wished to connect themselves with the relief society. This adjunct now has an invested fund of nearly \$1,000, pays \$4 a week benefit for 13 successive weeks, and has about 30 members. As an instance of the general good health of printers, but one relief assessment has been paid out the past year.

The Union has been represented at most of the important conventions of the National and International Typographical Union, and within the past few years the interest in and growth of the local Union has been steady and sure. At the present time there is a membership of nearly 60, and a goodly number of honorary members, embracing names well-known and highly respected in the walks of journalism—among whom none has been more faithful and courteous in his relations with the Union and individual members than Stephen Berry. In the early days of the organization Charles H. Ford did yeoman's service, being first Corresponding Secretary and holding the office a number of years. Regularly every month he read his little batch of circulars from sister Unions, and faithfully

performed the duties of the office until his transferment to the honorary list. Wm. M. Marks also lent his cool judgement to the counsels of the Union in these times, and has ever remained a firm friend. The late S. A. Strout (of the firm of Brown Thurston & Co.) was also at one time an active member, and in his business career remained steadfast to Union principles. Other honoraries might be flatteringly mentioned, but their well-known modesty forbids reference to their friendliness to the interests of this Union.

Among the members of this Union who have acquired distinction in other callings and those who have been eminently successful in the "art preservative," may be mentioned F. G. Patterson, formerly a well-known real estate broker; Theodore N. Salte, a most successful comedian at Fanny Marsh's Theater for several seasons; B. Esau, now foreman of the Boston Post composing room; John H. Russell, at present manager of a large printing establishment in Chicago; Herman Q. Mason, a proof reader in the New York Herald office; and Wm. H. Tobie, who went west at the time of the gold fever, and founded the Sacramento Bee, now one of the most influential papers on the Pacific coast. In almost every composing room in Boston graduates of this Union are holding "sits," and other former members are scattered throughout the length and breadth of this great country.

THE PRESENT ORGANIZATION.

This society is now known and designated as Portland Typographical Union, No. 66, existing by virtue of a charter from the International Typographical Union, and was organized for the purpose of concentrated efforts for the general welfare of those who are employed in the art of printing, and to preserve the rights of all persons employed as aforesaid. The objects of the Union are the maintenance of a fair rate of wages, the encouragement of good workmen, and the employment of every means which may tend to the elevation of printers in the social scale of life.

Any printer (which shall include any one who is directly engaged in publishing books, newspapers, etc.) who is 21 years of age, and has worked not less than five years at the business, may become a member of the Union by making proper application, and complying with the requirements of the constitution.

ITS PRINCIPLES.

The principles which are advocated by the International Union and indorsed by this body are summarized as follows :

The indenturing of apprentices is considered the best means calculated to give that efficiency which it is desirable printers should possess, and also to give the necessary guarantee to employers that some return will be made them for a proper effort to turn out competent workmen. The term of service should not be less than five years, beginning at the age of 15.

Regulations should be made limiting the number of apprentices to be employed in each office to one for such number of journeymen as may seem to them just.

The proprietors or foremen of printing offices should have the right to employ or discharge help at will, so long as they comply with the laws and regulations of the subordinate union in whose jurisdiction the office is located and the discharge is not for maintaining union principles.

The International Union regards the resort to strikes as inexpedient, except where the rules or principles of the International or of a subordinate union may have been violated. Recognizing strikes as detrimental to the best interests of the craft, it recommends subordinate unions not to order a strike until every possible effort has been made to settle the difficulty.

The meetings are held the first Saturday in the month; present membership, 58; Union fund, \$165; relief fund, \$1,000; honorary members, 14.

THE BANGOR TYPOGRAPHICAL UNION.

Organized Dec. 11th, 1886. Number of members Dec. 16th, 1887, 24.

LOCOMOTIVE FIREMEN.

This Brotherhood was founded Dec. 1st, 1873, by nine locomotive firemen, who met in an old car shed in Port Jarvis, N. Y., and organized Deer Park Lodge, No. 1, of the "Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen." The following is the preamble to their constitution :

For the purpose of uniting Locomotive Firemen and elevating their social, moral and intellectual standing, and for the protection

of their interests and the promotion of their general welfare, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen has been organized. The interests of our members and their employers being identical, we recognize the necessity of co-operation, and it is the aim of the Brotherhood to cultivate a spirit of harmony between them upon a basis of mutual justice. Realizing the fact that our vocation involves ceaseless peril, and that it is a duty we owe ourselves and our families to make suitable provisions against those disasters which almost daily overtake us on the rail, the necessity of protecting our interests as firemen, of extending to each other the hand of charity, and being sober, industrious and honorable men, becomes self-evident; and hence the Brotherhood has adopted as its cardinal principles the motto:

Protection, Charity, Sobriety and Industry.

In January, 1886, it had 300 lodges and a membership of over 16,000. Its last report shows that it has paid out of its beneficiary fund, \$271,764, and to members that have been totally disabled, \$44,000 more, making a grand total of \$315,764. This has gone to those whose extra-hazardous calling does not allow them the advantages of life and accident insurance.

In Maine there are two of these lodges; one at Portland with a membership of about 150, and one at Vanceboro, recently established.

LOCOMOTIVE ENGINEERS.

This order has at the present time a total membership in the United States of about 25,000, divided among 400 divisions. In Maine there are two divisions, one at Portland, established about sixteen years ago, with a present membership of 149. This division includes all engineers on the Maine branches of the Boston & Maine, Eastern, Maine Central, and a number of smaller railroads. The second division was organized in April, 1887, at Vanceboro, and named "The Missing Link." This division includes the New Brunswick railroads, and, as is claimed, this "Link" makes one universal Brotherhood among the engineers of the North American continent.

THE CARPENTERS' AND JOINERS' UNION.

There is but one local Union organized in Maine, that at Portland, organized in October last, with a membership, Nov. 1st, of 30. The objects of this brotherhood are: "To rescue our trade from the low level to which it has fallen by discouraging piece-work; to re-establish an apprentice system; to encourage a higher standard of skill; to cultivate feelings of friendship among the men of the craft; to assist each other to secure employment; to reduce the hours of labor; to secure adequate pay for labor; to furnish aid in case of death or disability, and by legal and proper means to elevate the moral, intellectual and social condition of our members."

THE GRANITE CUTTERS' UNION.

The Granite Cutters' National Union was organized at Rockland, Maine, March 10th, 1877. Its first Secretary was Hon. Thompson H. Murch who served until his election to Congress in 1878. In 1879, Josiah B. Dyer was elected Secretary and has continued in office ever since, his official residence at the present time being in New York City. At the first, the union was largely confined to Maine where were then a great number of stone cutters employed on government contracts at Dix Island, Clark's Island, Hurricane and Vinal Haven. Under these circumstances, the union started out with very bright prospects, but a strike for a bill of prices that took place at Vinalhaven, coming as it did before the union was fairly organized, proved very injurious to its early success and usefulness. This strike, followed by the great strike at Quincy, Massachusetts and other places, gave the union a severe blow, but time and experience, with thorough organization and more conservative ideas in the management have united in placing the union in the front rank of the labor organizations of the country. To-day, its branches are found in twenty-one States, extending from Maine to California. At the present time there are about seventy-five branches of the union, with a membership of five thousand. Maine has ten branches and about five hundred members. These branches are located as follows: Belfast, Long Cove, Clark's Island, Round Pond, Biddeford, Green's Landing, Hurricane, Vinal Haven, East Blue Hill and South Thomaston.

MAINE STATE GRANGE.

The town of Hampden, in the agricultural county of Penobscot, has the honor of being the first town that raised the grange banner. The first grange in the State was organized in that town, October 31st, 1873, fourteen years ago, and very properly took the name of Eastern Star Grange, No. 1, P. of H. This was the morning star of the grange organization; it led the way and has shone brightly ever since, and to-day is one of the most efficient granges in the State, having over one hundred active members. The Subordinate Grange is the unit of the organization.

A BRIEF HISTORY.

The State Grange was formed April, 1874, over thirteen years ago. The following statement gives a summary of the progress of the grange in the State since that period.

In Dec., 1874, there were	70 subordinate granges and about	2,000 Members.
" 1875, "	136 "	5,000 "
" 1876, "	255 "	12,040 "
" 1877, "	small gains in granges	9,637 "
" 1878, "	140 subordinate granges	8,215 "
" 1879, "	133 granges (no new ones)	7,215 "
" 1880, "	119 " (3 new ones)	7,039 "
" 1881, "	140 subordinate granges	8,549 "
" 1882, "	158 "	10,755 "
" 1883, "	177 granges (16 new ones)	12,164 "
" 1884, "	186 " (9 new ones)	13,105 "
" 1885, "	184 subordinate granges	13,531 "
" 1886, "	199 granges (15 new ones)	14,531 "
" 1887, "	209 " (10 new ones) and over	15,000 "

Nelson Ham of Lewiston was State Master for the years 1874-75-76-77. Daniel H. Thing of Mt. Vernon was State Master for the years 1878-79-80-81.

Frederick Robie of Gorham has been State Master for the years 1882-83-84-85-86-87. Two hundred and ninety granges have been organized in the State of Maine since its commencement. Many have become dormant for the lack of efficient leaders and good management. Ten new granges have been organized during the past year and the order has in the State of Maine to-day 210 live and active subordinate granges, 16 pomona or county granges and over 15,000 active members. The National Organization, had a permanent

foothold in twenty-nine widely separated States of the Union, when the State of Maine fell into line in the year 1874. There are now State organizations in thirty-three different States. Only sixteen subordinate granges were represented at the first State meeting. An examination of the minutes of that meeting show that it was a day of doubt, weakness and of experiment, but an examination of its annual reports now show that the Patrons of Husbandry have done good work, and have steadily increased in numbers, and the order is in a good financial standing. But those inside the gates are better able to judge, and most willingly testify that the grange has made great improvement in methods of co-operation, a steady advancement in social culture, agricultural education, and made proficiency in those peculiar characteristics and methods which grange economy and the aims set forth in its declaration of purposes teach and inculcate. The grand object of the grange is the elevation of the American farmer.

At the St. Louis session, in February, 1874, the National Grange issued its first "Declaration of Purposes," a portion of which read as follows :

"We shall endeavor to advance our cause by laboring to accomplish the following objects :

To develop a better and higher manhood and womanhood among ourselves. To enhance the comforts and attractions of our homes, and strengthen our attachments to our pursuits. To foster mutual understanding and co-operation. To maintain inviolate our laws and to emulate each other in labor, to hasten the good time coming. To reduce our expenses, both individual and corporate. To buy less and produce more, in order to make our farms self-sustaining. To diversify our crops, and crop no more than we can cultivate. To condense the weight of our exports, selling less in the bushel and more on hoof and in fleece ; less in lint, and more in warp and woof. To systematize our work, and calculate intelligently on probabilities. To discountenance the credit system, the mortgage system, the fashion system, and every other system tending to prodigality and bankruptcy.

We propose meeting together, talking together, working together, buying together, selling together, and, in general, acting together for our mutual protection and advancement, as occasion may require. We shall avoid litigation as much as possible by arbitration in the

Grange. We shall constantly strive to secure entire harmony, good will, vital brotherhood among ourselves, and to make our order perpetual. We shall earnestly endeavor to suppress personal, local, sectional and national prejudices, all unhealthy rivalry, all selfish ambition. Faithful adherence to these principles will insure our mental, moral, social and material advancement."

At the same time they declared it to be their purpose to bring consumer and producer together; to wage no warfare upon any other interest; to advance the cause of education among the brotherhood and for their children by all the means in their power; to destroy sectionalism, and, last but not least, to inculcate a proper appreciation of the abilities and sphere of woman.

An Act to provide for the Fortnightly Payment of Wages.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in Legislature assembled, as follows:

SECTION 1. Every manufacturing, mining, quarrying, stone-cutting, mercantile, horse railroad, telegraph, telephone and municipal corporation, and every incorporated express and water company, and any person or firm engaged in any of the above specified kinds of business, having in their employ more than ten persons, shall pay fortnightly each and every employe engaged in its business, the wages earned by such employe to within eight days of the date of said payment; provided, however, that if at any time of payment, any employe shall be absent from his regular place of labor, he shall be entitled to said payment at any time thereafter on demand.

SEC. 2. Any corporation violating any of the provisions of this act, shall be punished by a fine not less than ten nor more than twenty-five dollars on each complaint under which it is convicted, provided, complaint for such violation is made within thirty days from the date thereof.

SEC. 3. When a corporation against which a complaint is made under this act, fails to appear after being duly served with process, its default shall be recorded, the allegations in the complaint taken to be true, and judgment rendered accordingly.

SEC. 4. When judgment is rendered upon any such complaint against a corporation, the court may issue a warrant of distress to compel the payment of the penalty prescribed by law, together with costs and interest.

SEC. 5. The provisions of this act shall not apply to municipal officers whose services are paid for by the day, or to teachers employed by municipal corporations.

SEC. 6. This act shall take effect May one, eighteen hundred and eighty-seven.

The above act, passed by the last Legislature, has been the occasion for much correspondence between complaining employes and this Bureau. There has been a popular impression that its enforcement was imposed upon the Commissioner of the "Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics," or upon the Deputy Commissioner appointed under the "Act to regulate the hours of labor, &c." The extent and applications of the provisions of the act have also been popularly misapprehended.

The following questions propounded by A. A. Beaton, District Master Workman of D. A. 86, K. of L., to Hon. C. E. Littlefield, Speaker of the House of Representatives, in the Legislature which enacted the law, and the latter's well-considered answers, will enable the people to understand the character and scope of the law, and the means of its enforcement:

ROCKLAND, ME., October 31, 1887.

HON. C. E. LITTLEFIELD.

Dear Sir:—I beg to submit for your consideration and advice, Chapter 134 of the Public Laws of the State of Maine, 1887, entitled, "An Act to provide for the Fortnightly Payment of Wages," and desire especial information upon the following questions, viz:

Ques. 1. Sec. 1. What courts have jurisdiction, or, in what courts should action be brought to compel corporations and other parties specified in the section to comply with its provisions?

Ques. 2. Does a non-compliance with the provisions of section 1 constitute a criminal offense, and, if so, is it the duty of the several county attorneys to prosecute the offenders?

Ques. 3. Can action be brought in the case of each individual employe, whose wages have not been paid in compliance with the provisions of this section?

Ques. 4. Who are deemed *legal* complainants, or, in other words, must the complainant be an aggrieved or interested party, suffering on account of a non-compliance on the part of the violators?

Ques. 5. Sec. 2. What disposition is to be made of the penalty provided for in this section?

Ques. 6. Does the penalty specified here apply simply to "corporations" and not to "any person or firm engaged in any of the above specified kinds of business, having in their employ more than ten persons" named in section 1?

Ques. 7. Do you infer from the whole chapter that there is any penalty imposed for a violation of section 1, by "any person or firm engaged in any of the above specified kinds of business" named in section 1?

Ques. 8. Does the latter clause of section 2, mean that the complaint must be made within thirty days from the time when the statute was violated by non-payment of wages as provided by section 1?

Ques. 9. Sec. 3. Are "corporations" simply included in the provisions of this section, or does it equally apply to "any person or firm engaged in any of the above specified kinds of business, having in their employ more than ten persons," named in section 1?

Ques. 10. What is meant by "warrant of distress" in section 4?

Ques. 11. Sec. 4. Do the provisions of this section apply simply to "corporations," or do they equally apply to "any person or firm engaged in any of the above specified kinds of business, having in their employ more than ten persons," named in section 1?

Desirous of an explicit and plain interpretation of this chapter for the benefit of those in whose interest the statute was framed, I have propounded the foregoing questions and desire legal information as to them, and such other points as in your judgment shall throw light upon the statute in question.

Yours very truly,

A. A. BEATON, D. M. W., D. A. 86.

ROCKLAND, November 1, 1887.

A. A. BEATON, Esq.

Dear Sir:—Yours of the 31st ult., containing certain specific inquiries, as to the construction of chapter 134 of the Public Laws of Maine for the year 1887, at hand, and in reply thereto I have to say, answering your questions in their order:

First. Trial justices have original jurisdiction of complaints under this chapter, except where police or municipal courts, have the exclusive jurisdiction over such offenses, as is the case in most of our cities. Violations of this act occurring in cities where such courts have exclusive jurisdiction should be prosecuted by complaint in such courts. Violations occurring outside of such exclusive jurisdiction may be prosecuted before any trial justice in the county where the violations occur. A trial justice could only impose the minimum fine under this act, as their general jurisdiction only authorizes them

to fine to the extent of ten dollars. Revised Statutes, chapter 132, section 4. The police and municipal courts usually have a larger jurisdiction. I should not be able to give you the extent of their jurisdictions in detail, without an examination of the acts creating them, which I have not at hand.

Second. Proceedings under this act must be prosecuted on behalf of the public and in a strict legal sense violations of the act constitute a criminal offense. The statute makes it the duty of the county attorneys to "enforce the collection and payment to the county treasurer, of all fines, forfeitures and costs, accruing to the State." Revised Statutes, chapter 79, section 18. This applies of course to all offenses where the fine or penalty goes to the State. Fines collected under this act go to the State. Strictly, or technically, speaking, it is the duty of the county attorneys to prosecute in all such cases. The universal practice, in case of minor offenses, such as we are considering, is, however, for the parties to institute their prosecutions in the lower courts, without the assistance of the county attorneys, and if they reach the Supreme Court, either by appeal, or by reason of the magistrates holding them to answer before the grand jury, the county attorney then takes the sole charge of the prosecution. If the magistrates are intelligent, and competent, there is ordinarily no occasion for the service of an attorney before them.

Third. Each failure to pay wages according to the provisions of the act, is a violation of the act, and for each violation a separate complaint may be made, and if found guilty a fine imposed in each case.

Fourth. Any person who has a sufficient knowledge of the facts and is competent to make complaints in other criminal cases, can make a complaint for a violation of this act.

Fifth. The penalty accrues to the State, and is paid to the county treasurer in the county where the violations are prosecuted. Revised Statutes, chapter 131, section 13.

Sixth. The penalty applies only to corporations.

Seventh. No penalty is provided by the act, for a violation of its provisions by "any person and firm." It was undoubtedly the intention of the Legislature to include "persons or firms" in the punitive provisions of the act, and the failure to so include them, was undoubtedly the result of inadvertence.

Eighth. Complaints must be within thirty days from the date of the violations complained of, otherwise the complaints will be barred.

Ninth. Corporations only, are included in the provisions of section 3 of this act.

Tenth. A warrant of distress, is a warrant authorizing a penalty or other sum of money, to be levied by distress, and sale of the defendant's goods. It is an unusual proceeding, but considered necessary, as in this case, where the corporation has no such person or body as could be committed on failure to pay the fine.

Eleventh. The provisions of section 4, apply only to corporations. Sections 3 and 4 are supplemental to, and depend upon, section 2. Their only purpose is to carry out the provisions of section 2, and as the fine in section 2 only applies to corporations, the consequences attending the imposition of the fine can only apply to corporations.

I find that this act is substantially a copy of "An Act to provide for the Weekly Payment of Wages by Corporations" passed by the Massachusetts Legislature, and approved March 22, 1886. Sections 2, 3 and 4 are almost exact copies in their phraseology. The only change in the first section is the interpolation of persons or firms, etc. It is obvious that in changing the act so as to affect persons and firms, the person who made the new draft did not carry it far enough, and thus the penalties fail to apply to a "person or firm."

Very respectfully.

C. E. LITTLEFIELD,

LOAN AND BUILDING ASSOCIATIONS.

We are indebted to Gen. Charles Hamlin of Bangor, and the reports of the Bank Examiner, for the following information as to the condition, purposes and methods of the form of co-operation known as

Loan and Building Associations.

As the Legislature has recognized the usefulness of these associations by providing for their organization, it seems proper to explain their system in order that it may be more generally understood. With careful, honest management, they can hardly fail to produce beneficial results. Such has been the case in Boston, Chicago, Philadelphia, and other smaller places in the United States. In Massachusetts there are upward of 51 organizations, earning average dividends of 8 per cent; in Chicago there are nearly 200; in New Jersey, 156, earning an average of $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per annum, while in Philadelphia 343 associations are in active operation, using a capital of over

\$80,000,000. *The object of these associations is to enable persons of small means and limited income to buy or build their houses.* This is accomplished by small monthly assessments applied to payment on the title instead of rent. The time required to complete the ownership is about ten years. Strictly speaking, building associations are co-operative banks applied to house-building. The provisions for their organization and management may be found in chapter 47, Revised Statutes, as amended by chapter 61, Acts of 1887. This new act contains a careful revision of the entire subject, and is, in fact, a complete code, with all the recent improvements adopted in other States where they have had long experience.

PLAN OF OPERATION.

THE INVESTOR OR NON-BORROWER.

Any person desiring to purchase shares as an investment may do so, not to exceed twenty-five shares in all. The price is one dollar a month for each share. If he takes five shares he pays five dollars per month. The payments continue until the shares are each worth two hundred dollars. They are then called "matured shares," or it is said they have reached their "ultimate value."

Before the issue of a new series the accounts are made up and the profits are credited to the several shares. These credits help mature the shares. At maturity, each shareholder is entitled to receive two hundred dollars in cash for each of the matured shares held by him. It is plain that if no profits were added, it would require 200 months ($16\frac{2}{3}$ years) to pay up a share; but the profits generally reduce the time to ten years, and this makes a good investment. In case a shareholder neglects to pay his one dollar per month, per share, he is subject to a monthly fine of two cents per share. For instance, one has five shares. His monthly dues will be five dollars, and if he omits to make the monthly payments when due, the next month he will have to pay ten dollars and ten cents.

Depositors may withdraw their money on giving thirty days' notice. As the funds are loaned only to members, properly secured, the chances of loss are rendered nearly impossible. Two shares are exempt from attachment.

Upon the death of a shareholder the shares are paid over, with profits, to his legal representatives, and distributed in the same manner as life insurance.

Minors may take shares by trustees.

THE BORROWER.

Any shareholder may borrow two hundred dollars upon each of his shares, if he can furnish the security required by law. Security may be by first mortgage upon real estate, or upon the shares themselves. If one borrows upon a mortgage, he transfers his shares to the corporation, as additional or collateral security. One is entitled to borrow upon his shares, provided that the sum desired is not more than is permitted by the by-laws. The process for borrowing is this: The borrower attends a monthly meeting at which the money on hand is offered for sale, and bids are invited. He bids a premium which he by so doing offers to pay monthly for the privilege of borrowing the money. The premium is a bonus and goes to the general fund, and the borrower receives back his proportional part of it. The bids are to be in sums divisible by five, that is to say, the bid must be five, ten, fifteen cents, and so on per share per month. The premiums are in addition to the interest which is charged for the use of the money.

Having become a successful bidder, the borrower assigns his shares to the association as collateral, and gives a mortgage of real estate to secure the loan. To illustrate: A wishes to borrow one thousand dollars. This requires five shares, which he may already hold, or can, after successfully bidding for money, procure from the secretary. If the money is sold at a premium of twenty-five cents per share, A then pays the following: five dollars for monthly dues, (this he is to pay whether he borrows or not) five dollars for monthly interest at six per cent, and one dollar and twenty-five cents for monthly premium (being twenty-five cents per share on five shares) the total monthly payment being eleven dollars and twenty-five cents on a thousand-dollar loan, with premium of twenty-five cents. This payment is continued without diminution until the shares mature, (being on average about ten years) when it is plain they offset the mortgage, being worth one thousand dollars in cash. At that time the payments cease, the mortgage is discharged by the corporation, and the shares cancelled. In this illustration, A pays \$11.25 per month, or \$1,350 in ten years, thus paying \$350 interest, or only $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent for the use of his money, saying nothing of the great advantage derived from being allowed to pay in monthly instalments, which is a leading feature of the association, and so well calculated to accommodate mechanics, clerks, operatives and others who are

paid weekly or monthly. Loans may also be paid up at any time, in whole or in part.

Persons not owning land or building lots can avail themselves of a loan after their deposit has stood long enough to be equal to the cost of the lot they may buy with the fund thus accumulated. Such have been the experience and results of the People's Loan and Building Association at Richmond, and Bangor Loan and Building Association.

Deposits are monthly, and may vary from \$1 to \$25, according to the number of shares taken.

Shares are valued (ultimately or when fully paid up) at \$200 each. When the monthly payments (called dues) and the profits together amount to \$200 the share is said to have matured. It is then payable in money to the holder.

Loans are made upon first mortgage of real estate and upon shares to the amount of their accumulated value.

Sales of money, once in each month, at the monthly meetings.

Borrowers pay as follows: Loan \$1,000.00, \$5.00 for dues, \$5.00 for interest at six per cent, and (if one bids 25 cents per share) \$1.25 for premium; total monthly, \$11.25; payable each month, until the five shares reach the ultimate value of \$200 each, when they equal and cancel the mortgage.

Thus monthly payments of \$11.25 for a term of ten years will amount to \$1,350, including principal and interest, or \$350 interest for ten years, equal to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per annum for the use of the money.

Loan and Building Associations are intended to reach a class in every community whom savings banks and private capital cannot help.

It is claimed that these societies benefit alike, the depositor and the borrower; it pays the former fair rates of interest for his money and enables the latter to own the house he lives in. It encourages thrift; it encourages people in the practice of economy and to own their homes.

It is well known that the city of Philadelphia has been largely built up by these societies. There is also another interesting fact of importance to the State, growing out of their success, the extent to which small, diversified manufacturing is carried on in these Philadelphia homes. Cotton, wool, silk, wood, steel, glass and iron in all forms, are being thus constantly used in some small way. The finest carpets in the world are there made with hand looms. Lace makers

have been imported from Sweden to superintend this industry. Those who are familiar with the history and operations of building societies claim, with much assurance, that they are preventives of strikes; and such would seem to be the effect in several States.

It is important, in organizing these associations, that care be taken to choose officers on a non-sectarian and non-partizan basis. In this way the confidence of the community will be gained at the outset, and, with fair management, success will follow.

These associations are peculiarly adapted to manufacturing towns as distinguished from farming localities. Bank Examiner, Fred E. Richards, says: "From very close observation of the workings of these associations, I have come to the conclusion that they are only adapted to cities and large growing manufacturing towns. I think they are very beneficial in building up a town where corporations furnish employment for a large number of laborers."

Loan and Building Associations have been organized and are in successful operation in the following towns and cities in Maine, viz: Auburn, Augusta, Bangor, Dexter, Gardiner, Madison, Foxcroft, Skowhegan and Waterville. In addition to those now in successful operation, is the People's Loan and Building Association, Richmond, organized in 1875, of which Bank Examiner Richards says, in his report for 1887: "A building association is not necessarily intended, like a savings bank, to be perpetual, but only to do a work needing to be done, and, that done, its purpose is accomplished. No better illustration of the healthy growth and natural decline of a building association can be found than in our own State. When the People's Loan and Building Association was organized in 1875, Richmond had a great shipbuilding industry which gave constant employment and steady wages to many men. Since then that industry has declined, and the growth of the town has been retarded. During the twelve years that this association has existed it has aided in building nearly sixty homes. Having done this work and having provided all the new homes which the population of the town demanded, it ceased to grow." Mr. Richards closes his report on these associations with the following remarks:

"The uniform success of building associations, wherever established under favorable conditions, is a striking exposition of the power of small earnings when united and intelligently devoted to a single object. It points out the fact that sound business principles, wise management and executive ability not only can, but do exist

among a class who are generally regarded as being deficient in those important qualifications; and it goes far toward establishing the soundness of co-operative principles among working men.

"There has also been observed in these associations a public benefit far too important to be overlooked.

"A home, more than any other thing, adds to a man's social position and self respect. It imposes upon him the burden of taxation, it also adds to his dignity as a citizen. The necessity of intelligence and economy in public affairs, and the maintenance of law and order are impressed upon him with extraordinary force. It teaches him to consider carefully and act moderately. Under such a condition the danger of strikes and socialistic tendencies rapidly recedes, and a feeling of public security takes its place. Economy and thrift are cultivated, and a sound and healthy public feeling is generated."

CO-OPERATION.

The Seventeenth Annual Report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor is devoted, largely, to a consideration of "Co-operative Distribution" and "Profit Sharing." From that report we make the following copious extracts: "At the outset it is proper to define exactly what the subject is that we are to treat. The term co-operation as applied in practice at the present day is not used in its strict etymological meaning. Nor is co-operation as at present conducted what its early advocates proposed. Etymologically considered co-operation means *to labor together*. It has an industrial significance. On the contrary the co-operation of the present has won its greatest success in commercial rather than industrial directions. Its application to productive industry is still largely experimental, and the experiments that have succeeded are, in most instances, not purely co-operative.

"Co-operation as proposed by its early advocates contemplated a social transformation, introducing into the operations of industry and trade, that is, into the operations of production and distribution, such principles as would overcome the evils that attend competition. It aimed to reconstruct society upon the communistic basis, its motto being 'each for all and all for each,' rather than the too common one of 'every man for himself.' Individualism it deemed contrary to the general good, and it sought to substitute for individualism some system of joint endeavor through which the laborer,

the capitalist, and the consumer should be brought into relations of mutual help rather than remain in their usual position of rivalry. Ideally, something like this is still hoped for by ardent co-operators, but practically no such social transformation has yet taken place. Competition still flourishes, and the reconstruction of society upon the communistic basis is not to-day the chief end of co-operative endeavor. The co-operation of the present that is highly successful, and which we are mainly to consider here, relates to the distribution of products rather than to production. It is co-operative trading, not co-operative labor, if, indeed, the latter term is permissible. We shall show hereafter how success in co-operative distribution has, in some cases, paved the way to experiments more or less complete and more or less successful in co-operative production, but it is chiefly with distribution that we have to deal; and it is in this field that co-operation, in the sense of mutual effort, has won its greatest triumphs. The benefits obtained by those who have engaged in this form of co-operation are so great that its history, methods and present condition are well worth our study, and will amply reward our investigation."

One who, by virtue of his experience and his services to the co-operative movement, is certainly entitled to formulate a definition, has presented the following:

"Co-operation, in the social sense of the word, is a new power of industry, constituted by the equitable combination of worker, capitalist and consumer, and a new means of commercial morality, by which honesty is rendered productive.

It is the concert of many for compassing advantages impossible to be reached by one, in order that the gain may be fairly shared by all concerned in its attainment." *

This definition, which is comprehensive, while no doubt embodying the author's views, would not be accepted by all co-operators, many of whom are unwilling to admit the claim of the consumer, *as a consumer*, to a share of the profits arising from productive effort. However this may be, all are agreed that in co-operative *distribution* the consumer should share in the profits derived from his trade. This feature is essential in modern co-operative distributive associations and distinguishes them from early attempts in this direction, and from joint stock associations.

* Holyoake. History of Co-operation, Vol. I, page 2.

Joint stock associations divide profits by payment on capital, that is, *on shares*. Co-operative distributive associations divide profits on *purchases*, not on shares, and pay to shareholders a *fixed rate of interest* on the capital invested.

Applying to the scheme of co-operative distribution the spirit of the last clause of Mr. Holyoake's definition just quoted, we may define it as: A union of many consumers for the purpose of securing in the purchase of commodities advantages impossible to be obtained by one, through an equitable division of the profits derived from their purchases.

Such co-operative unions are upon the continent of Europe termed "consumers' societies." As has been said by another, "they have succeeded in making 20s of earnings go as far as 22 or 23 in an ordinary shop. The true problem of co-operation lies deeper, that is, how to secure the original 20s. in workshops under their own management."

* * * * *

Commissioner Carroll D. Wright, in his report, gives an interesting history of the co-operative movement in England. From this sketch of co-operative distribution, we quote the account of the celebrated Rochdale Association.

Not entirely unfamiliar with the theory of co-operation were the weavers of Rochdale, 28 of whom, massing their meagre capital of £1 each, were to engage in a scheme of co-operative distribution upon a plan so practical and with an energy so determined as to carry the assurance of success. Under the name of "The Rochdale Pioneers," these weavers secured quarters in an old weavers' shop in Toad Lane, Rochdale, and, with the limited stock of groceries purchasable with their united capital of £28, began business in 1844. The insignificant character of their enterprise provoked the ridicule of the public.

"When the day and hour for commencing business arrived the little party assembled within to take part in the ceremony were abashed at the largeness of the crowd assembled to witness it. Some delay took place before any one could muster up courage to take down the shutters, and when at last the 'store' and its contents were exposed to public view, all Toad Lane was in a roar. Loud and long were the shouts of derision that rose from a host of 'dof-fers,' a species of street boy peculiar to the clothing districts, who, set on by persons who ought to have known better, stared through

the windows or blocked up the doorway, evincing their characteristically precocious sense of the ridiculous by the nature of their comments on the modest display of the 'owd weavers' shop.' *"

But success, instant and unmistakable, overcame ridicule. Not long were these 28 weavers left unsupported in their effort to supply themselves with groceries free from the adulterations and imperfections found in those furnished at the ordinary shops, and, at the same time, divide among themselves the profits accruing from their sale. A scheme so practical, conferring benefits so great, at once attracted new members. The next year the association numbered 74, and the joint capital rose to £181. The whole story of their progress is most eloquently told by statistics, and we therefore present it in that form, availing ourselves of the following table: †

Statistics of the Rochdale Equitable Pioneers.

Year.	No. of Members.	Funds.	Business done.	Profits.
		£	£	£
1844.....	28	28		
1845.....	74	181	710	22
1846.....	80	252	1,146	80
1847.....	110	286	1,924	72
1848.....	140	397	2,276	117
1849.....	390	1,193	6,611	561
1850.....	600	2,299	13,179	880
1851.....	630	2,785	17,638	990
1852.....	680	3,471	16,352	1,206
1853.....	720	5,848	22,760	1,674
1854.....	900	7,172	33,364	1,763
1855.....	1,400	11,032	44,902	3,106
1856.....	1,600	12,920	63,197	3,921
1857.....	1,850	15,142	79,788	5,470
1858.....	1,950	18,160	71,680	6,284
1859.....	2,703	27,060	104,012	10,739
1860.....	3,450	37,710	152,063	15,906
1861.....	3,900	42,925	176,206	18,020
1862.....	3,501	38,465	141,074	17,564
1863.....	4,013	49,361	158,632	19,671
1864.....	4,747	62,105	174,937	22,717
1865.....	5,326	78,778	196,234	25,156
1866.....	6,246	99,989	249,122	31,931
1867.....	6,823	128,435	284,910	41,619

Not only did the business expand financially but its scope was broadened. The original stock in trade was confined to the leading staple groceries, such as flour, oatmeal, sugar, and butter. The

* W. T. Thornton. On Labour, page 376.

† Reproduced from "On Labour," Thornton, page 377.

following table shows the departments afterward added and the date of opening each :

Departments.	Date of opening.
Linen and woolen drapery.....	1847
Butchering	1850
Shoe and clog making.....	1852
Tailoring.....	1852
Coal dealing.....	
Baking	1867

Ten or more branch stores are now carried on in the town of Rochdale, and extensive premises owned by the association have taken the place of the old weavers' shop of 1844.

From the first, part of the profits were set aside for educational purposes, and an extensive library and liberally equipped reading room are now maintained.

The following statement exhibits the condition of the association in 1884, and when contrasted with its humble origin is itself a striking justification of the principles upon which the business has been managed :

MEMBERS.

Number of members, Dec. 31, 1884..... 11,161

LIABILITIES.

Share capital, Dec. 31, 1884..... £329,470

Loan capital, Dec. 31, 1884..... £14,561

Reserve fund, Dec. 31, 1884..... £2,605

ASSETS.

Value of salable stock, Dec. 31, 1884..... £28,593

Value of land and buildings and fixed stock, Dec. 31, 1884..... £53,442

Investments, Dec. 31, 1884..... £242,432

TRADE AND PROFITS.

Received for goods sold during 1884..... £262,270

Total net profit made during 1884..... £36,992

Average dividend paid per £..... 2s. 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.

Applied to educational purposes during 1884..... £920

Applied to charitable purposes during 1884..... £118

Subscriptions to Central Board.....£46 0s. 10d.

The Rochdale store was not the first to engage in co-operative trade, as we have already shown, nor was it the first to divide profits on sales. But whether the time was more propitious or the character of its founders more favorable to success, it became, unlike its predecessors, true to its name, the pioneer of the distributive associations now numbered by hundreds in Great Britain. Unlike the joint stock companies the cardinal principles of co-operative distribution were observed by them: *All profits to be divided on purchases, and all purchasing members to be made shareholders with a fixed interest on the capital invested. The cash system to be strictly adhered to.* * * *

The details of the co-operative plan, in England, as stated by Commissioner Wright, are as follows :

THE RETAIL STORE.

The unit of the co-operative organization is the retail store. In starting such a store in a new district in Great Britain it is considered desirable to make use of the advice of the Co-operative Union. At the present day its work has become so systematized through experience that its help is of great benefit to the unpracticed co-operator. It has prepared model rules for the administration of co-operative societies which are in harmony with the requirements of the English law, and it is ready at all times to aid every new enterprise by showing those interested every thing essential to the successful establishment of a store.

FIRST STEPS.

In the first place, after a few persons have become impressed with the advantages of co-operative distribution, and have determined to found a society, a meeting is usually held to awaken public interest and to secure members. Speakers may be obtained from the Co-operative Union or from the Southern Co-operative Guild. The advantages of co-operation are explained and every effort made to stimulate interest in the movement. An informal organization is effected, collectors appointed, and the work of securing the required capital begins.

CAPITAL.

The co-operative scheme rests on the basis of cash payments. The outfit and goods are bought for cash and no sales on credit ought to be allowed. Considerable capital, therefore, must be paid in before the store opens. The amount to be raised and the number of

members to be secured before business is begun will depend on circumstances. It is considered that 100 members, with £130 capital, and a guarantee trade of from £40 to £50 per week are required to ensure expenses and a dividend if the store is to be constantly open. But the beginning may be much more humble. The store may be open only at certain times, for instance, evenings, or on particular days in the week, thus reducing the expense of a storekeeper by employing only a portion of his time. A member who is otherwise employed may, if capable, serve as storekeeper in the evening, or a member's wife may be selected for the position.

It is deemed essential that, however established, the store should depend for its prosperity on the support of actual members, and not rely upon loans or gifts from those who may have a sentimental interest in the scheme. The trade of some members may at first be limited. If in debt to private traders they cannot at once transfer their entire patronage to the co-operative store. Slowly they may by economy extinguish their debt and increase their trade. An independent beginning of the store, no matter how humble, and a gradual expansion as business increases is always advised.

SHARES.

The number of shares held by each member may be not less than one nor more than 200, the value of each share being £1. A fixed rate of interest is paid on capital invested, usually five per cent, and members are encouraged to leave undrawn the dividends accruing on their purchases, such undrawn dividends being added to the capital, thus permitting an increase of the business. The store in this way performs the functions of a savings bank of deposit, thrift on the part of members is stimulated, and while on one hand the evils of debt are prevented by adherence to the rule of cash payments, on the other members form the habit of saving, by the inducement offered to allow their dividends to go on deposit at a fair rate of interest.

NATURE OF SHARE CAPITAL.

To determine the nature of the share capital, that is, whether it shall be withdrawable or only transferable, opens an important question which the new society must meet and settle. Its bearings are considered in the following :

“In the general rules three cases are provided for:—first, where all the shares are to be withdrawable; second, where they are all

to be transferable; third, where some are to be transferable and some withdrawable. In the early days of co-operative societies the law compelled them to make their shares withdrawable. The early societies were accordingly all formed on this principle; and the large majority of those formed after the alteration of the law, when shares were allowed to be made transferable in the case of joint stock companies, followed the example of their predecessors. Cases, however, have occurred where rumors have been spread as to the solvency of such a society; a run has taken place upon their funds, the more selfish members seeking to secure themselves from sharing in any loss, careless of the result to their fellow members; and the society, having almost all its capital locked up in buildings, fixed stock and trading stock, has had to stop payment, though perfectly solvent, so as to gain time to realize its assets. Some of the older societies, hampered by the fact of their members having become accustomed to withdrawable shares, have met this difficulty by altering their rules, and making a portion of their capital transferable.

"It is, however, generally considered among co-operators that in the case of new societies it is much the best plan to make all the capital transferable. To meet the case of members leaving the locality, or wishing to draw out a part of their capital in order to provide for any given expenditure, as in the case of illness, you should have a rule, such as is given in the model rules above-mentioned, enabling the committee to purchase the shares of members at a price not exceeding their par value, *i. e.*, the sum paid up on them. In this manner the capital becomes in fact withdrawable, except in the one case of a panic as to the financial position of the society, in which case it is only fair that, if there be any ground for alarm, all the members should share equally in any loss sustained. You may also very well have a rule empowering the committee to take money on loan from members, after they have contributed some definite amount to the share capital, to be withdrawable on demand, or after so many days' notice, according to the amount withdrawn."*

Many co-operators think that the matter is best settled by making every member have one non-withdrawable transferable share of £1, and let his remaining shares, which he acquires through undrawn dividends or by other investments, be withdrawable.†

*Walter Morrison, Esq. Village Co-operative Stores (Co-operative Board Pamphlets.)

† Workingmen Co-operators, page 36.

PAYMENT OF SUBSCRIBED CAPITAL.

Not all the money subscribed for shares need be paid up at once. It is usual to make payments at the rate of 3*d.* per week. In some societies subscribers do not acquire full membership until an entire share or even several shares have been paid for in full. In general, however, after a shilling has been paid in, members are allowed to have full privileges. Concerning this matter, Mr. Morrison, in the pamphlet already quoted, says :

“Urge your members to pay up their shares in full if they can, in order to simplify your accounts. It may be useful to this end to provide a special rule that no interest will be allowed on any sum under £1,* so as to induce a member who may have £1 18*s.* invested to pay up the balance of two shillings at once. You should also adopt the provision in the general rules that no dividend on purchases shall be paid to any member until he has some definite sum, to be fixed by a special rule, invested in the share capital ; all such dividends being credited to him until this amount is made up. You will require an average capital of £10 per member. If you can rely upon the richer members contributing more than this sum, you might fix the minimum amount which each member must invest at perhaps £5.”

REGISTRATION.

Before beginning business the society must be registered at the government registration office for industrial and provident societies. No registration fee is charged.

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

The selection of the executive committee is a matter of scarcely less importance than that of raising the required capital. This committee appoints the storekeeper and other employes, controls the purchase of the stock in trade, overlooks the finances of the society, and is, in fact, entrusted with the entire supervision of its affairs. The nature of these duties suggests the care that ought to be taken in selecting the men who are to perform them. The success of the society will largely depend on the efficiency and honesty of the committee. It may consist of from seven to twelve members, who are usually elected at quarterly meetings, their terms of office being so arranged that part of the committee goes out of office at each meet-

*Or, more explicitly, on any fractional part of a £, thus supplying a motive to cause subscribed capital to be fully paid up.

ing, or in some cases semi-annually or annually, although, as respects this, many societies have no rule. Members of the committee may or may not be eligible to re-election immediately upon the expiration of their terms of office. Sometimes it is provided that a member after having served a certain fixed time must retire for an interval before becoming eligible again. Generally speaking, experience in the duties of the office should count in favor of the retention of a committeeman, and sweeping changes ought to be discountenanced. Of course many things combine to determine the popularity of an officer entrusted with the management of a society in which many persons have a keen interest, and committees cannot expect immunity from the adverse criticism which, however undeserved, sometimes affects this popularity. On the other hand, members who desire the welfare of the society ought to be careful that grievances of a purely personal or petty nature do not blind them to the recognition of what is, on the whole, a faithful and conservative management of its affairs. Helpful criticism is always to be desired, and adds to the efficiency of the committee and promotes the society's interests.

The President of the society is sometimes elected by the members and sometimes by the committee; the Secretary and Treasurer by the latter. Many societies dispense with a treasurer. Members of the committee are usually paid a small fee for attendance at the weekly business meetings.

"It is most desirable, in fixing the scale of payment, to avoid the likelihood of men trying to get on to the committee *simply for the sake of the fees*. This is a danger to be carefully watched in the co-operative movement. The work of its managing men (not its paid officials, to whom it is a profession) should be that of volunteers, who are repaid in moderation for their expense or trouble, and who will withdraw or resign their position at once, without a moment's hesitation, on the score of money, if that is being done of which they so strongly disapprove that they believe this to be the right course. Otherwise they are not independent, and may tend to get into the hands of men more powerful than themselves, who are well aware that they will not resign if they can possibly help it. From 6d. to 2s. a time for weekly committee meetings, and nothing for sub-committees or adjourned meetings, is a common rule in a moderate sized society."*

*Workingmen Co-operators, page 49.

The Secretary, and the Treasurer, if there be one, furnish security to the society for the proper performance of their duties, either by deposit or bond, and are usually paid a salary proportioned to the labor devolving upon them.

BUSINESS PREMISES.

The first duties which demand the attention of the committee will be the selection of premises in which to conduct the business of the store and the engagement of a storekeeper. As to premises, conditions of eligibility, rental, etc., will affect their decision. The aim, of course, is to make the store as convenient as possible to the majority of members. If the beginning is to be quite humble the dwelling house of a member may be selected as headquarters, and more extensive, and consequently more expensive quarters taken as business expands and the success of the movement becomes assured.

THE STOREKEEPER.

The storekeeper should be a man of unquestioned integrity and, if possible, not only a believer in co-operation but of some experience in co-operative trading. Now that co-operative stores have multiplied, a man possessing the latter qualification is not hard to find if the committee exercises proper care and especially if the aid of the Co-operative Union is sought. It is considered undesirable rather than otherwise that a storekeeper has been trained as a private trader. The average salary of a storekeeper in English towns is about 25s. or 30s. a week besides rooms and gas; in country villages, 18s. to 25s. suffices.

STORE FITTINGS.

The fittings of the store are of the usual sort common to private stores of the same grade. The Wholesale Co-operatives provide these if required at a lower rate than they can be bought for elsewhere.

STOCK IN TRADE.

Premises and fittings having been secured, and a storekeeper engaged, a stock of goods must be purchased, and here again, as well as in the future purchase of supplies, the judgment of the committee will be put to the test. The maxim that goods well bought are half sold applies to co-operative as well as to ordinary stores. It is also well understood, and so generally practiced as to become the rule,

that no adulterated or inferior goods are to be allowed upon co-operative counters. No credit, it will be remembered, is to be given purchasers, and stock in trade is to be bought for cash upon the best terms.

Experience and the growth of the co-operative organization has in these days provided helps for inexperienced committees. The wholesales provide lists of articles such as are proper to provide in starting a store, with quantities and prices of each. The Co-operative Union in this as in other matters of detail is ready to give advice. The co-operative literature affords pamphlets upon the subject of purchasers. Thus the path of the unpracticed co-operator is not entirely dark and he is enabled to profit by the wisdom gained by his predecessors in their unaided efforts during the earlier years of the co-operative movement.

A store in the beginning usually confines itself to the staple articles of groceries, and increases the variety of its stock as the demand of its patrons warrants. Thus to ordinary groceries, hardware, tinware, crockery, etc., may first be added. Ready made boots and shoes, dry goods of the staple sorts, clothing, hats, caps, etc., are eventually supplied. As to the latter articles, greater care and experience in buying are, of course, demanded, so as to avoid loss by depreciation owing to change of fashion.

In some instances a department for making boots to measure and others for custom tailoring and millinery have been successfully incorporated.

A bakery forms a favorite and generally profitable branch of English co-operative stores. Many fully equipped co-operative bakeries exist as departments of these stores and do a large business. Butchering, also, has been tried, and with some profit, but, as this requires greater experience and trained judgment on the part of the buyers, and as greater difficulty has been found in procuring efficient department superintendents in this line than in the others mentioned, it has not as yet been found equally successful.

The sale of coal, on the contrary, is common and profitable.

As to the advisability of conducting several departments under one management, the following is to the point, and the statistics give a glimpse at what has been accomplished :

“Speaking generally, ‘make one department a success at a time, keep the accounts of the departments separately, and publish the profits of each department in the balance sheet,’ would be the advice of many co-operators. The number of the chief departments

carried on by societies is as follows: 1185 societies do business in groceries and provisions; 772 in drapery; 715 in boots and shoes; 333 in coal; 211 in butchery; 188 in baking; 185 in furnishing; 137 in hardware; 76 in tailoring."*

In making purchases the normal conditions of supply and demand should be strictly considered and, as a rule, all speculative purchases avoided.

"The amount of stocks should usually not exceed the amount of sales for three or four weeks in groceries; for ten to fourteen days in provisions; for one month in bakery; for three or four days in butchery; for ten to thirteen weeks in drapery, boots and shoes, and furnishing."†

In sales the ordinary prices of the locality are charged, no attempt being made to undersell private traders. It is not in reduced prices but in division of profits that the purchaser reaps his reward.

THE CHECK SYSTEM.

As dividends are to be declared on purchases, arrangements must be made for registering the latter and enabling each customer to prove quickly the amount of his purchases in order to collect his share of profits. This is accomplished quite simply by giving each customer a check or token either of metal or paper representing in amount the amount of his purchase. These are retained and presented at the end of the quarter to secure payment of the dividend. Members are from time to time during the quarter required to exchange tokens of small nominal value for those of higher denomination, in order to reduce the number of tokens of small denomination required in circulation and to simplify matters generally.

In the use of these tokens fraud may occur, as, for instance, employés have been known to purloin them and afterward secure their presentation through an accomplice for exchange. On the other hand, purchasers have held them back for presentation during a quarter subsequent to that in which they were issued, and when the dividend happened to be larger, thus unfairly sharing in a larger division of profits than was justly their right, besides disarranging the accounts of the society.

The paper checks may be so made as to guard against the latter evil by changing the color in each quarter, but the paper checks may

*Workingmen Co-operators, page 68.

†Ibid., page 43.

have their nominal value increased by fraudulent alteration of the amounts borne upon them.

Great care is needed to ensure against corrupt use of the checks, and the ideal check system has yet to be devised.

Various methods are employed to check the operations of the manager and to discover the amount of cash passing through his hands. The system of dividend tokens just described affords a partial check, but, for the reasons stated, fraudulent use of the tokens may render this sort of checking nugatory, and, if relied on, cause a perfectly honest manager to be unjustly suspected. Among other plans one is "giving the customer a ticket, who takes it to a boy, who gives metal checks in exchange and registers each shopman's sales." This is, of course, applicable to the larger stores only. No absolute check upon the manager's operations has yet been devised. The best safeguard is the watchfulness of the committee. A dishonest manager cannot long retain his place if the duty of the committee is well performed.

DUTIES OF MEMBERS.

The matters of detail to which we have alluded having been attended to, the store is now ready to open its doors for trade. All, whether members of the society or not, are welcomed, and non-members are permitted to share in the profits, but not to the same extent as members, it being usual to allow them but one-half the regular dividend. It is always desirable to induce non-members to join the society, and sometimes a full dividend is given them, one-half being paid in cash on demand, and the balance credited to a share account in their name, thus in time creating a deposit sufficient in amount to create them full members.

The business of the society, now that the store is in active operation, will depend upon the fidelity with which members patronize it, refusing, as they should, to be drawn away by the insidious solicitations of private tradesmen, who frequently attempt to undermine co-operative stores by cutting prices, offering liberal credit, running special lines of goods at cost prices, and by other devices contrived to lure co-operative customers into their shops.

These attempts are likely to be more effective in the infancy of the co-operative store than later, for the participation in profits soon teaches the thoughtful patron of co-operation that his position as a partner is of more benefit to him in the end than any temporary gain

which he may appear for the moment to reap by purchasing at under-rates elsewhere.

But if the store is to be thoroughly prosperous each member must do more than merely give to it his trade. He must take a deep interest in its affairs, must exercise a watchful supervision over its administration, attend the business meetings, participate in the election of officers, carefully study the financial reports, or balance sheets so-called, issued quarterly,* and teach himself to criticise intelligently the policy pursued by the committee who are his servants in immediate control of the enterprise.

At the business meetings all members have equal voting power, so that the society, in its organization, is thoroughly democratic. Women, too, are usually eligible to membership on the same terms as men, and in some cases have been given places upon committees.

Besides the quarterly business meetings it is usual to hold monthly meetings at which it is customary to read the minutes of the meetings held weekly by the committee, and discussion is permitted thereon. Social gatherings of the members are also held annually, or even more frequently, as a means of welding together more firmly the interests of all who are connected with the movement.

STOCK-TAKING AND AUDITING.

Account of stock is to be taken quarterly or half-yearly and profits divided, and this should be carefully and honestly done, with no attempt at over-valuation or desire to increase the dividends beyond the percentage fairly earned. Accurate book-keeping is essential to the pecuniary welfare of the society, and a "Manual of Book-Keeping," giving full advice upon this head, has been published by the Co-operative Union.

The Union has also published a "Manual of Auditing." Great responsibility rests upon the auditors, who are to make a complete examination of the society's affairs and who are to assure themselves that the balance sheet is correct, and to vouch for it by their signatures. They ought to be men familiar with accounts and, if possible, of some financial experience.

"An inexperienced auditor will do well to act on the following hints. Ascertain that stock has been carefully taken and checked. See that everything is priced at the cost, or a less value, and that all deteriorations of stock have been amply provided for. Count the

* Or semi-annually if dividends are thus declared.

cash in hand. See that proper vouchers have been received for all payments; and if not sufficiently master of book-keeping to adopt short systems of check, by comparing the totals of different accounts, check every individual item from its first entry until placed in the balance sheet. Compare the members' pass books with the ledgers. See that the total of the members' accounts agrees with the amount placed in the balance sheet. Ascertain that all goods received and taken into stock are duly paid for, or else taken as a liability, and also that all sums due by the society to merchants and others are taken as liabilities. The best plan is to send a circular note at stock-taking to all persons the society does business with, asking them to advise the auditors what sums are due to them by the society. Examine the committee's minute book, to see that all expenditure has been duly authorized, and inspect the deeds and other securities of the society."*

The auditors may be of such number as the society may direct, usually two. Provision is made for the appointment of a public auditor in lieu of auditors elected by the society. No employe of the society is eligible to the office of auditor. Auditors are paid such remuneration as may be voted them at ordinary business meetings.

Any member or person in interest has an individual right of inspection of the accounts of the society under proper regulation, but is not permitted, without special authorization, to inspect the loan or deposit account of any other member without the latter's written consent.

In certain contingencies it is provided that the affairs of the society shall be examined and reported upon by inspectors appointed by the government registrar. The government requires annual returns to be made from every society, containing a general statement of its receipts, expenditures, funds and effects.

ALLOTMENT OF PROFITS.

The model rules provide for the following allotment of profits: (1) Interest on loans, deposits, and preferred shares, if any; (2) Reduction of the value of fixed stock and plant at such rate as the society may direct (subject to change by the society at the annual rate of ten per cent on fixtures, and of two and one-half per cent on buildings); (3) Reduction of expenses, if any, incurred in form-

ing the society ; (4) Dividend on share capital ; (5) Reserve fund ; (6) Educational fund ; (7) Congress fund ; (8) Social fund ; (9) Dividend on purchases and bonus to employes.

The second item in the foregoing list relates to the amount written off at each stock-taking to allow for the depreciation in value of fixtures and buildings owing to wear and tear. There is a temptation to neglect this, as any amount so charged decreases the amount of net profits, and consequently reduces the dividend. But prudent management requires this depreciation to be conscientiously made in order that the assets of the society may not be found over-rated if a financial panic should overtake it.

The third item is temporary only, and confined to the early years of the society. The fifth item provides for the establishment of a reserve fund, the possession of which adds to the financial stability of the society. Besides the allotment to such a fund of a portion of the profits, usually ten per cent, all fines are carried to it. The fund is applicable by resolution of the society to the equalization of dividends, to meet contingencies affecting the business of the society, or to any other purpose which the general meetings may from time to time direct. The income from the fund is used to increase dividends in the same manner as other income of the society.

The application of a portion of the profits to educational, social and benevolent purposes, contemplated by the sixth and eighth items, is always considered to be in harmony with the underlying principles of co-operation. Many societies apply two and one-half per cent of the profits to educational purposes, such as technical classes, maintenance of library and reading room, etc. Others neglect the matter altogether, although it is always advised by leading co-operators.

The congress fund mentioned in the seventh item provides for paying the annual subscription to the Co-operative Union or to any official organ recognized by the congress.

The practice of allowing employes to share in profits by means of a bonus, provided for in the second clause of the ninth item, would seem to be clearly in accord with co-operative principles, but although some societies practice it, it is not generally popular. When given it may be said to be awarded on the ground that if employes share in this way they will take a livelier interest in the society's welfare, and thus the bonus will be money well expended in that it will in reality tend to increase profits. Except in theory, the prac-

tice does not seem to rest upon the abstract justice involved in the principle of awarding to all who co-operate in producing a given result a share in the benefits obtained. This principle would seem to demand the admission of all employes to an interest in the business, but it appears to be self-interest purely that induces most of the societies that have adopted this plan to pursue it. At present, profit sharing with employes, although nearly always advocated as a matter of theory, is not extensively practiced among co-operative trading societies.

THE BALANCE SHEET.

The balance sheet issued to members forms a complete report of the financial status of the society. Members rely upon it for their knowledge of the society's affairs. It should show clearly, and in as simple a form as possible, so as to be readily understood by the average man, the cash account of the society, giving its cash assets and receipts upon one side, and its liabilities and cash expenditures upon the other. The trade account should also be shown, giving upon the debit side the value of stock at beginning of quarter, amount of subsequent purchases, with expenses and outstanding liabilities, if any, for purchases, and on the credit side the amount of sales liabilities at beginning of quarter, value of stock at end of quarter, etc., the balance of the account showing the net profit. The expense account should be shown in detail, and a concise summary of the capital account should appear, giving the assets and liabilities in detail, followed by a detailed statement of the disposal of profits. The balance sheet ought to be published several days before the general meeting, so as to give members an opportunity to study it and compare it with former issues, that they may be able to criticise it, if need be, and to question it intelligently at the meeting.

SUMMARY OF ESSENTIAL POINTS.

We have now given such a description of a retail distributive society as will, we believe, enable the reader to understand how such a society is formed and carried on. Besides the points we have mentioned the model rules contain provisions for settling by arbitration disputes arising between a member or any interested person and the society or an officer thereof; for expelling any member who may be guilty of conduct detrimental to the society and for the payment to such a member of the sums paid in on shares held by him; and the

necessary provisions for conduct of business, transfer of stock, change of name of society, etc.

We now present the following summary of essential points and causes of success and failure, for which we are indebted to the manual entitled "Workingmen Co-operators." We find them nowhere else so succinctly stated.

Essential Points. (a) The store is open to all; (b) charges ordinary market prices; (c) receives ready money only, and gives no credit; (d) gives dividend in proportion to purchases; (e) every member must have a share or shares, and receives good interest on them; (f) all are equal in voting power, whether they have few or many shares; (g) the store sells genuine articles, which are what they profess to be; (h) the store has an honest manager and an active committee; (i) the society insists on an efficient and intelligent audit and stock-taking.

Causes of Success. (1) A clear understanding and performance of the duties of an officer, an employe, and a member; (2) competent and painstaking officers; (3) competent and trustworthy employes; (4) proper security for the honesty and efficiency of the principal employes; (5) amicable and earnest working together; (6) promptitude and punctuality in business; (7) impartiality, civility, and pleasant manners in the members and in the staff; (8) generous treatment of the employes; (9) judicious purchasing and careful regulation of the stocks; (10) ready money purchases and ready money sales; (11) carefully regulated expenses; (12) judicious investment of all surplus capital; (13) ample depreciation of property; (14) ample reserve funds; (15) good bookkeeping and auditing; (16) officers giving full and free explanations to the members' meetings; (17) members having full confidence in the officers.

Causes of Failure. (1) Allowing the storekeeper to do as he likes; (2) allowing credit to purchasers; (3) bad bookkeeping and auditing; (4) bad rules; (5) carrying repairs and renewals to property account instead of expenses account; (6) competing with all the 'cutting' shops; (7) expenses too great for the business; (8) employment of incompetent persons; (9) dishonesty; (10) injudicious purchasing; (11) injudicious and frequent changes of policy; (12) members purchasing away from the store; (13) not taking ample security from persons in a position to misapply the society's effects; (14) permitting the manager to buy away from the whole-

sale societies ; (15) inefficient officers ; (16) members being unreasonable and quarrelsome ; (17) purchasing goods on credit ; (18) overbuilding ; (19) starting branches or new departments before the society is strong enough to bear the burden ; (20) waste behind the counter from bad stock keeping or careless weighing."

CO-OPERATION IN MAINE.

The following are the associations in Maine, doing business under the co-operative plan : Lisbon Falls Co-operative Association ; Lewiston Co-operative Society ; Sabattus Co-operative Association ; Co-operative Trade Association, Norway ; Co-operative Trade Association, Foxcroft ; Co-operative Trade Association, Belmont ; Patrons' Co-operative Corporation, Portland, and eight or ten other co-operative stores connected with the Patrons of Husbandry.

The Lewiston Co-operative Society has been in successful operation about ten years, having declared dividends at ten per cent for the past four years. The Society has recently erected a large and convenient store at a cost of from \$5,000 to \$6,000.

The object and purpose of the Society as stated in its by-laws is "to place within the power of the working classes, the means to control their own labor, thereby removing the cause of that antagonism between capital and labor which so often proves injurious to our industrial interests.

As a basis, or foundation for the future operations of this industrial system, we have opened a grocery store.

At our grocery store we intend to keep a choice assortment of the best goods to be found in the market, which we offer to our members and the public generally at the lowest market rates, and in full weight and measure. At the close of every four months we shall take an account of stock, and after paying the legal interest for the use of capital, the wages of labor and current expenses, what surplus profits remain will be equitably apportioned between the capital invested—the amount of goods purchased by members."

The following articles of the by-laws show the plan of operations :

ARTICLE 4.—ADMISSION FEE.

The admission fee shall be fifty cents.

ARTICLE 5.—ADMISSION OF MEMBERS.

This Society shall consist of all persons who shall have subscribed to the by-laws and who own at least one share of the capital stock of said Society, but for all members sufficient security, either by investment in

the funds or other responsible member shall be made; when this is not convenient to said member, all his or her trade must be for cash.

ARTICLE 7.—DISPOSAL OF SHARES.

No member shall be allowed to sell or transfer their shares without consent of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE 8.—OFFICERS OF THE SOCIETY.

The management of this Society shall consist of a president and five directors; the president and two directors to be elected at the quarterly meeting in January, and the remaining three at the quarterly meeting held in the month of July in each year, the retiring officers being eligible for re-election. Any vacancy occurring in the Board of Directors shall be filled at the following quarterly meeting. No person shall be eligible for a director who has not been a member of the Society six months, or eligible for president who has not been a director.

ARTICLE 9.—MANAGEMENT OF BUSINESS.

The general management of all business carried on by or on account of the Society, shall, subject to the provisions herein contained, be vested in the Board of Directors. They shall appoint all salesmen and other persons necessary for conducting such business, and may assign such persons such salaries as they shall deem fit, such person so hired to give or take two weeks' notice.

ARTICLE 10.—TERMS.

All purchases and sales of merchandise shall be for cash; credit only given to the members for eighteen days to the extent of four-fifths of their capital invested. Any salesman or other, who may be empowered to sell goods for this Society, and selling the same for credit, in violation of this article, shall be held responsible for the full amount of said sale.

ARTICLE 11.—DUTIES OF DIRECTORS.

The Board of Directors shall meet every Thursday night, at half past seven o'clock; and a majority of the Board shall constitute a quorum. It shall, in all things, act for and in the Society's name, and all acts under the powers delegated to it, shall have the like force and effect as if they were the acts and orders of a majority of the members of the Society, at a general meeting thereof. Every question at the meetings of said Board shall be decided by a majority. Any two of the directors may call a special meeting thereof, by giving one full day's notice in writing to the Secretary; but at such special meetings no business, other than that specified in the notice, shall be considered. The Board shall convene

meetings of the Society on such requisitions as are herein mentioned, and shall cause the accounts of all business carried on by the Society to be regularly entered in proper books, and shall cause a statement of its accounts, with all necessary vouchers, to be made out and laid before the persons appointed to audit the same, not less than ten days before the day appointed for the quarterly meetings of the Society.

All committees shall be subject to this Board.

ARTICLE 16.—CAPITAL.

The capital of the Society shall be raised by five dollar shares, and no person shall have more than twenty shares, except by the consent of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE 17.—WITHDRAWALS.

On and after six months from the date of organization of this Society, shares may be withdrawn at their par value, on demand, or if the Board of Directors shall require, after thirty days' notice has been given; provided that no share shall be withdrawn at the expense or to the detriment of the remaining shareholders.

ARTICLE 19.—INTEREST ON SHARES.

All moneys held by the store, and all moneys held by the members as shares, shall receive out of the surplus receipts of the Society, after providing for the expenses thereof, six per cent per annum, as shall be declared at the quarterly meetings of the Society. Interest shall be computed from the first of each month.

ARTICLE 20.—DIVISION OF PROFITS.

The net profits of all business carried on by this Society, after complying with the provisions contained in the two last preceding articles, shall be divided quarterly amongst all members of the Society, in proportion to the amount of their purchases for that quarter. At the discretion of the Board of Directors, the sale of such articles as yield little or no profit to the Society, may be excluded from a participation in the profits.

The Lisbon Falls Co-operative Association was organized February 16, 1885, and incorporated March 21, 1885. When operations were begun there were but twenty-six stockholders and about \$600 capital. The following "statement" taken from the Fifth Semi-Annual Report, for the six months ending August 22, 1887, shows the present condition of the Association :

GENERAL STATEMENT.

LIABILITIES.		ASSETS.	
Capital stock.....	\$9,650 00	Stock in store.....	\$4,267 36
Money owing by association,	782 00	Money in salesman's hands...	102 58
Interest on capital stock....	275 11	Building and lot.....	6,045 52
Profit.....	1,645 78	Fixtures.....	530 22
		Money owing association.....	337 41
		Unexpired insurance and taxes	55 47
		Rents owing association.....	12 50
		Money in Treasurer's hands...	1,001 83
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	\$12,352 89		\$12,352 89

TOTAL AMOUNT OF SALES.

Amount purchased by members.....	\$15,230 72	
Amount purchased by non-members	2,317 77	
Total.....		\$17,548 49
Profit.....		1,645 78
Sinking fund.....	122 71	
Dividend to members at 10 per cent.....	1,523 07	
	<hr/>	<hr/>
		1,645 78

OTIS S. WHITE, *Treasurer.*

In a communication to us, the President of the Lisbon Falls Association says: "My opinion of co-operative distribution is, that it is an excellent thing for the laboring man. In the first place, it induces him to *help himself* and encourages him to keep out of debt and save something besides, if it is possible for him to do so, for he knows that he is part owner, and feels a just pride in keeping his own bills paid and to see that other members do the same, and thus he is led to save when otherwise he would not. Again, the whole community is benefitted, as the tendency of co-operative stores is to keep prices down. Still there are difficulties to be encountered, such as jealousy among members of different nationalities; incompetent and neglectful officers; the transient character of many of our laboring populations, etc."

The second semi-annual report of the Sabattus Co-operative Association, for the six months ending September 30, 1887, shows a considerable increase in trade over the first six months and a prosperous condition of the business.

The following is the last statement:

GENERAL STATEMENT.

LIABILITIES.

Capital stock.....	\$1,790 00
Cash owing by association.....	457 17
Interest on capital stock.....	52 02
Profits.....	693 89
	<hr/>
	\$2,993 08

ASSETS.

Stock in store, including fixtures.....	\$2,024 07
Cash owed association.....	221 63
Cash in salesman's hands	19 67
Cash in Treasurer's hands	727 71
	<hr/>
	\$2,993 08

TOTAL AMOUNT OF SALES.

Amount purchased by members.....	\$5,569 91
Amount purchased by non-members	1,751 51
	<hr/>
Total	\$7,321 42
Sinking fund.....	25 63
Dividends at 12 per cent.....	668 26
	<hr/>
	\$693 89

P. J. SWEENEY, *Treasurer.*

The Patrons' Co-operative Corporation, Portland, is reported as doing a business of \$175,000 per annum. It is estimated that the yearly business of productive co-operation in New England amounts to something like seven millions of dollars. Of this amount co-operative creameries do one million, and co-operative banks three and a quarter millions. Besides this amount, the grangers do, probably, a half million, and insurance companies a large amount. It is stated, on reliable information, that there are five thousand co-operative cheese factories and creameries in the United States.

PROFIT SHARING.

"The system of profit sharing means just this: That the proprietor receives for the capital he invests the ruling rate of interest as part of the legitimate expense of production. He puts in for his share, other than capital, his managerial skill, his business accom-

plishment and his knowledge of the industry in which he is engaged. The men who work for him receive for their time and for the ordinary display of the skill required of them the ordinary rate of wage. The workman also contributes, under profit sharing or industrial co-partnership, his liveliest interest, his best skill and the care of tools and materials. For the skill, knowledge and management of the proprietor, and for his being liable for the risks of the establishment, he is entitled to the larger share of the profits under this system, while the workman, taking no risks of the enterprise beyond that of employment, is entitled to the smaller share of profits; but the two forces together arrange for a division of profits on some just and equitable basis.

This system, simple in itself, humane in all its bearings, just in every respect to all the parties concerned, is the combination of all that is good in the wage-system and all that is good in co-operation as applied to production. This compound system is becoming a necessity. Under it the workman receives something more than has been accorded to him on account of the improvement in machinery; he has become a part of the individuality of the establishment in proportion to his interest in it, and the whole concern has a better chance for prosperity, for weathering depressions and for general happiness than under the present wage system alone. It is this compound system, as the outgrowth of the wage system, that was referred to in the introduction of this volume as being grander than the wage system. It is a pleasure to be able to state that the proprietors of many influential manufacturing establishments in this country are contemplating the organization of their establishments upon this basis. They see the success of the enterprise where this system has already been adopted, and are glad to follow in so just a path.

It must be concluded that participation by workmen in profits in addition to wages is a true harmonizer of the interests of capital and labor. It does, in fact, identify the interests of the employe. It converts the industrial association of employer and employes into a moral organism in which all the various talents, services and desires of the competent individuals are fused into a community of purpose and endeavor."—"The Workman."

"Profit sharing in addition to wages," says Commissioner Wright in his report, "is a modern experiment which began in the second quarter of the present century almost simultaneously in Ireland,

France and Germany." Early experiments cited, are those of Mr. John S. Vandeleur, "a disciple of Robert Owen," in 1831, on an estate in the county of Claire, Ireland, and that of Edme Jean Leclaire, in 1842, the Parisian house painter, to whom undoubtedly belongs the honor of having done more than any other one man to work out the details and demonstrate the practical merits of industrial partnership.

"The Paris and Orleans Railway Company began sharing profits with its employes in 1844 and 1847. Herr J. H. von Thünen introduced the system in his estate near Titcrow in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, where his son and grandson, succeeding in turn to the proprietorship, have continued it in force.

From these beginnings the application of the system has been extended until now Mr. Sedley Taylor estimates that there are more than one hundred continental firms working on the participatory basis, and in France the policy of requiring profit sharing of all parties taking contracts for municipal work, and of all individuals and associations enjoying special rights and privileges from the State, has become a political question."

"Among the European firms and corporations that have most thoroughly and patiently tried industrial partnership," adds Commissioner Wright, "there is unanimous agreement that it promotes zeal, efficiency, and economy, and thereby increases the profits of business; that it is a moral educator, and that it substitutes harmony and mutual good will for distrust and contention in the relations of employers and employed. Where it has failed, the failure has been due either to extrinsic causes or to a too hasty abandonment before the full educational result has been attained."

There are several forms or systems of profit-sharing in the United States, viz: profit sharing without wages,—a familiar illustration of which is furnished by the Massachusetts and Maine fishermen;—profit sharing in addition to wages,—which is the form usually referred to when the term "industrial partnership" is used;—and profit sharing through stock owning.

Commissioner Wright describes several interesting experiments in profit sharing in addition to wages, that have been made in the United States. One of the most interesting of these "experiments" is that commenced by the Peace Dale Manufacturing Company at Peace Dale, R. I., in 1878. This company manufactures shawls, worsted coatings, cassimeres and other woolen fabrics. It has a

capital stock of \$200,000, and employs about 450 persons. The success of this experiment has been very gratifying and is largely due to the mutual relations of harmony and confidence existing between the company and its employees.

Our own State is furnishing an interesting experiment in "industrial partnership" or profit sharing. In April, 1886, the extensive shoe manufacturers of Auburn, Ara Cushman & Co. inaugurated a plan arranged somewhat after the Peace Dale method. In an address to the employes of the firm, March 27, 1886, Mr. Ara Cushman announced the plan in the following words:

"I want to talk now for a few minutes about our own business, and our interest and yours in connection with it.

I want to state some of the conditions necessary to exist, to secure the best results for us and for you. What *we* want and need is a full, uniform business that lasts as nearly all the year round as possible and on which we can make a reasonable percentage of profit. What *you* want and need is enough work, as steady and continuous as possible, and at as high wages as can be paid. An amount of work sufficient to employ you only an uncertain part of the time, even at high wages, would not be profitable for you. Any amount of business, unless the wages paid would leave us a living profit, is no advantage and may be worse than nothing to us. So far, I think, we shall agree. What are the conditions that will enable us to have a full and continuous business, or that will help to secure that result?

First, we must meet the markets of the country and of the world in selling our goods. Second, we must meet the demands of the trade in the quality, style, and workmanship of the goods. If we ask too high prices we cannot sell them, and the trade goes to other parts of the country. We are obliged to ask too much, if they cost too much. If the workmanship and style are not up to the ideas of the buyers, they leave us and look further.

We are obliged to introduce new and approved machinery and methods, and often to sacrifice the old to secure modern results and requirements. Sometimes the necessary introduction of machinery temporarily displaces workmen who have been using other methods, but the final result always is that men earn larger pay using improved machinery than by old methods or by hand. Then, in order for the business to yield the best possible returns, the firm must have undoubted credit, plenty of capital, and a reputation and a character

for honesty and square-dealing. The financial management must be able and efficient, the organization must be perfect, the superintendence must be capable, prompt and economical, the work must be done with the least possible waste and damage, and always with neatness and skill; the time of the workmen during working hours must be devoted faithfully to the work in hand. The more nearly these conditions are met, the greater will be the returns for your labor. We shall do all we can to meet these requirements; and to the extent that you can co-operate with us and contribute to the best results of our combined efforts, we mean for you to have full credit and ample reward. We want to secure to you all the gains and advantage of faithful and intelligent work over such as is often performed by persons having no pecuniary interest at stake, except to receive the stipulated pay, with as little effort as possible; and also all the saving that can be made by your economy, thoughtfulness, and care. In short, we want to secure practical co-operation, in spirit as well as in letter, in a business thoroughly equipped and organized, efficiently managed, and honorably conducted, which shall result in the greatest possible 'gains and honors,' wherein every element and every individual shall justly and equitably share. With the hope of making our relations more fraternal, and our interests more closely united, and of presenting a method of sharing in the benefits of the business in a way more satisfactory and equitable than when stipulated wages is the only return to be hoped or sought for by the workmen, we propose to offer a system of co-operation or profit-sharing, to be settled by a dividend on labor at the end of each year, when the results of the business make it possible. The plan we propose makes no change in the matter of wages or the method or basis of adjusting prices for work. We hope your weekly receipts of pay will be at as high a rate and as much in amount for each person, on an average, as can safely be paid in stipulated wages, and as much as our fellow-manufacturers pay. After a fair amount is allowed for interest on capital invested, management of the business, and for risks, depreciation, and other contingencies, if any profit remain we will divide it between you and ourselves in the proportion that labor bears to the rest of the cost of the goods. This dividend shall be based on the amount paid to each employe, during the year, for labor. No one to be entitled to a dividend who has left the employ of the firm against its wishes or been discharged for any reason other than sickness or want of work.

The management of the business to be entirely in the hands of the firm, and to be the same as now, unless better methods shall be suggested. Three of the employes are to be selected as representatives, with whom the firm will arrange the details of this plan, and who will be sufficiently informed about the conditions and results of the business, to enable them at the end of each year to report whether the conditions agreed upon have been correctly and faithfully carried out. These representatives are not to disclose or make public any fact concerning the business except the amount or percentage of dividend available for the employes. They shall be persons in whom both the firm and the employes can place the utmost confidence. They must be citizens of Auburn, and two, at least, be owners of property and interested in the growth and prosperity of Auburn. If, with one year's trial, this system shall have worked as well as we hope, and is likely to prove practical and satisfactory, we shall, if it is the wish of many of our workmen, change the organization of our firm into a corporation, so that the capital may be represented by shares of stock. We will then set aside a limited part of the stock, or number of shares, for such of the employes to buy as would like to invest their money in that way; the stock thus owned by the employes to receive the same return in interest and dividend as that held by ourselves.

In this proposition we now present you, we ask you to run no risks and make no guarantees; for this reason the dividend to you must be smaller than it possibly might be, if you, with us, shared the risks of the business. We intend the wages paid you weekly to be fully an equivalent to you to the amount to be set aside for capital, management, and the risks and guarantees of business. I do not wish to give you reason to expect a large dividend on the amount of wages earned; for a small percentage on the amount of our pay-roll would be a large sum. Our pay-roll last year was about \$250,000,—5 per cent of which would be \$12,500,—quite a respectable amount. But 5 per cent on the earnings of one man whose pay in the year amounts to \$500, is only \$25, which by itself is not a large sum, but if multiplied by the number of men and women we employ it would amount to a sum worth working for.

This also illustrates how difficult it sometimes is to advance the rate of wages. Ten per cent advance in our prices would amount to \$25,000 a year, a sum that could not always be taken from the

yearly profits except by the process of Algebra where signs are used, but it is only 20 cents a day to a man whose pay is \$2.

Suppose all the men and women who work for us, in all the different places and capacities, should be able, in some way, to make their services worth to the business 5 per cent more than they ordinarily are; that would amount to \$12,500. Is it not possible that in transforming into boots and shoes ready for the foot of the wearer, all the material of all the kinds we use in a year,—leather of the different kinds, cloth, thread, silk, nails, wax, flour, glue, cement, twine, ink, paper, boxes; that in the process of cutting and assorting the leather, in the wear and tear, in the breaking of tools and machinery, in the use of time, and in the damage to material, in the different processes,—more economy could be used, more saving made, less waste allowed, and damage caused? With sufficient thoughtfulness, study and care, could not the saving in all the ways I have indicated, and in others that may suggest themselves to you, be made to amount to a sum which if divided to all the employes, would be equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 5 per cent increase in your pay? I will particularize a few of the ways in which saving might be made or losses prevented. If a man in cutting grain leather uses one foot more for a case of slippers than is absolutely necessary, the loss on his work is from 50 to 60 cents a day. Such a result might easily happen, and be hardly perceptible to a looker-on or even to the cutter himself. If a cutter of calf-skins fails to put every part of the skin where it will count for the most, or in the place to which it is best adapted, and thereby makes his shoe vamps cost a half cent a pair more than they otherwise would, the loss on his day's work amounts to at least a dollar. If a man who cuts split quarters fails to place his pattern and cut the stock so as to get the most possible from it, losing only one-eighth of a cent a pair, he fails to earn for us as much as he might by more than a dollar a day. If a man in cutting sole leather fails to adjust his die as closely as it possibly might be, and for that reason gets one less sole in every *three sides* of leather, the difference in the cost of the soles cut in a day would be only a small fraction of a cent on a single pair, but on his day's work it would amount to more than \$1.50, which is a very large per cent on his wages.

In the stitching room, if the thread and silk is not all used from the spool or if the ends are left longer than they need to be, or if twine is wasted in tying up the cases, the loss might be very slight

on a single pair of shoes, but on a day's work it would be enough to lessen the value of the services of the woman doing the work to some extent, and when multiplied by one hundred women and then by three hundred days, the amount would be enough to buy many new dresses and bonnets. If every man and woman who runs a machine could save all unnecessary wear and prevent all breaking by careless use, we should have to buy less machines and "spare parts," and our machinists would have less to do. In the item of damage to material and goods in the process of manufacture,—tearing shoes in lasting, damaging soles in fitting, scratching or cutting uppers in stitching, and in all the different ways in which damage happens,—if this could be reduced to the least possible amount, the saving made or the loss prevented would, I doubt not, be equal to the earnings of the smartest workman in the factory.

If for any reason the plan we propose should not be found to be as satisfactory to you or to ourselves, as we hope and expect, we shall be ready and hold ourselves at liberty to discontinue it. We present the proposition after mature thought, with the sincere wish and earnest hope that if accepted and understood, it will be of some pecuniary benefit to you. But we do not wish it to be understood, as we do not claim that it is, a philanthropic or benevolent project. Sound business principles make the only foundation for a permanent and successful business.

We mean for ourselves to continue to have such a basis and for our methods to be in harmony with correct thinking and just and liberal action. We hope it will be an incentive to all to make their services as valuable as possible, and a means of securing to all just and full returns for what they contribute to the success of the business. If it should prove to be a method by which capital and labor can together achieve better results, and an element in making labor more thoughtful and intelligent, and both capital and labor more considerate of each others' interests, our purposes will be realized. We would be glad to see Auburn have a larger measure of success. We would be glad to see hundreds more of homes, occupied and owned by workingmen. We hope the land that has recently been sold in house lots will be covered with neat and comfortable houses, and owned by men and women who are conducting the business and doing the work that is making, and is to make, Auburn, now the "loveliest village of the plain," a large and prosperous city."

The first year's trial of the experiment, for such it was and is, ended April 29, 1887, when the following report of the committee was made to the employes :

REPORT OF COMMITTEE.

AUBURN, ME., April 29, 1887.

To the Employes of Ara Cushman & Co. :

Your committee chosen one year ago, to represent you in the business of Ara Cushman & Co., whereby you should receive a share of the profits of said business, have attended to that duty, and beg leave to submit the following :

It is a pleasant duty we are called upon to perform. It may not be out of place to ask you to stop and consider the condition of affairs one year ago, when we met in this hall to enter into a plan of co-operation with the firm of Ara Cushman & Co., and for a moment to think how much we as employes have had to contend with by the attempts of those outside of their shop, both manufacturers and workingmen, to belittle and ridicule this move. There are those here that are thrown constantly among such, and it is, perhaps, some excuse for them, that they have not given the matter the confidence and support they should, on account of outside influence. But to-night, we hope when you leave this hall, there will not be one among you who will not have had ample proof that this is the grandest move ever made in this State to bring capital and labor into harmony, and to have labor rewarded with a share of the profits of a business that the past year reached the immense sum of one million and a quarter dollars. [Applause.]

For a moment stop and think of this vast business and its relations not only to us, but what it is doing for this city. To be exact in figures, the business for this year reached \$1,269,262.66. [Cheers.] There has been paid out the past year for labor alone, the sum of \$288,244.67, and you and I have had the benefit of it and we have received every week the earnings of the previous week. Suppose something had arisen the past year to lessen the amount of business one-half, and the amount paid for labor in the same proportion, is there one here who will say the result would have been just as good? And, yet, every day we are told that we must have a strike before we can get justice done us. Oh what nonsense!

How long will such demagogues find men to listen to them! Now in addition to your year's work upon this plan, the firm have declared a dividend of four per cent. [Cheers and demonstrations of satisfaction interrupting the speaker.]

[*A voice.*—"I move we give three cheers for Ara Cushman & Co." Three ringing cheers were given, followed by another burst of applause. For a moment or two the scene was one of much enthusiasm, one volley of applause following another. When it subsided, Mr. Yeaton continued as follows:]

That is, each one of you will receive, to-morrow, in addition to your wages, four per cent upon your last year's earnings, or in other words, Ara Cushman & Co. will, to-morrow, divide among their employes the sum of \$11,529.78, which, added to the sum paid out already, makes the amount for labor, \$299,774.45. [Applause.] This is the trap into which you have fallen. [Applause.] This is the scheme you were told would be your ruin. [Applause.] Let's strike. [Laughter and applause.] Such is the result of the first year's business upon the profit-sharing plan, and by the way, the largest year's business in the history of the firm by over \$150,000, and the amount paid out to employes, plus the dividend, the largest by over \$43,000.

Now we ask you in all candor, if this is not a great step in advance, when in addition to your year's wages, you are to receive four per cent upon your year's earnings? We ask you if you could not have made it (well, to keep within bounds,) one per cent more? We believe more than one per cent.

You have not all realized, perhaps, the exact condition of affairs the past year. Ara Cushman & Co., with their factory, capital and experience, have been at work for you in as strict a sense as you for them. The responsibility for results has been upon you as well as them. You, as well as they, could contribute to the profits of the business. Every cent's worth of waste lessened your profit, every cent saved increased it, every instance of poor work has diminished your dividend, and many other things which must be obvious to you by this time bear us out in the statement that the dividend might have been one per cent more, if we had all realized just how much rested with us. We have seen time and again the amount of ten cents wasted by one person in a day. Oh, that is nothing, you say. Well, if every one of the six or seven hundred wastes that amount in a day, is that anything? Of course this does not happen, but

you can all see how a mite from all would count up big at the end of a year. We mention this to impress you with the idea that upon you rests, in a great degree, the amount of your annual dividend.

Your committee wish to recommend that full power be voted them the coming year to settle with the firm all affairs of the shop. If you do not choose to do this, then choose in addition to your committee one from each branch of the trade, making about fifteen in all, and constitute them into a board of arbitration, or whatever you see fit to call them, and vote them full power. Your interests have been protected the past year by *three*, and if you cannot trust them the coming year, why it seems you must be willing to rest your interests in the hands of *fifteen*. This is a very important matter, and it is for you to settle. If you listen to outsiders, who are envious and jealous of this firm, and employes, the chronic kickers, who, could they have their way, would paralyze this great industry, those who always appeal to the passions and prejudices of men, those whose backs are toward the sunrise, then you will spurn every effort to be made to secure business, harmony and justice.

If, on the other hand, you will listen to the dictates of your own conscience, to those who are facing the sunrise, and beholding the dawning of a grander day, you will enter upon the second year with a firm determination to aid and assist in carrying on this grand move. Your committee, the past year, were handicapped from the start. We were given no power, no particular instruction. We were called upon several times by employer and employe, and at such times could only give our opinion and advice, such as it was. We do not wish to be understood that everything done the past year received our sanction; far from it. Among so many, you can but see it is almost impossible to go through a year without some misunderstanding on the part of some one.

There will constantly arise matters that must receive prompt, and at the same time just attention. But we believe they will grow less year by year, and that the time will come when they will be the exception and not the rule. No doubt the committee have been condemned and abused the past year. We know they have. And for what? We have done all in our power to keep peace between employer and employe, that nothing should arise that would tend to lessen the volume of business, that harmony might prevail among us, knowing as we do, by the accounts from day to day in the papers,

of the conflict going on all over our country between capital and labor. How disastrous, not only to you, but to this great industry and our city in which we all have a just pride, a conflict between the two would be! We believe our course to be right, and it is the proudest duty of our life to report the result we have this evening—a result that could have been accomplished in no other way.

We feel it our duty to call your attention to the fact that there are a few in the shop who are not satisfied, and who do not want any one else to be,—this not only with their wages, but everything else, they have become so accustomed to kicking that it has become chronic, and they are always finding something upon which to vent their spleen. We know of cases in the shop, where they have tried to create, and in fact have created, dissatisfaction by trying to impress upon some the fact that they were being misused, or ought to receive more pay, and all the time trying to make discord. We all want more pay, and we hope that such may be the result; and, certainly, if we can get more somewhere else, we are not doing our duty to ourselves or our families, by working for Ara Cushman & Co., at a sacrifice, and neither are we doing right to all the time keep telling a man he ought to receive more, and create in him a feeling of discontent, when he knows he is doing the best he can. It is better for us to work for two dollars per day—yes, for less, until we can better ourselves, than to leave a job that is paying that price with no other in view, and loaf on the streets for weeks.

Do not go out from here now, and say the committee told you that you were getting enough for your work. We mean no such thing. Many of you are working too low, and it is our wish, and it will be our aim to so conduct the affairs of the shop that you shall receive more, as soon as the conditions are favorable. What we wish to emphasize is, that no man or woman has any business to meddle and try to antagonize any move on the part of Ara Cushman & Co., and their employes. Justice to your fellow-workmen requires you to take hold of this move with the rest, and help make it the success it is sure to be. You will kick at these remarks, and we are prepared for the abuse that must follow, but we know that time will vindicate us, and that we shall then be properly understood.

If we had reported to-night, that the result of last year's business was such that no dividend would be declared, what a howl would have gone up from some! There are some among you who said you did not expect anything, and yet you were prepared if such was the

case, to condemn and injure this move if possible. Some of you have speculated and lost ; you have sold your dividend for what you thought was a big price, and have flattered yourselves upon your great foresight.

Now, although the dividend is one thing to be thought of, yet it is not the first, for the dividend will take care of itself if we look out for the elements that must contribute to that end. A full business the year round ; a condition of affairs between employer and employe of perfect harmony ; a constant effort on the part of the employe to do his or her work as if they were doing it for themselves, and an effort to imbue others with the same spirit, and a hundred kindred efforts, all in the same direction, will bring the dividend. Think of these things ; do not trouble about the dividend. That will be what you make it. Every writer upon this plan, every one who has adopted it, has laid great stress upon one particular thing ; if you will do your part, they all say it will succeed.

Edward Atkinson, one of the leading economists of the day, says : "There is no greater fallacy than the common assumption that capital can move more readily than labor ; once invested, it becomes a fixture and is at the mercy of circumstances." Two cases in Lewiston tend to prove this statement—the Lincoln and Lewiston Mills. In the same article he says it is impossible to treat this profit sharing without considering risk-sharing or loss-sharing at the same time. There is no rule of "heads I win, tails you lose," in legitimate commerce. If this be so, we must expect and be prepared for years when the accounts will figure up on the wrong side of the ledger. And although precaution has been taken against possible loss, yet it may be deemed best by the committee and the firm to still further provide for such contingencies by taking a small per cent of the dividend the next year and transferring it to a fund devoted to that purpose. In this way we can share in the profits and also in the losses.

In connection with this plan there are many things we might do for our moral, intellectual, and financial advantage. Establish societies among ourselves, benefit societies, to provide against sickness or accident to any of our number ; debating societies for our intellectual as well as moral advancement. Many ways in which we can improve our condition. Are you ready for it ? We pledge you the assistance of Mr. Cushman in every move you make for the advancement and improvement of your condition. Think of these

things, talk them over among yourselves, take hold with your committee and you will be surprised at what we can accomplish.

There are many things that might be said, but we will ask your indulgence no further this evening. Appreciating and recognizing the responsibilities resting upon your committee, we thank you for the honor that has been conferred in selecting us to represent your interest in the business of Ara Cushman & Co. We hope the coming year will be one of great prosperity to you all, that we shall accept the olive branch of peace offered us, and that discord and discontent shall give way to harmony and peace, and that strife shall be known no more among us forever.

Yours Respectfully,

GEO. LOTHROP, S. C. PARKER, CHAS. S. YEATON,	}	Committee.
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The result of the first year's experience at profit sharing, as announced in the report of the committee, has been encouraging. Its permanent success is a matter of mutual concern and interest, demanding good faith and sincere intention on the part of the employers, and the *best of service* on the part of employees. "Industrial partnership," says Mr. Wright, will not run itself. The mere paying over of so much money as a share of profits apart from conditions, and without watchfulness, will not call out the extra service. The dividend will be regarded as a present and may be demoralizing rather than beneficial. In general, success in profit sharing depends on a definite understanding, insistence that the bonus must be earned and not expected as a present, and patience in working and waiting for results."

Impressed, as we are, with the conviction that much may be accomplished through the system of industrial partnership or profit sharing, to the mutual advantage of capital and labor, by identifying interests and promoting harmony and good feeling, we are no less convinced that the permanent success of the plan inaugurated and now being tried as an experiment at Auburn, depends quite as much upon the *working* as the *managing* members of the "partnership." The *terms* of the partnership must be cheerfully complied with, *on both sides*. Business is not a charitable institution. The selfish interests of both parties in a business contract must be considered and brought in as allies.

LABOR'S HOLIDAY.

In several States, the first Monday of September is made a legal public holiday. The following act was passed by the last Legislature in Massachusetts:

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. The first Monday of September in each year, being the day celebrated and known as Labor's Holiday, is hereby made a legal public holiday, to all intents and purposes, in the same manner as Thanksgiving, Fast and Christmas days, the twenty-second of February, the thirtieth day of May and the fourth day of July, are now by law made public holidays.

SECT. 2. This Act shall take effect upon its passage.

Approved May 11, 1887.

An act making the same day a public holiday passed the Legislature of New York, May 6, 1887.

In those States, as well as in several others, the day now made a legal holiday has been celebrated as "Labor's Holiday," for several years. In Maine, the first observance of the day occurred last September on the fifth day of the month. In Portland, the city government officially recognized the day by hoisting the national colors on the City Hall, closing the city offices and suspending public work. A large meeting of workingmen and women was held at Long Island, near the city, which was presided over by the Mayor, and addressed by prominent gentlemen. The day was observed, more or less generally, in other cities and towns in the State. Custom, which often precedes and dictates statute law, is adding another holiday to the list, and the demand of custom will not fail of speedy attention at the hands of the Legislature of the State.

The objection is sometimes made to making another legal holiday that the number of holidays is already too large. This objection comes from those who are so situated that *legal* holidays are neither necessary nor important. *They can take a "holiday"* whenever they are so disposed. To the thousands of toilers in factories and workshops, it is a very different matter. To the men and women who are compelled to "toil and spin" amid the din of machinery, week in and week out, through the hot summer months, the anticipation of a day of rest and recreation brings hope to heavy hearts, and its realization, renewed strength and vigor to tired limbs.

REPORT OF THE DEPUTY COMMISSIONER OF LABOR.

The law does not require the Deputy Commissioner to make a special report. The following statement of the work done by him, under the provisions of the "Act to regulate the hours of labor and the employment of women and children," is prepared by the Deputy Commissioner, L. R. Campbell, and incorporated in this report.

"The act creating the office was approved March 17th, 1887. I was appointed and qualified as Deputy Commissioner of Labor, July 8th, 1887. The act is as follows :

TO REGULATE THE HOURS OF LABOR AND THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

SECTION 1. No female minor under eighteen years of age, no male minor under sixteen years of age, and no woman shall be employed in laboring in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment in this state more than ten hours in any one day, except when it is necessary to make repairs to prevent the interruption of the ordinary running of the machinery, or when a different apportionment of the hours of labor is made for the sole purpose of making a shorter day's work for one day of the week; and in no case shall the hours of labor exceed sixty in a week; and no male person sixteen years and over shall be so employed as above more than ten hours a day during minority, unless he voluntarily contracts to do so with the consent of his parents, or one of them, if any, or guardian, and in such case he shall receive extra compensation for his services; provided, however, any female of eighteen years of age or over may lawfully contract for such labor for any number of hours in excess of ten hours per day, not exceeding six hours in any one week or sixty hours in any one year, receiving additional compensation therefor; but during her minority the consent of her parents, or one of them, or guardian, shall first be obtained.

SECT. 2. Every employer shall post in a conspicuous place in every room where such persons are employed a notice, printed in plain, large type, stating the number of hours' work required of them on each day of the week, the exact time for commencing work in the morning, stopping at noon for dinner, commencing after dinner, and stopping at night; the form of such printed notice shall be furnished by the deputy commissioner of labor hereafter named, and shall be approved by the attorney general; and the employment of any such person for a longer time in any day than that so stated shall be deemed a violation of section one, unless it appears that such employment is to make up for time lost on some previous day of the same week, in consequence of the stopping of machinery upon which such person was employed or dependent for employment.

SECT. 3. Whoever, either for himself, or as superintendent, overseer, or agent for another, employs or has in his employment any person in violation of the provisions of section one, and every parent or guardian who permits any minor to be so employed, shall be punished by a fine of not less than twenty-five dollars nor more than fifty dollars for each offense. A certificate of the age of a minor made by him and by his parent or guardian at the time of his employment shall be conclusive evidence of his age in behalf of the hirer, upon any prosecution for a violation of the provisions of section one. Whoever falsely makes and utters such a certificate with an intention to evade the provisions of this act shall be subject to a fine of one hundred dollars.

SECT. 4. It shall be lawful, for any person, firm, or corporation engaged in any manufacturing or mechanical business, to contract with adult or minor employes to give one week's notice of intention on such employe's part to quit such employment, under a penalty of forfeiture of one week's wages. In such case the employer shall be required to give a like notice of intention to discharge the employe; and on failure shall pay to such employe a sum equal to one week's wages. No such forfeiture shall be enforced when the leaving or discharge of the employe is for a reasonable cause; provided, however, the enforcement of the penalty aforesaid shall not prevent either party from recovering damages for a breach of the contract of hire.

SECT. 5. No child under twelve years of age shall be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment in this state. Whoever, either for himself, or as superintendent, overseer, or agent of another, employs or has in his employment any child in violation of the provisions of this section, and every parent or guardian who permits any child to be so employed, shall be punished by a fine of not less than twenty-five nor more than fifty dollars for each offense.

SECT. 6. No child under fifteen years of age shall be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment in this state except during vacations of the public schools in the city or town in which he resides, unless during the year next preceding the time of such employment he has for at least sixteen weeks attended some public or private school, eight weeks of which shall be continuous; nor shall such employment continue unless such child in each and every year attends some public or private school for at least sixteen weeks, and no child shall be so employed who does not present a certificate made under or by the direction of the school committee, superintendent of the public schools, or the teacher of a private school, that such child has so attended school; and it shall be the duty of such committee, superintendent, or teacher to furnish such a certificate in accordance with the fact, upon request and without charge; provided, that this section shall not take effect until January one, eighteen hundred and eighty-eight.

SECT. 7. Any parent or guardian who procures a child to be employed contrary to section six, and any corporation, owner, superintendent, or agent of the owner of such establishment violating the provisions of said

section, shall forfeit the sum of one hundred dollars, one-half to the use of the county and one-half to the use of the city or town where the offense is committed. Money so recovered to the use of the city or town shall be added to its school money. It shall be the duties of the school committees and superintendent of public schools to inquire into violations of said section, and report the same to the county attorney, who shall prosecute therefor.

SECT. 8. Every owner, superintendent, or overseer of any such manufacturing or mechanical establishment shall require and keep on file a certificate of the age and place of birth of every child under sixteen years of age employed therein, so long as such child is so employed, which certificate shall also state in the case of a child under fifteen years of age the amount of his school attendance during the year next preceding such employment. Said certificate shall be signed by a member of the school committee of the place where such attendance has been had, or by some one authorized by such committee; and the form of said certificate shall be furnished by the state superintendent of schools, and shall be approved by the attorney general. The deputy commissioner of labor hereinafter named, or either of his assistants, may demand the names of the children under sixteen years employed in such establishment, in the several cities and towns of the state, and may require that the certificates of age and school attendance prescribed in this section shall be produced for his inspection, and a failure to produce the same shall be *prima facie* evidence that the employment of such child is illegal.

SECT. 9. The governor, by and with the advice and consent of the council, shall appoint a deputy commissioner of labor, at a salary of one thousand dollars a year, who shall hold office for two years, or until his successor is appointed, unless sooner removed. It shall be the duty of the deputy commissioner of labor to inquire into any violations of this act, and also to assist in the collection of statistics and other information which may be required for the use of the bureau of industrial and labor statistics; and said deputy commissioner shall, in addition to his salary provided by law, be allowed his reasonable expenses. Whenever the governor of this state shall be satisfied the deputy commissioner of labor cannot perform all the duties of his said office required by this section, in person, he shall, with the advice and consent of the council, appoint a sufficient number of assistant deputies to assist him in so doing. Said assistants shall hold their office for the term of two years, and act under the direction of said deputy commissioner of labor, and shall receive the sum of two dollars per day and reasonable expenses while actually engaged in duty. Said assistant may, at any time, be removed for cause by the governor. All bills for the expenses of the deputy commissioner of labor, and for the services and expenses of such assistant deputies, shall be audited by the council. For the purpose of inquiring into any violation of the provisions of this act, and enforcing the penalties thereof, such deputy commissioner and assistants may, at all reasonable times, enter any manufacturing or mechanical establishment and make investigation

concerning such violations. Such investigation shall be conducted with as little interruption as possible to the prosecution of the business of such establishment. Whoever interferes with said deputy commissioner or his assistants in the performance of their duties as prescribed in this act shall be fined fifty dollars.

SEC. 10. Nothing in this act shall apply to any manufacturing establishment or business the materials and product of which are perishable, and require immediate labor thereon to prevent decay thereof or damage thereto.

No office or headquarters having been provided for by the act creating this department, the Deputy Commissioner, after consultation, designated Rockland as the place for his official residence. Soon after my appointment, I had printed, time tables of the hours of labor required of minors and women, under the provisions of the law. The blank forms were forwarded by mail to manufacturers, and also to the press and other parties in the State for the purpose of public information. The blank form is given below.

STATE OF MAINE.

OFFICE OF DEPUTY COMMISSIONER OF LABOR, }
ROCKLAND, ME., JULY 9, 1887. }

HON. ORVILLE D. BAKER, Attorney General:

Dear Sir,—I have the honor to transmit herewith the following form of printed notice, which I propose to furnish to manufacturing and mechanical establishments wherein female minors under eighteen years of age, male minors under sixteen years of age, or women, are employed laboring. if you approve the same, as required by Chapter 139, Acts of 1887.

Yours respectfully,

L. R. CAMPBELL, Deputy Com. of Labor.

NOTICE.

Sections 1 and 2, Chapter 139, Acts of 1887, regulating the hours of labor.

SECTION 1. No female minor under eighteen years of age, no male minor under sixteen years of age, and no woman shall be employed in laboring in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment in this state, more than ten hours in any one day, except when it is necessary to make repairs to prevent the interruption of the ordinary running of the machinery, or when a different apportionment of the hours of labor is made for the sole purpose of making a shorter day's work for one day of the week; and in no case shall the hours of labor exceed sixty in a week; and no male person sixteen years and over shall be so employed as above, more than ten hours a day during minority, unless he voluntarily con-

tracts to do so with the consent of his parents, or one of them, if any, or guardian, and in such case he shall receive extra compensation for his services; provided, however, any female of eighteen years of age or over, may lawfully contract for such labor for any number of hours in excess of ten hours per day, not exceeding six hours in any one week or sixty hours in any one year, receiving additional compensation therefor, but during her minority, the consent of her parents, or one of them, or guardian, shall be first obtained.

SECT. 2. Every employer shall post in a conspicuous place in every room where such persons are employed, a notice printed in plain, large type, stating the number of hours work required of them on each day of the week, the exact time for commencing work in the morning, stopping at noon for dinner, commencing after dinner, and stopping at night; the form of such printed notice shall be furnished by the deputy commissioner of labor hereafter named, and shall be approved by the attorney general. And the employment of any such person for a longer time in any day than that so stated, shall be deemed a violation of section one, unless it appears that such employment is to make up for time lost on some previous day of the same week, in consequence of the stopping of machinery upon which such person was employed or dependent for employment.

TIME TABLE

Of the Hours of Labor required of such Minors and Women employed in this room as are included in the foregoing provisions of Statute.

	Hours Required.	Commence Work at	Stop for Dinner at	Commence after Dinner at	Stop at Night at
Monday					
Tuesday					
Wednesday					
Thursday					
Friday					
Saturday					

Manager.

ATTORNEY GENERAL'S OFFICE, }
AUGUSTA, JULY 9, 1887. }

TO LEONARD R. CAMPBELL, Esq.,

Deputy Commissioner of Labor.

Dear Sir,—I have examined the form of printed notice submitted to me this day, as required by Sec. 2 of Chap. 139 of the public laws of 1887, and I hereby approve the same.

ORVILLE D. BAKER, Attorney General.

Soon after the above blanks were distributed, I made a tour of the State to ascertain if these time-tables were properly made out and “posted in a conspicuous place in every room where minors and women were employed;” also to carry into effect section 5th of the act: “No child under twelve years of age shall be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment in this State.”

I have averaged about twenty days a month in visiting workshops and factories. So far as I can learn, the ten-hour law, or sixty hours per week, for minors and women, is, at this time, generally observed in factories and workshops where they are employed. I have had, at different times, more or less difficulty in keeping women piece-workers from violating the sixty-hour clause. I was called to investigate a case where the women piece-workers, it was claimed, were working over time. Going to the mill between the hours of 12 M. and 1 o'clock P. M., the power was let on and the women operators commenced work twenty minutes before the time designated in the time-table posted in the mill. I called the attention of the help to the hours required by the time-table, and notified them that they must conform to the table. I called on the agent of the mill, who said he was not aware that any of his operatives were not conforming with the law and that he “would attend to the matter.” At subsequent visits to the mill I have not ascertained that there has been any violation of the provisions of the law.

With but few exceptions, the Deputy Commissioner has found a general observance of the act. The ten-hour law seems to be generally satisfactory to all concerned. Occasionally a piece worker asserts that he would like to go back to the old state of things. Several managers of cotton mills have said to me that their production was as large under the ten as the eleven-hour arrangement. This, of course, implies that they have improved machinery, that the speed has been increased, and that no waste of time is allowed.

The operatives say that the increase of speed necessarily keeps them upon their feet more than under the old system, but that they much prefer the ten-hour to the old system.

CHILD LABOR.

Our law makers, after a full investigation of the interests and demands of the people, have wisely placed on our statute book a law designed to prohibit the employment of children under twelve years of age. I find violations of this section of the act are generally due to misrepresentations of ages of children, by the parents. I am fully aware that there are employers, who, if unrestrained by law or public opinion, would receive into their employ children of a very tender age, but I am happy to be able to say that this class composes a very small percentage of the hirers of help, in our State.

A part of section three of the act is as follows: "A certificate of the age of a minor made by him and by his parent or guardian at the time of his employment shall be conclusive evidence of his age in behalf of the hirer upon any prosecution for a violation of the provisions of section one, etc."

This law takes all responsibility from the employer and places it upon the parents and guardians. It is a universal custom for mills and workshops to keep on file the certificates of the ages and places of birth of the children under sixteen years of age. I have, however, from time to time, found children without certificates and have reported them to the managers of the mills or workshops where found, and caused them to be removed. It is impossible to obtain correct information as to the number of children under twelve years of age employed in mills and workshops before July 1, 1887, at which time the law went into effect, but it is universally acknowledged by persons well able to judge that the enforcement of the law has done much to keep children under twelve years of age out of mills and shops.

The correspondence incident to the enforcement of this act, and in sending out time blanks and school certificates, has occupied a great deal of my time.

From the enforcement of the school clause, good results are anticipated. This part of the law does not go into effect until January 1, 1888. I think mills and workshops are generally making arrangements for the efficient carrying out of the law.

The school certificates sent out are as follows :

CERTIFICATE.

I, the undersigned, — of — now in the employment of — at — and — (parent, or guardian or near relative) of said — having personal knowledge of the fact, hereby certify that said — was born at — on the — day of — 18 —, and is therefore now — years of age.

This certificate is made and filed in accordance with the provisions of chapter 139 of the Public Laws of 1887.

CERTIFICATE.

The undersigned, a member of the school committee of the town of — hereby certifies that — of — now in the employment of — at — to my personal knowledge attended school in said town of — during the year next preceding the time of said employment, for a period of not less than sixteen weeks, eight weeks of which at least were continuous.

This certificate is made and filed in accordance with the provisions of chapter 139 of the Public Laws of 1887.

CERTIFICATE.

The undersigned, duly authorized by the school committee of the town of — hereby certifies that — of — now in the employment of — at — to my personal knowledge attended school in said town of — during the year next preceding the time of said employment, for a period of not less than sixteen weeks, eight weeks of which at least were continuous.

This certificate is made and filed in accordance with the provisions of chapter 139 of the Public Laws of 1887.

In my next report I expect to give the results of my observations upon the following subjects :

- 1st. "The workings of the 'compulsory education law.'"
- 2d. "The safety and sanitary condition of factories and workshops."
- 3d. "The provisions for guarding machinery."

L. R. CAMPBELL,

Deputy Commissioner of Labor.

STATISTICS.

PART 5.

GENERAL STATISTICS.

For manifest reasons, it has been *impossible* for this Bureau to obtain full "statistical details" of the business and industries of the State. As we have stated in our letter of transmittal, to do so would require "much larger means and more extensive machinery than are provided."

Such a work can only be accomplished through the "means and machinery" provided for taking a census.

In July last, blanks were sent to the officers of towns and cities making inquiries as to valuations, polls, rate of tax, number of farms, number of farm laborers, average rate of wages paid farm laborers, and number and kinds of manufactures. Repeated efforts have been made to obtain complete returns from town officers, but the result of these efforts has not been very satisfactory. The fact that our blanks were not issued until some time after the "inventories" of towns were made, may furnish some excuse for the delinquences and defects in returns to this office.

Total number cities, towns and plantations in the State.....	505
" " reporting	471
" " not reporting.. ..	34
" " giving assessed valuation of real estate	466
" " " " " personal property,	465
" " number of polls	471
" " " farms... ..	437
" " delinquent as to real estate.....	39
" " " " personal property... ..	40
" " " " number of polls	34
" " " " " farms	68

ANDROSCOGGIN COUNTY.

No returns from Auburn, Lewiston or Livermore.

The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$4,555,219.00.

“ “ personal property, \$846,261.00.

Average monthly wages paid farm laborers, \$18.20.

“ rate of taxation, 15.5 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 3,682.

“ farms, 2,310.

AROOSTOOK COUNTY.

Returns are lacking from Amity, Ft. Kent, Grand Isle, Ludlow, Van Buren, Weston and the plantations of Allagash, Cary, Cyr, Hammond, New Canada and St. Francis, and in addition, Mapleton and Eagle Lake Plantation are defective as to number of farms.

The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$4,209,322.00.

“ “ personal property, \$1,518,335.00.

Average monthly wages paid farm laborers, \$17.57.

“ rate of taxation, 16 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 8,554.

“ farms, 5,853.

CUMBERLAND COUNTY.

No return has been received from New Gloucester; and in addition the return from Cape Elizabeth is defective as to assessed valuation of real estate and personal property, while returns from Bridgton, Freeport and Windham are defective as to number of farms.

The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$36,624,728.00.

“ “ personal property, 16,664,600.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$18.05.

“ rate of taxation, 14.6 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 22,897.

“ farms, 4,346.

FRANKLIN COUNTY.

Returns all in. Kingfield is defective as to number of farms.

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$4,084,789.00.

“ “ personal property, \$1,367,365.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$19.96.

“ rate of taxation, 15.7 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 4,384.

“ farms, 2,644.

HANCOCK COUNTY.

No return from No. 8 Plantation. The returns from Cranberry Isles, Deer Isle, Hancock, Otis, Sullivan and Tremont are defective as to number of farms. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$8,233,948.00.

“ “ personal property, \$2,202,821.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$18.88.

“ rate of taxation, 18.4 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 9,344.

“ farms, 3,029.

KENNEBEC COUNTY.

No returns from Gardiner and Rome, while those from Augusta and Winthrop are defective as to number of farms. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$15,018,199.00.

“ “ personal property, \$4,732,118.00.

Average monthly wages paid farm laborers, \$18.17.

“ rate of taxation 17.2 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 11,672.

“ farms, 5,154.

KNOX COUNTY.

No return from Rockland. Returns from Hope and Thomaston are defective as to number of farms. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$4,419,710.00.

“ “ personal property, \$2,528,965.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$18.00.

“ rate of taxation, 17.3 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 5,737.

“ farms, 1,939.

LINCOLN COUNTY.

Returns all in and complete on the following items :

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$4,515,128.00.

“ “ personal property, \$1,439,577.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$17.89.

“ rate of taxation, 18.7 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 5,869.

“ farms, 3,519.

OXFORD COUNTY.

The return from Riley Plantation is wanting, while that from Peru is defective as to assessed valuation of real estate and personal property, and Peru and Rumford as to number of farms. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$6,936,671.00.

“ “ personal property, \$1,998,843.00

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$19.07.

“ rate of taxation, 17.4 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 8,234.

“ farms, 4,236.

PENOBSCOT COUNTY.

No returns from Passadumkeag. Returns from Bangor, Brewer, Corinna, Dexter and Stetson are defective as to number of farms. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$15,445,587.00.

“ “ personal property, \$5,223,707.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$19.79.

“ rate of taxation, 20.5 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 17,658.

“ farms, 6,479.

PISCATAQUIS COUNTY.

No returns from Orneville and Elliotsville Plantation. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$2,464,315.00.

Assessed valuation of personal property, \$825,968.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$19.67.

“ rate of taxation, 19.3 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 3,637.

“ farms, 2,064.

SAGADAHOC COUNTY.

No return from Topsham, while returns from Bath and Richmond are defective as to number of farms, and Richmond as to valuation of personal property. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$5,641,279.00.

“ “ personal property, \$3,744,668.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$17.40.

“ rate of taxation, 19.2 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 4,525.

“ farms, 972.

SOMERSET COUNTY.

No returns from Detroit and Starks. The plantations of Carratunk, The Forks and West Forks are defective as to assessed valuation of real estate and personal property, and Moose River Plantation as to number of farms. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$7,329,941.00.

“ “ personal property, \$3,408,598.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$18.77.

“ rate of taxation, 19.5 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 8,105.

“ farms, 4,389.

WALDO COUNTY.

No return from Troy, and the returns from Belfast and Northport are defective as to number of farms. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$6,196,749.00.

“ “ personal property, \$2,233,176.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$18.67.

“ rate of taxation, 19.5 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 6,724.

“ farms, 4,030.

WASHINGTON COUNTY.

Returns are lacking from Addison, Columbia, Crawford, Deblois, Harrington and Machias, and those from Dennysville, Jonesport and Whitneyville are defective as to number of farms. The rest of the county returns as

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$5,460,253.00.

“ “ personal property, \$1,682,323.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$16.83.

“ rate of taxation 21.7 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls 8,308.

“ farms 3,112.

YORK COUNTY.

Returns all in, but those from Kennebunkport and North Berwick are defective as to number of farms.

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$17,125,322.00.

“ “ personal property, \$3,847,839.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$16.92.

“ rate of taxation, 16.6 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 15,354.

“ farms, 5,349.

THE STATE.

The incomplete returns, as explained above, in the several counties, show

Assessed valuation of real estate, \$148,261,160.00.

“ “ personal property, \$54,265,164.00.

Average monthly wages paid to farm laborers, \$18.37.

“ rate of taxation, 17.9 mills on a dollar.

Number of polls, 144,684.

“ farms, 59,425.

The Census of 1880 gave the number of farms in Maine as follows:

Androscoggin.	2,981
Aroostook.	5,802
Cumberland.	5,415
Franklin.	2,529
Hancock.	4,078
Kennebec.	5,431
Knox.	2,457
Lincoln.	3,213
Oxford.	4,689
Penobscot.	7,256
Piscataquis.	2,114
Sagadahoc.	1,336
Somerset.	4,664
Waldo.	4,277
Washington.	3,062
York.	5,005
Total number of farms in Maine.	64,309

Comparing our returns of number of farms with the census returns, the following counties show a marked increase: Aroostook, Franklin, Lincoln, Washington and York.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.

The following table of numbers and kinds of manufacturing industries in the State is compiled from returns from towns and cities and from other reliable sources.

MANUFACTURING

	Awnings and tents.	Agricultural implements.	Bakeries.	Boats.	Boilers.	Boots and shoes.	Boxes.	Bricks.	Butter and cheese.
Androscoggin.....	1	-	12	-	-	39	6	6	7
Aroostook	-	-	2	-	-	10	-	2	7
Cumberland	3	-	23	12	5	94	9	10	1
Franklin.....	-	3	-	2	-	10	4	2	-
Hancock.....	-	-	-	23	-	21	-	15	-
Kennebec.....	-	5	7	-	-	44	10	9	5
Knox	-	1	3	15	-	23	-	-	-
Lincoln	1	1	2	2	-	14	1	22	-
Oxford	1	4	1	2	-	35	7	2	3
Penobscot	-	1	6	10	2	59	13	13	8
Piscataquis	-	-	-	1	-	7	2	3	2
Sagadahoc.....	-	-	1	3	2	18	-	8	1
Somerset	-	4	1	-	-	30	4	4	2
Waldo.....	-	2	2	4	-	36	1	4	1
Washington	-	-	4	16	-	33	4	1	1
York	1	2	10	3	-	45	10	10	1
Totals.....	6	23	74	93	9	508	71	111	39

INDUSTRIES.

Canned goods.	Carriages.	Cigars.	Clothing.	Confectionery.	Cooperage.	Cotton goods.	Doors, sash and blinds	Drain pipe.	Earthen ware.	Edge tools.	Excelsior.
8	23	10	8	6	6	10	7	2	-	2	1
-	22	1	1	-	1	-	3	-	-	1	-
34	46	14	17	14	21	5	9	2	2	1	-
6	38	-	1	1	5	-	3	-	-	-	4
12	16	-	6	-	26	-	4	1	-	-	1
6	44	2	8	7	9	4	11	-	2	9	4
9	21	2	1	2	17	-	1	2	-	2	-
4	10	-	2	3	5	-	-	-	-	1	1
10	29	1	7	1	12	-	10	-	-	1	-
1	52	3	5	7	48	-	6	3	2	5	1
-	11	-	1	1	3	-	2	-	-	-	3
-	6	3	3	-	3	-	1	1	1	1	-
5	32	-	12	2	2	-	6	-	-	4	3
2	31	-	20	1	35	-	2	-	-	2	-
47	23	-	1	4	10	-	3	-	-	1	-
5	49	9	23	3	5	5	5	2	1	2	-
149	453	45	116	52	208	24	73	13	8	32	18

MANUFACTURING

	Files.	Foundries and machinery.	Furniture.	Granite.	Grist-mills.	Harnesses and trunks.	Iron.	Knit goods.	Lasts and last blocks.
Androscoggin.....	1	11	2	-	20	11	-	1	3
Aroostook.....	-	2	7	-	29	11	-	-	-
Cumberland	2	12	16	2	33	19	-	-	2
Franklin	-	2	1	2	19	11	-	-	-
Hancock	-	2	2	28	13	5	-	2	-
Kennebec	-	7	6	4	26	19	-	-	-
Knox	-	7	2	31	9	8	-	-	-
Lincoln	-	1	3	2	24	1	-	-	-
Oxford	-	1	11	9	32	13	-	-	-
Penobscot.....	2	10	8	1	40	38	-	-	1
Piscataquis	-	1	3	-	11	9	1	-	-
Sagadahoc.....	1	7	2	-	6	6	-	-	-
Somerset.....	-	3	8	1	24	12	-	-	-
Waldo	-	4	1	3	18	10	-	-	-
Washington.....	-	5	-	14	19	11	-	1	1
York.....	-	10	2	-	22	19	-	-	-
Totals.....	6	85	74	97	350	203	1	4	7

INDUSTRIES—Continued.

Leather and leather-board.	Lime.	Lumber.	Marble working.	Matches.	Oil-cloth.	Paper.	Plaster.	Powder.	Pumps.	Sails.	Slate.
2	-	34	5	-	-	1	-	-	2	-	-
3	-	106	2	-	-	-	3	-	1	-	-
10	-	63	13	1	-	1	2	1	5	7	-
3	-	63	2	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
8	-	61	2	1	-	-	-	-	4	6	-
9	-	67	11	-	4	3	1	-	-	-	-
3	40	20	2	-	-	-	-	2	3	13	-
2	-	47	4	1	-	-	-	-	1	7	-
7	-	107	9	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
13	1	120	6	1	-	1	-	-	2	4	-
2	-	43	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	7
1	-	33	2	-	-	1	-	-	2	6	-
4	-	64	3	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1
8	4	81	2	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	-
7	-	74	6	-	-	-	1	-	2	11	-
5	-	88	12	-	-	-	-	-	3	1	-
87	45	1071	82	4	5	8	8	3	28	59	8

MANUFACTURING—Concluded.

	Soap.	Spools and spool stock.	Ship-yard.	Starch.	Tin-ware	Toothpicks.	Turned goods.	Vinegar	Wire.	Wood pulp.	Wool carding.	Woolen goods.
Androscoggin...	4	-	-	-	3	1	5	1	-	1	1	9
Aroostook.....	-	-	-	31	3	-	-	-	-	-	4	3
Cumberland.....	5	-	7	-	10	-	3	1	1	3	2	4
Franklin.....	2	8	-	-	6	-	2	-	-	-	2	3
Hancock.....	-	5	13	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	5	3
Kennebec.....	2	-	-	-	10	-	2	-	-	1	-	9
Knox.....	1	-	12	-	11	-	-	3	-	-	1	3
Lincoln.....	-	-	18	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	5	-
Oxford.....	1	18	-	-	6	1	3	1	-	1	3	3
Penobscot.....	3	7	4	2	11	-	4	-	-	1	6	7
Piscataquis.....	-	6	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	1	7
Sagadahoe.....	-	-	18	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
Somerset.....	2	3	-	-	1	-	3	-	-	2	5	8
Waldo.....	1	2	7	-	6	-	2	-	-	-	5	1
Washington....	-	1	23	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	4	1
York.....	5	-	5	-	11	-	-	-	-	-	4	10
Totals.....	26	50	107	33	93	2	24	7	1	9	49	72

Total number of manufacturing establishments in Maine in	
1887	4,856
Number given in census report of 1880	4,481
Increase since 1880	375

COTTON AND WOOLEN MILLS.

We republish the following remarks and tables from the Report of Statistics of the Industries of Maine for the year 1886, by the Secretary of State :

Over half of the total amount of capital invested in the State at the present time is invested in the manufacture of cotton and woollen goods, boots, shoes and lumber. Of the present cotton manufacturing companies in the State the Cabot Company of Brunswick may almost be said to have had its origin in 1812, when the Maine Cotton and Woollen Factory Company was incorporated, which in 1820 had 1,248 spindles in operation, manufacturing 100,000 yards of cotton cloth annually. The mill was subsequently destroyed, but in 1834 the Brunswick Company renewed the business that is continued at the present time by the Cabot Manufacturing Company. In 1831 the York Manufacturing Company of Saco, and the Portsmouth Company of South Berwick were started, and in 1844 the Hallowell Cotton Manufacturing Company was organized. In 1845 the Laconia Company of Biddeford began operations and was followed by the Pepperell Manufacturing Company in 1850. In 1846 the Lincoln Mill was built at Lewiston, and during the following ten years the city of Lewiston had its foundation laid as the chief cotton manufacturing city in Maine. The splendid water power afforded by the falls of the Androscoggin River was utilized by the construction of canals for the diversion of the river's current from its proper channel that it might be used as the motive power for the splendid cotton mills that have since been erected in quick succession upon their banks. In 1850 the Lewiston and Bates corporations began manufacturing operations, and in 1854 the Hill Manufacturing Company erected its first mill. In 1858 the Continental (Porter) was erected and began operations, to be followed in 1861 by the starting of the Androscoggin Mills. Since the above dates several new mills have been erected by the above-named corporations, and in 1883 the Avon Manufacturing Company erected its mill for the manufacture of duck and fancy quilts. In 1846 cotton manufacturing was also begun in

Augusta, and is continued at the present time by the Edwards Manufacturing Company. In 1858 the Westbrook Manufacturing Company began operations at Saccarappa; in 1871 the Barker Mill at Auburn; in 1874 the Lockwood Company at Waterville; in 1875 the Farwell Mills at Lisbon; in 1877 the Sanford Mills at Sanford, and in 1881 the Southard Manufacturing Company at Richmond. The capital of the several cotton mills in the State at the present time is as follows:

Androscoggin Mills, Lewiston	\$1,000,000
Avon Manufacturing Company, Lewiston	100,000
Barker Mill, Auburn	340,000
Bates Manufacturing Company, Lewiston	1,000,000
Cabot Manufacturing Company, Brunswick	600,000
Continental Mills, Lewiston	1,500,000
Edwards Manufacturing Company, Augusta	500,000
Farwell Mills, Lisbon	500,000
Franklin Company, Lewiston	1,000,000
Hallowell Cotton Manufacturing Company, Hallowell	300,000
Hill Manufacturing Company, Lewiston	1,000,000
Laconia Company, Biddeford	1,000,000
Lewiston Mills, Lewiston	300,000
Lockwood Company, Waterville	1,800,000
Pepperell Manufacturing Company, Biddeford	1,200,000
Portsmouth Company, South Berwick	137,000
Southard Manufacturing Company, Richmond	125,000
Westbrook Manufacturing Company, Westbrook	400,000
York Manufacturing Company, Saco	900,000
<hr/>	
Total	\$13,702,000

WOOLEN MANUFACTURING.

Since 1850 the number of woolen mills in this State has about trebled, but, although the increase in number has thus been comparatively slow, the increase in the amount of capital invested and the value of their annual product has been very great, as will be seen by the following comparative statement :

	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.
Establishments.....	36	26	107	93
Hands employed.....	624	1,027	3,042	3,095
Capital invested.....	\$467,600	\$932,400	\$4,167,745	\$3,876,028
Wages paid.....	-	263,216	1,047,151	1,044,606
Value of materials used.....	495,940	1,003,366	3,958,759	4,294,042
Value of products.....	753,300	1,717,007	6,398,881	6,686,073
Power used—steam.....	-	-	140 h. p.	404 h. p.
Power used—water.....	-	-	4,453 h. p.	4,406 h. p.

Of the companies doing business in the State at the present time the following will show the year they began operations and the amount of capital invested :

	Year.	Capital.
Brown Manufacturing Company, Dover.....	1884	\$100,000
Cascade Woolen Company, Oakland.....	1882	125,000
Georges River Mills, Warren.....	1878	60,000
Harper Manufacturing Company, Welchville.....	1877	50,000
Home Manufacturing Company, Lewiston.....	1881	60,000
Johnson Woolen Company, Wayne.....	1878	46,000
Knox Woolen Company, Camden.....	1872	75,000
Madison Woolen Company, Madison.....	1881	100,000
Mooshead Mills, East Wilton.....	-	50,000
Newichawanick Company, South Berwick.....	1854	175,000
North Berwick Company, North Berwick.....	1837	80,000
Pondicherry Company, Bridgton.....	1873	100,000
Readfield Woolen Manufacturing Company, Readfield.....	1878	24,000
Robinson Manufacturing Company, Oxford.....	1862	100,000
Vassalboro' Woolen Mills, North Vassalboro'.....	1863	432,000
Winthrop Mills Company, Winthrop.....	1866	150,000
Worumbo Manufacturing Company, Lisbon Falls.....	1864	500,000

Number and tonnage of vessels built in Maine for the year ending Sept. 30, 1887; also the number of vessels engaged in the fisheries. From returns of Collectors of Customs.

Custom District.	Vessels built.		Vessels engaged in fisheries.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
Bangor	-	-	2	32.98
Bath	15	6,213.69	7	101.71
Belfast	2	1,775.28	45	1,569.47
Castine	4	41.08	64	2,864.82
Kennebunk	-	-	10	168.58
Machias	6	1,028.29	16	286.13
Passamaquoddy	-	-	12	346.00
Portland and Falmouth	3	57.10	141	6,657.47
Saco	-	-	5	44.55
Waldoboro'	5	3,288.13	98	1,856.11
Wiscasset	3	932.00	46	1,914.00
York	-	-	2	15.82
	38	13,335.57	448	15,857.64

Summer Resorts.

The difficulty of obtaining complete and reliable statistics relating to numbers and expenditures of "summer visitors" from other States is apparent. There are about 250 hotels in the State known as "summer hotels," but thousands of visitors to Maine during the summer months stop at private boarding houses or "camp out." The numbers and expenditures of these classes of summer visitors cannot be ascertained by any system of "voluntary circulars" or even through special agents. In reply to circular letters sent to all the known summer hotels in the State, answers have been received from 60.

A special agent at Bar Harbor succeeded in obtaining a full report of visitors at that famous summer resort, from both hotels and cottages.

Number of guests from out of the State at hotels and cottages at Bar Harbor during the summer of 1887, 10,673.

Estimated expenditures, \$884,400.

Number of guests at other summer hotels reporting, 12,590.

Estimated expenditures, \$329,410.

Total number reported, 23,263.

Total estimated expenditures, \$1,213,810.

It is *estimated* that 100,000 persons from out of the State made up the army of "summer visitors" during the past season, and it is also *estimated* that the total of expenditures, including the large amount laid out in building cottages and other permanent investments, was nearly if not quite ten millions of dollars.